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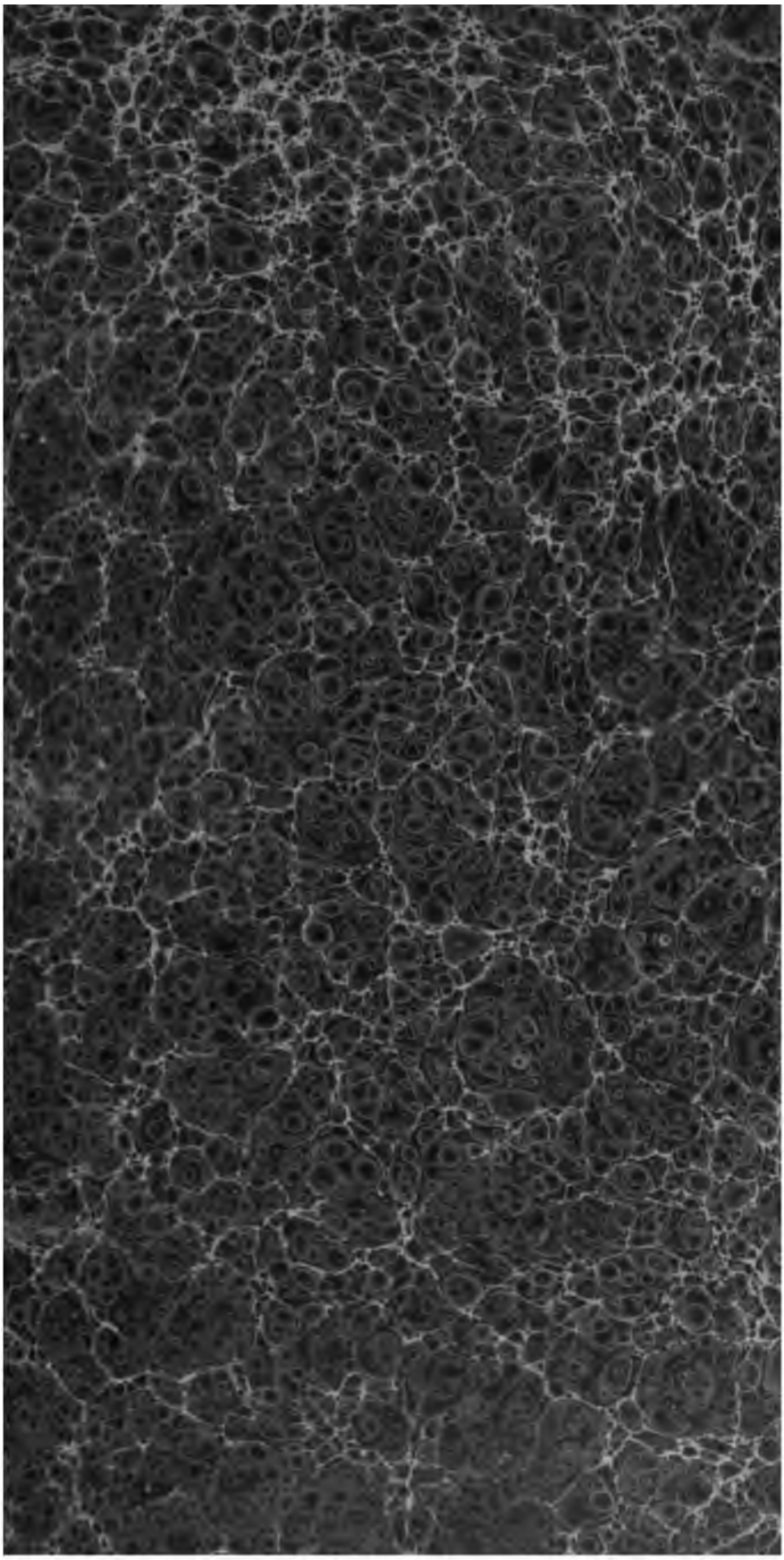

CHAMBERS'S

ENCYCLOPÆDIA

William and Robert

CHAMBERS'S

ENCYCLOPÆDIA

A DICTIONARY

OF UNIVERSAL KNOWLEDGE FOR THE PEOPLE

ILLUSTRATED

WITH MAPS AND NUMEROUS WOOD ENGRAVINGS

REVISED EDITION

VOL. I

LONDON

W. AND R. CHAMBERS 47 PATERNOSTER ROW

AND HIGH STREET EDINBURGH

1874

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PREFACE.

IT is now considerably more than a hundred years since EPHRAIM CHAMBERS gave to the world his *Cyclopædia, or Universal Dictionary of Knowledge*—the prototype, as it proved to be, of a number of similar works, in Britain as well as in other countries, which must have contributed in no small measure to increase the sum of general intelligence. In nearly all these works there has been a tendency to depart from the plan of their celebrated original, as concerns some of the great departments of science, literature, and history; these being usually presented, not under a variety of specific heads, as they commonly occur to our minds when information is required, but aggregated in large and formal treatises, such as would in themselves form books of considerable bulk. By such a course it is manifest that the serviceableness of an Encyclopædia as a dictionary for reference is greatly impaired, whatever may be the advantages which on other points are gained.

With a view to bring back the Encyclopædia to its original purpose of a *Dictionary of Knowledge*, even down to matters of familiar conversation, the Germans formed the plan of their *Conversations-Lexicon*, a work which, extending to a long series of volumes, has passed through ten editions, and obtained a world-wide celebrity. Believing that a translation of the latest edition of that well-conceived and laboriously executed work would be generally acceptable, the Editors made an arrangement for that purpose with the proprietor, Mr Brockhaus of Leipsic. After some time, however, had been spent in translating, the task of adapting the information to English requirements was found so difficult, that the resolution was taken to bring out a substantially new work, following in its construction the admirable plan of the *Conversations-Lexicon*, but making use of its valuable matter, only so far as it might be found suitable.

CHAMBERS'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA, therefore, although constructed on the basis of the latest edition of the *Conversations-Lexicon*, is, in no part, a mere translation of that work. All that specially relates to Great Britain and her colonies, as well as to the states of North and South America, is collected from new and more direct sources. The articles also on the physical sciences and practical arts receive greater prominence than in the German work, and are nearly all original, being mostly the work of contributors having special knowledge of the subjects. Even in the articles of the *Conversations-Lexicon* relating to Germany and other continental countries, as well as

to subjects of a universal interest, the lapse of time (now ten years) since the publication of that work began, as well as the difference in the relative importance of the same subject in different countries, has rendered great alterations necessary in order to adapt the information to the present time and to Great Britain. The employment of illustrative engravings and maps, is another feature in which the present work differs from the German.

The general character of the work, now thus far advanced, is indicated by its title—*A Dictionary of Universal Knowledge for the People.* The several topics are not handled with a view to the technical instruction of those who have to make a special study of particular branches of knowledge or art. The information given may be characterised as *non-professional*, embracing those points of the several subjects which every intelligent man or woman may have occasion to speak or think about. At the same time, every effort is made that the statements, so far as they go, shall be precise and scientifically accurate. One great aim in the arrangement of the work has been to render it *easy of consultation.* It is expressly a Dictionary, in one alphabet, as distinguished on the one hand from a collection of exhaustive treatises, and, on the other, from a set of Dictionaries of special branches of knowledge. To save the necessity of wading through a long treatise in order to find, perhaps, a single fact, the various masses of systematic knowledge have been broken down, as it were, to as great a degree as is consistent with the separate explanation of the several fragments. In the greater number of articles, however, there will be found copious references to other heads with which they stand in natural connection; and thus, while a single fact is readily found, its relation to other facts is not lost sight of. It will be observed, that by means of accentuation, some assistance is given in the pronouncing of the proper names which form the heads of the articles. At the conclusion of the work, it is intended to give a copious General Index, referring not only to the distinct articles, but to subjects casually noticed—an arrangement which cannot fail to be of considerable use to those who wish to consult the work on many matters of interest.

W. & R. CHAMBERS.

EDINBURGH, *March* 31, 1860.

PREFACE TO REVISED EDITION.

Ever since the completion of CHAMBERS'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA in 1868, alterations have been made from time to time in the successive reprints of sheets, so as to meet the more important changes taking place. But within the last eighteen months, the whole of the articles have undergone thorough revision, and have been brought up to the present time; not a few of them having been entirely re-written. The present re-issue is thus virtually a *New Edition*, and will, it is hoped, be found to represent the actual state of things. It is proper to add, that the revision has been effected under the careful superintendence of ANDREW FINDLATER, LL.D., who has throughout taken charge of the work, and imparted to it that practically useful character which has rendered it so universally acceptable.

W. & R. CHAMBERS.

EDINBURGH, *November* 1874.

EDITORIAL STATEMENT.

In the interests of literature, and in defence of their rights as authors, Messrs CHAMBERS have to make the following Statement regarding an American edition of their *Encyclopædia:*

By an arrangement with Messrs Lippincott of Philadelphia, they were furnished with duplicate stereotype plates of the work, in order that it might be simultaneously printed and issued in the United States. After a time, the American publishers began to make extensive alterations in the articles, a thing which had not been contemplated in the agreement. Had the alterations been confined to bringing the information up to a more recent date, or correcting errors of fact, nothing need have been said about it. But it is a serious matter when, in a re-issue of a work, statements and opinions are introduced which are repudiated by and hateful to the original proprietors, their name all the while appearing on the title-page. That Messrs Chambers have reason to complain of being placed in this unpleasant and false position by the American edition of their *Encyclopædia*, will be admitted by any one who will look at the following alterations, selected from a number that could be noted.

FREE TRADE (*Original Edition*). 'This term, when used so late as twenty years ago, expressed a disputed proposition, and was the badge of a political party; it now expresses the most important and fundamental truth in political economy. From its simplicity, it affords, to those who expect to make political economy an exact science, the hope that they have obtained an axiom. But it has in reality been established as the result of a double experience—the one being the failure of all deviations from it, the other the practical success of the principle during the short period in which it has been permitted to regulate the commerce of the country.'

FREE TRADE (*American Edition*), 'a dogma of modern growth, industriously taught by British manufacturers and their commercial agents. For many years certain political economists have laboured to establish this theory upon a reliable basis, and have asserted that the doctrine represents an important truth; but no nation has attained substantial prosperity except by protection to native industry, whether avowed or disavowed. The doctrine had no foothold in the policy of any civilised nation, and had no legislative birth until put forth by Sir R. Peel in 1846. While it was the interest of Great Britain to protect her industry, she imposed sufficient duties; and when, by this means, her producers of wealth became strong, and able to compete with those of other countries, protection yielded to reciprocity; and even at the present time, the nations most clamorous for free trade rely upon it in *theory* only, reciprocity in fact, and protection in principle. Even the most strenuous advocates of the theory dare not put it to the test of experience in its fullness. The teachers, therefore, remain self-deceived. The cloistered sophists of their schools, and the propagandists of free-trade, are doubtless as learned as the sophists of any age, and practically as useless. Free-trade expressions need Americanising, as they are utterly hostile to our prosperity, and subversive of scientific truth. Whenever an advocate of this dogma, schooled in their errors, has found devolving upon himself the responsibility of dealing with practical questions, he finds their supposed cardinal truths as groundless as the mythical Arcadias and Utopias of romance. The sophistries of free trade are put forth to lull the suspicions of the deluded purveyors to the wealth of England, and are advocated most strenuously by agents of British manufacturing houses and foreign residents in our cities, whose chief aim is the accumulation of wealth by extensive sales of foreign products, regardless of the injury they may inflict on American interests.' With a great deal more to the same purpose—an entire perversion of the original.

PROTECTION—PROTECTION DUTY (*Original Edition*), 'in Political Economy, terms applied to a practice, now in disuse in Britain, of discouraging, by heavy duties and otherwise, the importation of foreign goods, under the notion that such a practice increased the prosperity of the country at large.'

PROTECTION—PROTECTION DUTY (*American Edition*), 'in Political Economy, terms applied to a practice, found necessary in the United States, of discouraging, by heavy duties and otherwise, the importation of foreign goods, it having been proved that such a practice increases the prosperity of the country at large.'

SLAVERY (*Original Edition*). 'Notwithstanding the statement in the "Declaration of Independence," that "all men are born free and equal, and possess equal and inalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," the colonies which threw off the British yoke numbered several hundred thousand negro slaves, whose condition of slavery was expressly recognised in the constitution of the United States, as ratified in 1788.'

SLAVERY.—In the *American Edition* the foregoing passage is omitted; and mention is made that the colonists petitioned the king as early as 1770 to restrain the practice of introducing slaves. It is added: 'Their petition was of no avail; and with the further development of the country, the institution, regarded at first as a moral and political evil, came to be recognised as a social necessity.' Here a historical fact of some moment is suppressed. Not a word is said as to why the States did not at once peremptorily abolish slavery on shaking off the rule of the mother-country.

We come to a much more serious perversion in Vol. IX. It occurs under the article VICTORIA I., when referring to the prosperous condition of the United Kingdom during her reign.

Original Edition.—'The progress made by the nation in the various elements of civilisation, especially in that of material prosperity, has been unparalleled (see GREAT BRITAIN); and perhaps during no reign has a greater measure of political contentment been enjoyed.'

American Edition.—'The progress made by the nation in the various elements of civilisation, especially in that of material prosperity, has been unparalleled (see GREAT BRITAIN); but a growing discontent under her unequal institutions, and a progress towards republicanism, are plainly apparent.' Here follows a slanderous imputation concerning His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, which we should be ashamed to copy.

Was there ever so flagrant an abuse in the reprinting of an English work in the United States? The name of Messrs Chambers, proprietors of the original work, is maintained on an American reprint, in which, without leave asked, and without their knowledge, opinions are interpolated entirely different from those they have always advocated, and not only so, but sentiments are introduced as indelicate as they are reprehensible. For this injury, so far as is at present to be seen, there is no competent redress. Messrs Chambers are therefore under the necessity of taking the only measure of self-defence open to them, by calling public attention to the unwarrantable proceeding, and intimating, that the only authentic edition of their *Encyclopædia*, and that for which alone they are answerable, is the edition published by themselves in Edinburgh and London, and bearing their imprint accordingly.

EDINBURGH,
November 2, 1874.

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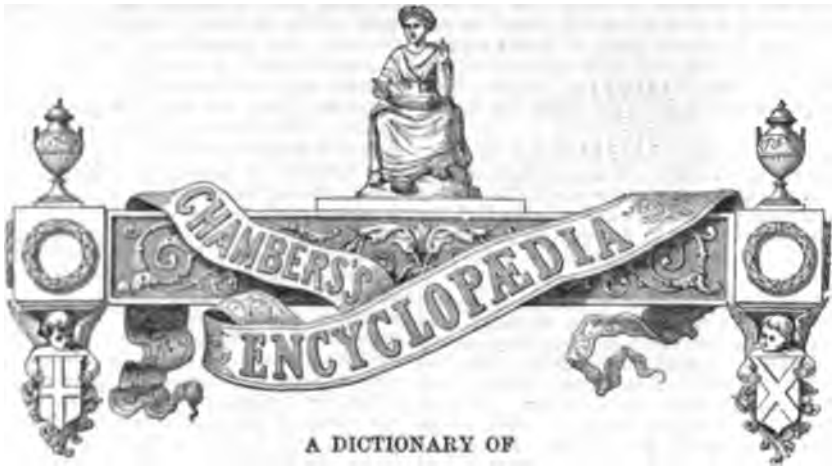


UNIVERSAL KNOWLEDGE FOR THE PEOPLE

A is the first letter in almost all alphabets; the only exceptions, perhaps, are the Ethiopian, where it stands thirteenth, and the Runic, in which the order is altogether different (see RUNES). It has in English at least four distinct sounds, as heard in *ale*, *man*, *father*, *all*. Of these, the third may be considered its primitive and proper sound; it is its name-sound in perhaps all languages except English, and is that which is assigned to it in comparative grammar. This sound is the purest and fullest in human speech; it is that which the child learns first and most easily to produce, and its sign stands as if by right at the head of the alphabet. In the oldest languages it is the predominating vowel, and gives them their peculiar fulness and strength. Philologists consider it the *heaviest* of the three fundamental vowels; the other two, *i* and *u* (whose primitive and proper sounds are heard in *me* and *do*), seem to have arisen out of *a*, by lightening or weakening it (Lat. *cadence*—*incidence*, *calco*—*inculco*). By combining with these, *a* gives rise to *ai*, *au*, which in their turn coalesce into *é* and *ó*.—In the Phœnician alphabet, the letter A bears the name of *aleph*; i.e., 'ox,' with reference to its most ancient form, which rudely represented an ox's head. From this came the Greek name *alpha*. For engraving or tracing on stone or other hard materials, characters composed of straight lines are best adapted, and such was naturally the earliest form of A and the other letters. It is easy to trace the growth of our small *a* or *a* out of the monumental A. In Greek and Roman inscriptions executed hastily or carelessly, the form is often found; and this, written with a flexible reed, became rounded into .—For A and the other letters as abbreviations, see ABBREVIATIONS.

A, as a note in Music, is the major sixth of the scale of C, major. When perfectly in tune to C, it stands in the proportion of $\frac{3}{5}$ of 1. But in this state it would not be a fifth to D, the second note of the scale of C, being a comma too flat, which difference is as 80 to 81. The ear being sensibly offended with this deficiency, the note A is therefore made the least degree higher than perfect—namely, $\frac{80}{81}$, by which the advantage is gained, that A is a fifth above D ($\frac{1}{1}\frac{0}{0}\frac{8}{8}$), or only deficient in the proportion of $\frac{1}{8}\frac{6}{0}\frac{1}{9}$—a deficiency so trifling that the ear accepts the fifth, D, A, and the sixth, C, A, as perfect, although, mathematically calculated, the one is too great and the other too small.—For A Major and A Minor, see KEY.

A 1, a symbol by which first-class vessels are known in Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping (q. v.), and by which the operations of shippers of goods and insurers are governed. Surveyors appointed by the society examine all vessels in course of building, with a view to ascertaining their character, and inscribing them accordingly in the register. A designates the character of the hull of the vessel; the figure 1, the efficient state of her anchors, cables, and stores; when these are insufficient, in quantity or quality, the figure 2 is used. The character A is assigned to a new ship for a certain number of years, varying from four to fifteen, according to the material and mode of building, but on condition of the vessel being statedly surveyed, to see that the efficiency is maintained. A vessel built under a roof is allowed an additional year on that account. An additional period of one year, and, in certain cases, of two years, is also allowed to vessels whose decks, outside planking, &c., are fastened in a specified way. After the original period has elapsed, the character A may be '*continued*' or '*restored*' for a time (1—8 years), on condition of certain specified repairs.—When a vessel has passed the age for the character A, but is still found fit for conveying perishable goods to all parts of the world, it is registered A in red. (The symbol for this class was formerly Æ

asterisk in red).—Ships Æ in black form the third class, and consist of such as are still found, on survey, fit to carry perishable goods on *shorter voyages*. —Classes E and I comprise ships sufficient to convey goods not liable to sea-damage; the one class, for voyages of any length, the other, for shorter voyages.

A CAPELLA, or **A LA CAPELLA**, in Mus., means, in the church style; it is equivalent to Alla Breve (q. v.), a time-signature which frequently appears in church-music. It also denotes that the instruments are to play in unison with the voices, or that one part is to be played by a number of instruments.

AA, the name of a number of rivers and streams in the north of France, Holland, Germany, and Switzerland. As many as forty have been enumerated. The word is said to be of Celtic origin, but it is allied to the Old German *aha*, Gothic *ahva*, identical with the Latin *aqua*, 'water.' Ach or Aach is another form of the same word. Four streams of the name of Ach fall into the Lake of Constance. The word, in both forms, occurs as final syllable in many names of places, as, Fulda (formerly Fuldaha), Biberach, Biberich, &c. In the plural, it is Aachen (waters, springs), which is the German name of Aix-la-chapelle (q.v.). Aix, the French name of so many places connected with springs, is derived from Lat. *Aquæ*, which became in old French *Aigues*, and then Aix. Compare the Celtic Esk, Ex, Axe, Ouse.

AALBORG (meaning Eel-town), a seaport in the north of Jutland, with considerable trade; pop. 11,721.

AAR, next to the Rhine and Rhone, the largest river in Switzerland, rises in the glaciers near the Grimsel in Berne, forms the Falls of Handeck, 200 feet high, flows through Lakes Brienz and Thun, and passing the towns of Interlaken, Thun, Berne, Solothurn, Aaran, Brugg, and Klingenau, joins the Rhine at the village of Coblenz, in Aargau, after a course of nearly 200 miles. It is a beautiful crystal stream, and, though rapid, is navigable for small-craft from Lake Thun. There are several small rivers of the same name in Germany.

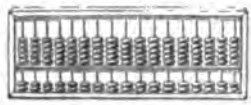
AARGAU (ARGOVIE), a canton of Switzerland, on the lower course of the Aar, and having the Rhine for its north boundary. Its surface is diversified with hills and valleys, is well wooded, and generally fertile. The area is about 530 sq. miles, and the population in 1870 was 198,873, rather more than half being Protestants. Besides agriculture, considerable manufacturing industry in cotton and silk is carried on both in the towns and country, and the prosperity of the population has of late markedly increased. In this canton is the castle of Habsburg or Hapsburg, the original seat of the imperial family of Austria. The chief town is **AARAU**, situated on the Aar; pop. 5449.

AARHUUS, a seaport on the east coast of Jutland, and seat of a bishop; pop. (1870) 15,025.

AARON, the elder brother of Moses, was appointed his assistant and spokesman, and at the giving of the Mosaic law received for himself and his descendants the hereditary dignity of the priesthood. Aaron assisted his brother in the administration of public affairs. He died in the 123d year of his age, on Mount Hor, on the borders of Idumea. His third son, Eleazar, succeeded him in the office of high-priest.

ABACA, or **MANILLA HEMP**, is the fibre of a species of plantain or banana (*Musa troglodytarum*), a native of the Philippine Isles, where it is extensively cultivated. The leaf-stalks are split into long stripes, and the fibrous part is then separated from the fleshy pulp. A labourer can in this way produce daily 50 lbs. of hemp. Before 1825, the quantity produced was insignificant, but now it amounts to nearly 31,000 tons annually. In Manilla there is a steam rope-work for making ropes of it for naval purposes. They are very durable, but not very flexible.—The fibre of a number of species of *Musa* is used in tropical countries. See **PLANTAIN**.

A'BACUS, an instrument seldom seen except in infant-schools, where it is used to make the elementary operations of arithmetic palpable. It consists of a frame with a number of parallel wires, on which beads or counters are strung. In ancient times, it was used in practical reckoning, and is said to be so still in China and elsewhere.—*Abacus Pythagoricus* meant the multiplication-table.—**ABACUS**, in arch., is a square or oblong level tablet on the capital of a column, and supporting the entablature. In the Doric, old Ionic, and Tuscan orders, the abacus is



Chinese Abacus.

Doric Abacus.

a regular oblong; but in the new Ionic, Corinthian, and Roman orders, the abacus has concave sides, with truncated angles. Square marble tablets let

Corinthian Abacus.

into walls, and fields with figures in them inserted in mosaic floors, were also included under the term abacus in ancient architecture.

ABAD (allied both in etymology and meaning to the Eng. *abode*), an affix to names of Persian origin, as Hyder*abad*, the 'dwelling' or city of Hyder.

ABAISSÉ (lowered), a term used in Heraldry. When the fesse, or any other armorial figure is depressed, or situated below the centre of the shield, it is said to be *abaissé*. *Adossé* (back to back), *affronté* or *confronté* (facing or fronting one another), *aiguisé* (sharpened at the point), *ailé* (winged), are other heraldic terms borrowed, like *abaissé*, from the French, and used by English heralds in senses not differing essentially from their ordinary significations in that language.

ABANDON (Abandoning, Abandonment). This term, in its different grammatical and etymological forms, has various applications in legal phraseology, but all more or less corresponding to its popular meaning. The following are examples:

ABANDONING AN ACTION is a technical expression in Scotch legal procedure, signifying the act by which a plaintiff—or 'pursuer,' as he is called in Scotland—abandons or withdraws from his action on the payment of the costs incurred, and with the approval of the judge before whom the action had previously been conducted. The same purpose is effected in England by the plaintiff in a Court of Common

Law either entering a *Nolle Prosequi*, or at the trial *withdrawing the record*. In the Courts of Equity, the plaintiff may move the *dismissal* of his own bill, or the defendant may move to dismiss the suit for *want of prosecution by the plaintiff*. Suits may also *abate* by the death or supervening incapacity of the parties. See ACTION.

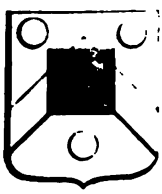
ABANDONMENT, in Marine Insurance, signifies the relinquishment to the insurer or underwriter of goods or property saved from a shipwreck, and of all interest in the same, previous to the owners' demanding payment in terms of the policy. See INSURANCE.

ABANDONMENT OF RAILWAYS. By the act of parliament 13 and 14 Vict. c. 83, facilities are afforded for the A. of railways, and the dissolution of railway companies by consent of the holders of three-fifths of the shares or stock, and by warrant of the 'Commissioners of Railways,' or, as it now is by the 14 and 15 Vict. c. 64, by warrant of the Board of Trade, who, in this respect, as well as in other matters regarding the regulation of railways, have superseded the former body. See RAILWAY.

ABANDONING or deserting seamen, by masters of merchant-vessels, is, by 9 Geo. IV. c. 31, s. 30, a misdemeanour, and punishable by imprisonment. See SEAMEN.

ABATEMENT. This is a term used in various senses in the law of England, as follows: 1. A. of *Freehold*, where a stranger without right enters and gets possession. See FREEHOLD. 2. A. of *Nuisances*, which is a remedy against injury by nuisance. See NUISANCE. 3. *Plea* in A. by means of which a defendant, on some formal and technical ground, seeks to abate or quash the action. See ACTION. 4. A. of *Legacies and Debts*, where the estate is insufficient for payment in full. See LEGACIES. 5. A. by the death of parties to actions at law and suits in equity, which are in consequence stopped till revived. The marriage of a plaintiff, the change or loss of interest and right, and other similar considerations, have also the effect of abating legal proceedings. See ACTION. 6. A. or discount, in Commercial Law. See COMMERCIAL LAW. 7. A. or deduction of duties levied by the Custom-house. See CUSTOM-HOUSE.

ABATEMENT, in Heraldry, is a mark placed over a portion of the paternal coat-of-arms of a family, significative of some base or ungentleman-like act on the part of the bearer. The coat is then said to be abated, or lowered in dignity. Guillim gives nine such marks, all of which are of either one or the other of the two disgraceful colours, tenné (tawney) and sanguine. Such are the delf tenné, assigned to him who revokes his challenge; the escutcheon reversed sanguine, proper to him who offends the chastity of virgin, wife, or widow, or flies from his sovereign's banner; the point-dexter tenné, due to him who overmuch boasteth himself of his martial acts; and the like. Marks of abatement are generally repudiated by the best heraldic authorities. Menestrier calls them *sottises Anglaises*, and Montagu is of opinion that we shall seek in vain for a more appropriate designation. Abatements are carefully to be distinguished from such subtractive alterations in coats-of-arms as signify juniority of birth, or removal from the principal house or senior branch of the family. These are commonly called marks of cadency, distinctions, differences, or brisures. The latter term is generally applied to m s of b rdy, which might with less impropriety be classed with abatements.



Abatement.

ABATTIS, a species of intrenchment, and one of the oldest. It consists of trees felled (*abattu*), and laid side by side, with the branches directed towards the enemy, the softer twigs being cut off. It thus forms a breastwork to fire over, and is very useful in field-works and in the out-works of regular fortifications, for retarding the enemy's advance.

ABATTOIR (Fr. *abattre*, to fell or destroy), a slaughter-house. The use of this term has passed into England from France, where the example was first given of public establishments for the slaughter of animals used as food, on such a scale and with such sanitary arrangements as to obviate the injurious effects that are found to result from the existence of private slaughter-houses in the midst of a crowded population. This great public improvement originated with Napoleon, who passed a decree in 1807 for the erection of public *abattoirs*. The extensive works connected with this design were nearly completed before the fall of the Empire; but it was not till the close of 1818, that the Parisian butchers ceased to slaughter in their private establishments. There are now five of these abattoirs in Paris—three on the right, and two on the left bank of the Seine, containing 240 slaughter-houses in all—which, both in architectural propriety and completeness of internal arrangement, may be regarded as models of their kind. The charge per head is, for an ox 6 francs, a cow 4 fr., a calf 2 fr., and a sheep 50 cents. Of the appearance and management of one of the great Parisian abattoirs, a good account is given by Sir Francis Head, in his amusing work, *A Faggot of French Sticks*. Other towns in France have similar abattoirs; and so have Mantua and Brussels.

The erection of similar establishments in Britain is of comparatively recent date. Public slaughter-houses formed part of the plan in the establishment of the new cattle-market in the Metropolis in Copenhagen Fields. Those built are well arranged; and such of the old slaughter-houses as remain are placed under sanitary inspection. The increased use of country-killed meat obviates the necessity for further abattoirs. In Edinburgh, an excellent A. was erected by the town-council in 1851.

A BATTUTA (Ital.), in Music, in strict or measured time.

ABAUZIT, FIRMIN, a French savant, was born at Uzès, in Languedoc, 1679, and died at Geneva 1767. His parents were Protestant, and at the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, being only six years of age, he escaped with difficulty, by his mother's contrivance, from the hands of the authorities who wished to educate him into Catholicism, and was sent to Geneva. Here he prosecuted his studies with such intense ardour and diligence, that he became versed in almost all the sciences. He travelled in England and Holland in 1698, where he made the acquaintance of Newton, Bayle, and other eminent writers. Newton, in sending him one of his controversial works, paid him the distinguished compliment of saying: 'You are worthy to decide between Leibnitz and me.' King William wished to retain him permanently in England, and to that end made him several advantageous offers; but his affection for his mother induced him to return to Geneva. He translated the New Testament into French in 1726; and for his lucid investigations into the ancient history of Geneva, he received from its authorities the rights of citizenship. He likewise wrote numerous theological and archæological treatises, besides leaving one or two scientific and artistic dissertations in manuscript, but the greater portion of these were burned by his heirs, who were Catholics.

His orthodoxy has been disputed. From some of his works we gain the impression that he was a Unitarian. His personal qualities secured him universal esteem. Rousseau, who could not bear to praise a contemporary, penned his solitary panegyric on A.

ABBADIE, Antoine and Arnould-Michel d', two brothers, French travellers, known for their researches in Abyssinia, from 1837 to 1845. According to their own account, their objects were purely ethnological and geographical; but they were regarded by certain English travellers and missionaries as agents employed by the French government for religious and political purposes; amongst the results of their travels are a catalogue of Ethiopian MSS., an Ethiopic version of the *Pastor* of Hermas, and the now completed *Géodesie de l'Ethiopie.* The English expedition to Abyssinia led Arnould d'A. to publish, in 1868, his *Douze Ans dans la Haute-Ethiopie.* Arnould has also distinguished himself by his study of the Basque language.

ABBANDONAMENTÉ (Ital.), in Music, with self-abandonment; despondingly.

ABBAS, the uncle of Mohammed, the Arabian prophet, and the chief promoter of his religion (d. 652), was the founder of the family of the Abbasides, who ruled as califs of Bagdad from 749 to 1258, and afterwards exercised the spiritual functions of the califate in Egypt, under the protection of the Mamelukes, till 1517, when that dignity passed to the Turkish sultan. Descendants of this family still live in Turkey and India.—The Abbasides in Persia were descended from the race of the Sofi, who ascribed their origin to the calif Ali. This race acquired dominion in 1500, and became extinct in 1736. Among them, Abbas I., surnamed the Great, was the most eminent ruler. He came to the throne 1586, and died 1628. His reign was marked by a series of victories over the Turks. In alliance with England, he destroyed, in 1621, the Portuguese colony at Ormuz.

ABBAS-MIRZA, a Persian prince, well known by his wars against Russia, was the son of the Shah Feth-Ali, and was born in 1783. Abbas possessed great talents and acquirements, and a love for the manners and culture of the West. When he was yet young, his father made him governor of the province Azerbijan, where, by the help of English officers, he applied himself to the reform of the army. When Persia, in 1811, influenced by France, declared war against Russia, Abbas was commander-in-chief of the main body of the Persian army, but was unsuccessful. Persia lost, at the peace of Gulistan, in 1813, its remaining possessions in the Caucasus, and was forced to acknowledge the flag of Russia on the Caspian Sea. At the instigation of Abbas, a new war broke out in 1826, between Feth-Ali and Russia. The prince fought a second time with extraordinary bravery at the head of the army, but was again obliged to yield to the superiority of the Russian arms, and to conclude a peace, on February 22, 1828, at Turkmantschai, by which Persia lost all share in Armenia. In this treaty, Russia had guaranteed to Abbas the succession to the Persian throne, the consequence of which was that he became dependent on Russia, and was obliged to give up his connection with England. When, in 1829, the Russian ambassador at Teheran was murdered in a popular tumult, which he had provoked by imprudence, Abbas went in person to St Petersburg, to prevent any ill consequences, and to maintain the peace. He was received by the emperor with kindness, and went back to Persia loaded with presents. He died in 1833. His death was a great loss to his country, although he could not have prevented the encroachments of Russia. His eldest son, Mohammed Mirza, mounted the throne in 1834, on the death of Feth-Ali, under the united protection of England and Russia.

ABBATE, Niccolo Dell, or Niccolo Abati, was born at Modena in 1509 or 1512, and died at Paris in 1571. He was an able and skilful artist in fresco-painting, and was a follower both of Raphael and Correggio; yet he rather blent the two styles in one than imitated either separately. His influence is traceable in the art which prevailed during the second half of the 16th century. His earlier works are to be seen at Modena; his later ones at Bologna, among which is his 'Adoration of the Shepherds,' considered his finest; but he is best known by the frescoes which he executed for the Castle of Fontainbleau, from the designs of Primaticcio. These, however, with the exception of the tableaux representing the history of Alexander the Great, were unfortunately destroyed in 1738, at the barbarous suggestion of an architect who wished to enlarge the building.

ABBE, the French name for an Abbot (q. v.), but often used in the general sense of a priest or clergyman. By a concordat between Pope Leo X. and Francis I. (1516), the French king had the right to nominate upwards of 200 *Abbés Commendataires,* who, without having any duty to perform, drew a considerable proportion of the revenues of the convents. The hope of obtaining one of those sinecures led multitudes of young men, many of them of noble birth, to enter the clerical career, who, however, seldom went further than taking the inferior orders (see Orders, Holy); and it became customary to call all such aspirants abbés—jocularly, Abbés of St Hope. They formed a considerable and influential class in society; and an abbé, distinguished by a short black or violet-coloured frock, and a peculiar style of wearing the hair, was found as friend or ghostly adviser in almost every family of consequence. When a candidate obtained an abbey, he was enjoined to take holy orders; but many procured dispensation, and continued to draw the revenues as secular or lay abbots.

ABBESS, the superior of a religious community of women, corresponding in rank and authority to an abbot (q. v.), except in not being allowed to exercise the spiritual functions of the priesthood—such as preaching, confession, &c.

ABBEVILLE (*Abbatis Villa*), in France, next to Amiens, the most considerable town in the department of Somme, is situated on the river Somme; pop. 16,753. The town is well built, and is the seat of considerable woollen manufactures. Here a factory, founded in 1669, under the patronage of the minister Colbert, still employs above 500 hands. See Suff.

ABBEY. See Monastery.

ABBEY is used in a legal sense in Scotland, and signifies the sanctuary or protection to a debtor against legal process afforded by the A. of Holyrood. See Sanctuary.

ABBOT ('father'). This name, originally given to any aged monk, was afterwards more strictly applied to the superior of a monastery or abbey. Since the 6th c., abbots have belonged to the clerical orders, but at first they were not necessarily priests. After the second Nicene Council (787), abbots were empowered to consecrate monks for the lower sacred orders; but they remained in subordination under their diocesan bishops until the 11th c. As abbeys became wealthy, abbots increased in power and influence; many received episcopal titles; and all were ranked as prelates of the church next to the bishops, and had the right of voting in church-councils. Even

abbesses contended for the same honours and privileges, but without success. In the 8th and 9th c., abbeys began to come into the hands of laymen, as rewards for military service. In the 10th c., many of the chief abbeys in Christendom were under lay-abbots (*Abbates Milites*, or *Abba-comites*), while subordinate deans or priors had the spiritual oversight. The members of the royal household received grants of abbeys as their maintenance, and the king kept the richest for himself. Thus, Hugo Capet of France was lay-abbot of St Denis, near Paris. Sometimes convents of nuns were granted to men, and monasteries to women of rank. These abuses were, in a great measure, reformed during the 10th c. After the reformation of the order of Benedictines, monasteries arose that were dependent upon the mother-monastery of Cluny and without abbots, being presided over by *priors* or *pro-abbates*. Of the orders founded after the 11th c., only some named the superiors of their convents abbots; most, from humility or other cause, used the titles of prior, major, guardian, rector. Abbesses have almost always remained under the jurisdiction of their diocesan bishop; but the abbots of independent or liberated abbeys acknowledged no lord but the pope. In the middle ages, the so-called *Insulated Abbots* frequently enjoyed episcopal titles, but only a few had dioceses. Before the period of secularisation in Germany, several of the abbots in that country had princely titles and powers. In England there were a considerable number of *Mitred Abbots* who sat and voted in the House of Lords. The election of an abbot belongs, as a rule, to the chapter or assembly of the monks, and is afterwards confirmed by the pope or by the bishop, according as the monastery is independent or under episcopal jurisdiction. But from early times, the pope in Italy has claimed the right of conferring many abbacies, and the concordat of 1516 gave a similar right to the king of France. Laymen who possessed monasteries were styled *Secular Abbots;* while their vicars, who discharged the duties, as well as all abbots who belonged to the monastic order, were styled *Regular Abbots*. In France, the abuse of appointing secular abbots was carried to a great extent previous to the time of the Revolution. (See Anné.) Often monasteries themselves chose some powerful person as their secular abbot, with a view of 'commending' or committing their abbey to his protection (*Abbés Commendataires*). In countries which joined in the Reformation, the possessions of abbeys were mostly confiscated by the crown; but in Hanover, Brunswick, and Würtemberg, several monasteries and convents were retained as educational establishments. In the Greek Church, the superiors of convents are called *Hegumeni* or *Mandrites*, and general abbots, *Archimandrites*.

ABBOT, George, an English prelate under the Stuarts—chiefly remarkable for the position he held, and the part he acted, as the opponent of the policy of Laud and a despotic court—was the son of a cloth-manufacturer in Guilford, and was born 1562. After studying at Oxford, he was appointed chaplain to the Earl of Dunbar (1608), with whom he went to Scotland. This appointment was the basis of A.'s subsequent promotion. For a short time he held the see of Lichfield and Coventry, and in 1610 was made Archbishop of Canterbury. As a learned and able man, but more especially as a friend of toleration, he gained the esteem of all parties in an age of religious animosities. James I. employed the advice of A. in the most important affairs of state, and the prelate often opposed the arbitrary principles of the king. A.'s intolerance of Arminian doctrines was an exception to his general rule of conduct. His independent and liberal spirit incurred the displeasure of Charles I. A. was employed on the authorised translation of the Bible under James I. His other literary productions are not important. He died at Croydon, 1633, and a monument was erected to his memory in his native town, Guilford.—His brother, Robert A., bishop of Salisbury (b. 1560—d. 1617), was a learned theologian, and the author of a treatise *De Suprema Potestate Regia* (1616), written to controvert the doctrines of Bellarmine and Suarez.

ABBOTSFORD, the seat of Sir Walter Scott, is situated on the south bank of the Tweed, a little above its confluence with the Gala, and about three miles from the town of Melrose. Before it became, in 1811, the property of Sir Walter, the site of the house and grounds of A. formed a small farm known by the name of *Cartley Hole*. The new name was the invention of the poet, who loved thus to connect himself with the days when Melrose abbots passed over the fords of the Tweed. On this spot, a sloping bank overhanging the river, with the Selkirk Hills behind, he built at first a small villa, now the western wing of the castle. Afterwards, as his fortune increased, he added the remaining portions of the building, on no uniform plan, but with the desire of combining in it some of the features (and even actual remains) of those ancient works of Scottish architecture which he most venerated. The result was that singularly picturesque and irregular pile, which has been aptly characterised as 'a romance in stone and lime.' The present proprietor of A. is the daughter of the late Mr Hope Scott, by his first wife, the granddaughter of Sir W. Scott. A considerable addition has recently been made to the building.

ABBOTT, Charles. See Tenterden, Lord.

ABBOTT, Rev. Jacob, a native of Maine, U.S., was born in 1803, and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1820. He is a remarkably voluminous writer, and has acquired a large measure of popularity from the simplicity and earnestness of his thought. He has addressed himself principally to the young, and it is perhaps not too much to say, that of all works intended for the juvenile mind, his are the best in the English language. So thoughtful an instructor of youth even as Dr Arnold, speaks in high terms of *The Way to do Good*. Nearly all his books have been repeatedly republished in England, and some have been translated into various European and Asiatic languages. His most popular work is *The Young Christian*. Besides this, he has written *The Franconia Stories*, 10 vols.; *Histories for the Young*, 19 vols.; *Histories of Celebrated Persons*, 30 vols.; *Harper's Story-books*, 36 vols.; &c.

ABBREVIATIONS are contrivances in writing for saving time and space. They are of two kinds, consisting either in the omission of some letters, or words, or in the substitution of some arbitrary sign. In the earliest times, when uncial or lapidary characters were used, abbreviations by omission prevailed, such as we find on the inscriptions on monuments, coins, &c. In these, the initial letter is often put instead of the whole word, as M. for Marcus, F. for Filius. It was after the small Greek and Roman letters had been invented by transcribers for facilitating their work, that signs of abbreviation, or characters representing double consonants, syllables, and whole words, came into use. Greek manuscripts abound with such signs, and often only one that has expressly studied Greek palæography can make them out. From the manuscripts, they passed into the early printed editions of Greek books, and it is only recently that they have quite disappeared. Among

the Romans, signs of abbreviation were called *notæ*, and professed scribes who employed them were *notarii*. To such an extent was the system carried, that L. Annæus Seneca collected and classified 5000 abbreviations. The same practice has prevailed in all languages, but nowhere more than in the Rabbinical writings.—The abbreviations used by the ancient Romans were continued and increased in the middle ages. They occur in inscriptions, manuscripts, and legal documents; and the practice continued in these last long after the invention of printing had made it unnecessary in books. An act of parliament was passed in the reign of George II., forbidding the use of abbreviations in legal documents. Owing to these abbreviations, the deciphering of old writings requires special study and training, and forms a separate science called Diplomatic (q.v.), on which numerous treatises have been written. Tassin's *Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique* (6 vols., Par. 1750–65) contains, in the third volume, an exposition of Roman abbreviations. Other works on the subject are—Gatterer's *Abriss der Diplomatik* (2 vols., Gott. 1798); Pertz's *Schriftaflen* (4 Nos., Hannov. 1846); and Kopp's *Palæographica Critica* (4 vols., Manh. 1817–29).—In ordinary writing and printing, few abbreviations are now employed. The sign *&*, originally an abbreviation for the Lat. *et*, 'and,' is perhaps the only one of the arbitrary kind still to be met with. It does not stand properly for a *word*, for it is used in different languages, but for an idea, and is as much a symbol as +. The abbreviations by using the initials of Latin words that are still in use, are chiefly confined to titles, dates, and a few phrases; as, M.A. (*magister artium*), Master of Arts; A.D. (*anno domini*), in the year of our Lord; *e.g.* (*exempli gratiâ*), for example. Many are now formed from English words in the same way; as, F.G.S., Fellow of the Geological Society; B.C., before Christ.—Most of the sciences and arts have sets of signs of abbreviation, or symbols, peculiar to themselves. These are of great use both for brevity and clearness. See CHEMICAL SYMBOLS, &c.

The following is a list of the more important Abbreviations in general use:

Abp., Archbishop.
A.C. (*Ante Christum*), Before Christ.
A.D. (*Anno Domini*), In the year of our Lord.
A.H. (*Anno Hegiræ*), In the year of the Hegira.
A.M. (*Ante Meridiem*), Before noon; (*Anno Mundi*), In the year of the world.
A.R.A., Associate of the Royal Academy (London).
A.R.S.A., Associate of the Royal Scottish Academy.
A.U.C. (*Ab Urbe Condita*), From the building of the city—that is, Rome.
B.A. or A.B. (*Artium Baccalaureus*), Bachelor of Arts.
Bart. or Bt., Baronet.
B.C., Before Christ.
B.C.L., Bachelor of Civil Law.
B.D., Bachelor of Divinity.
B.M., Bachelor of Medicine.
Bp., Bishop.
C. (*Centum*), A hundred; chapter.
C.A., Chartered Accountant.
C.B., Companion of the Bath.
C.C., Cains College.
C.E., Civil Engineer.
Clk., Clerk.
C.M.G., Companion of the Order of St Michael and St George.
Crim. Con., Criminal conversation.
Ct., Count.
cwt., Hundredweight.
D.C.L., Doctor of Civil Law.
D.D., Doctor of Divinity; *Dono dedit*.
D.G. (*Dei Gratiâ*), By the grace of God.
Do. (Ital. *ditto*, 'said'), The said; the same.
Dr, Doctor, or Debtor.
D.V. (*Deo Volente*), God willing.
dwt., penny-weight.
e.g., or ex. gr. (*Exempli Gratiâ*), For example.
Etc. (*Et cætera*), And the rest; and so on.
F.A.S., Fellow of the Antiquarian Society.
F.B.S., Fellow of the Botanical Society.
F.D. (*Fidei Defensor*), Defender of the Faith.
F.G.S., Fellow of the Geological Society.
F.L.S., Fellow of the Linnæan Society.
F.M., Field-marshal.
F.R.A.S., Fellow of the Royal Astronomical, or of the Royal Asiatic Society.
F.R.C.P., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians.
F.R.C.S., Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons. E., of England.
F.R.G.S., Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society.
F.R.S., Fellow of the Royal Society. L., London; E., Edinburgh.
F.R.S.S.A., Fellow of the Royal Scottish Society of Arts.
F.S.A., Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries. F.S.A.Scot., Do. of Scotland.
F.S.S., Fellow of the Statistical Society.
F.Z.S., Fellow of the Zoological Society.
G.C.B., (Knight) Grand Cross of the Bath.
G.C.H., (Knight) Grand Cross of Hanover.
G.C.M.G., (Knight) Grand Cross of St Michael and St George.
Gr., Greek; Lat., Latin; Ital., Italian; &c.
H.E.I.C.S., Hon. East India Company's Service.
H.M.S., His or Her Majesty's Service, or Ship.
H.R.H., His or Her Royal Highness.
Ib. or Ibid. (*Ibidem*), In the same place.
I.C.TH.U.S. (*ιχθυς*), *Iesous Christos, Theou Huios, Soter*—Jesus Christ, the Son of God, the Saviour.
Id. (*Idem*), The same; (*Idus*), The Ides.
i.e. (*Id est*), That is.
I.H.S.* *Iesus Hominum Salvator*, Jesus the Saviour of men; *In hâc* (*Cruce*) *Salus*, In this (cross) salvation.
Incog. (*Incognito*, Ital.), Unknown.
I.N.R.I. (*Iesus Nazarenus Rex Iudæorum*), Jesus of Nazareth, king of the Jews.
Inst. (*Instante—mense* understood), Instant, of the present (month); Institute.
I.P.D. (*In Præsentiâ Dominorum*), In presence of the Lords (of Session).
J.C. (*Juris Consultus*), Juris-consult.
J.P., Justice of the Peace.
J.V. (or U.) D. (*Juris Utriusque Doctor*), Doctor both of Civil and of Canon Law.
Kal. (*Kalendæ* or *Kalendis*), The Kalends.
K.B., Knight of the Bath.
K.C.B., Knight Commander of the Bath.
K.C.H., Knight Commander of the Order of Hanover.
K.C.M.G., Knight Commander of St Michael and St George.
K.G., Knight of the Garter.
K.H., Knight of Hanover.
K.M., Knight of Malta.
K.P., Knight of St Patrick.
K.T., Knight of the Thistle.
K. τ. λ., Και τα λειπομενα (*Kai ta leipomena*), same as 'Et cætera.'

* This was originally IHΣ, the first three Greek letters of the name Jesus; but its origin having been lost sight of, by substituting S for Σ, and then mistaking the Gr. H (*Eta*) for Lat. H, a signification was subsequently found out for each letter. The symbol was still further altered by converting the horizontal stroke, which was the usual sign of abbreviation, into a cross, as it now generally appears, I H S.

Lb. (*libra*), Pound.
L.D., Lady Day.
LL.B. (*Legum Baccalaureus*), Bachelor of Laws (the plural being denoted by the double L).
LL.D. (*Legum Doctor*), Doctor of Laws.
L.R.C.S., Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons.
L.S.A., Licentiate of the Society of Apothecaries.
L.S.D. (*Libræ, Solidi, Denarii*), Pounds, shillings, pence.
M. (*Mille*), A thousand.
M.A. or A.M. (*Artium Magister*), Master of Arts.
Mass., Massachusetts; Vt., Vermont; Pa., Pennsylvania; &c. See UNITED STATES.
M.D. (*Medicinæ Doctor*), Doctor of Medicine.
M.P., Member of Parliament.
M.R.C.S., Member of the Royal College of Surgeons.
M.R.I.A., Member of the Royal Irish Academy.
MS., Manuscript; MSS., Manuscripts.
Mus. D. (*Musicæ Doctor*), Doctor of Music.
M.W.S., Member of the Wernerian Society.
N.B. (*Nota bene*), Mark well; observe.
Nem. con. (*Nemine contradicente*), or Nem. diss. (*Nemine dissidente*), No one contradicting or dissenting; unanimously.
N.P., Notary Public.
N.S., New Style.
O.S., Old Style.
Oxon. (*Oxoniensis*), Of Oxford.
oz., Ounce.
P., President; professor; &c.
P.C., Privy Councillor.
P.C.S., Principal Clerk of Session.
Per ann. (*Per annum*), By the year.
Per cent. (*Per centum*), By the hundred.
Ph.D. (*Philosophiæ Doctor*), Doctor of Philosophy.
P.M. (*Post Meridiem*), After noon.
P.P., Parish priest.
pp., Pages.
Pro tem. (*Pro tempore*), For the time.
Prox. (*Proximo*), in the next (month).
P.S. (*Post scriptum*), Postscript.
Q., Query or Question.
Q.C., Queen's Counsel.
Q.E.D. (*Quod erat demonstrandum*), Which was to be demonstrated.
Q.E.F. (*Quod erat faciendum*), Which was to be done.
Q.S. (*Quantum sufficit*), Enough.
q. v. (*Quod vide*), Which see.
R. (*Rex* or *Regina*), King or Queen.
R.A., Royal Academician; Royal Artillery.
R.E., Royal Engineers.
R.M., Royal Marines.
R.N., Royal Navy.
R.S.A., Royal Scottish Academician.
S., South; saint; seconds.
Sc., *Scilicet*, same as viz.
S.L., Solicitor at Law.
S.M. (*Sa Majesté*), His or Her Majesty.
S.P.Q.R. (*Senatus Populusque Romanus*), the Roman senate and people.
Sq. (*Sequens*), the following; Sqq., do. in the plural.
S.S.C., Solicitor before the Supreme Courts.
S.T.P. (*Sanctæ Theologiæ Professor*), Professor of Theology.
T.C.D., Trinity College, Dublin.
Ult. (*Ultimo*—*mense* understood), In the last (month).
U.P., United Presbyterian.
U.S., United States; United Service.
V.D.M. (*Verbi Dei Minister*), Preacher of the Word.
Viz. (*Videlicet*), To wit; namely.
W.S., Writer to the Signet.
Xmas., Christmas. Xtian., Christian, &c.
Y., Y^{t}; The, That. (This use of Y originated in the Anglo-Saxon character þ, which was equivalent to the modern *th*. In manuscripts, this character degenerates into a form like a black letter *y*, which was retained in these contractions after its origin and real sound had been lost sight of.)

Besides the generally current abbreviations given above, other short methods of statement are frequently employed in particular circumstances. In the present work, for instance, in which the saving of space is of great moment, when the title or heading of a subject recurs in the body of the article, it is generally—especially if a proper name—represented by its initial letter: e.g., A. for Abd-el-Kader. Two dates thus (1215—1250), following the name of a king, a pope, &c., indicate briefly the beginning and end of his reign or term of office; or thus (b. 1215—d. 1250), the dates of his birth and death. The meaning of these and similar contractions is in general sufficiently obvious from the connection in which they stand. See CONTRACTIONS.

ABD signifies in Arabic 'slave' or 'servant,' and enters, along with the name of God, into the composition of many proper names; as, Abd-Allah, 'servant of God;' Abd-el-Kader, 'servant of the mighty God;' Abd-ul-Latif, 'servant of the gracious God,' &c.

ABD-EL-KADER, properly El-Hadji-Abd-el-Kader-Ulid-Mahiddin, is the descendant of a Marabout family of the race of Haschem, who trace their pedigree to the califs of the lineage of Fatima. He was born at Ghetna, an educational institution of the Marabouts, near Mascara, which belonged to his family. His father, who died in 1834, being esteemed a very holy man, had exercised great influence over his countrymen, which influence he bequeathed to his son. In his eighth year, A. made a pilgrimage to Mecca with his father; and in 1827, he visited Egypt, where, in Cairo and Alexandria, he first came in contact with western civilisation. Religious enthusiasm and melancholy were the most prominent features of his character. He early shewed an uncommonly gifted mind, and at the chief school of Fez he acquired such knowledge as composes Arabian science. A. was free from the savage cruelty, as well as from the sensuality, of the Arabs; he maintained purity of manners, and did not suffer himself to be misled by anger or passion. Although he firmly adhered to the faith of his nation, and used their fanaticism as one of his most important sources of influence, yet he had no sympathy with the fanatical intolerance of the majority among them. His public career began at the time of the conquest of Algiers by the French. No sooner was the power of the Turks broken, than the Arabian tribes of the province of Oran seized the opportunity to make themselves independent. Having got possession of Mascara, they elected A. as their emir, who soon succeeded in establishing his authority over a number of the neighbouring tribes. He now attacked the French; and some bloody battles, fought on December 3, 1833, and January 6, 1834, against General Desmichels, then commanding in Oran, obliged the latter to enter into a treaty with him. In the interior of the country, the power of A. now spread in an alarming way. In consequence of victories over neighbouring chiefs, he became master of Miliana and Medeah. All the cities and tribes of the provinces of Oran and Titĕri acknowledged A. as their sultan; the more distant tribes sent him ambassadors with presents. It was not long before hostilities broke out between him and the French. The commencement was favourable to him, for the first operations of General Trezel led to that fatal retreat, during

which the French army was attacked at Makta, on June 28, 1835, by the whole assembled forces of A., amounting to nearly 20,000 cavalry, and suffered a disgraceful defeat.

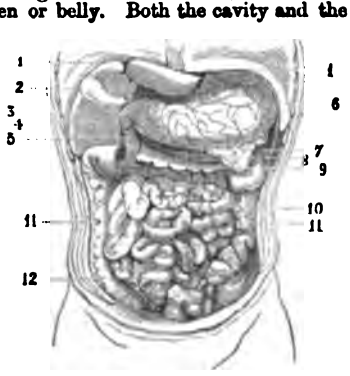
After a protracted struggle of six years, A. found himself obliged (1841) to take refuge in Marocco. Here he succeeded in getting up a sort of crusade against the enemies of Islam; and the arms of France were now turned against Marocco for the countenance given to A. After the decisive battle of Isly (1844) the sultan was obliged to give up A.'s cause, but soon found that the latter was at least his equal in power, and that he could not even prevent him from marching out of Nedem to attack the French again, both in October 1845, and in March 1847. But the star of A. was now about to set. In the night of the 11th December, he made a bold attack on the Moorish camp, in which he was defeated, and had to resolve on flight. He might easily have secured his own safety, but he would not abandon his attached followers, men, women, and children, to the plunder and massacre of the Maroccans. After a heroic combat on the 21st December, he effected their retreat across the Muluia into the territory of Algerie, where they mostly surrendered to the French. He himself, with a few horsemen, resolved to fight his way through to the south; but coming to the Pass of Kerbous, he found the way closed, and was received with musketry. Dispirited at length, A. surrendered, on December 22, 1847, to General Lamoricière and the Duc d'Aumale, upon condition that he should be permitted to withdraw either to Egypt or to St Jean d'Acre. The French government refused to ratify this agreement. A. was sent with his family to Toulon, whence he was removed in 1848 to Pau, and finally to the Chateau d'Amboise. Liberated in 1852 by Louis Napoleon, he lived at Brussa, in Asia Minor, till its destruction by an earthquake in 1855. He then, for a time, lived in Constantinople, but finally made his home in Damascus. He was of great service to humanity during the Syrian massacres of 1860. In 1865, he visited Paris and England, and was present at the Paris Exhibition in 1867. In his retirement he wrote a religious work, a translation of which was published at Paris, 1858, under the title, *Rappel à l'Intelligent: avis à l'Indifferent.*

ABDICATION is the act of giving up an office, generally the office of ruler or sovereign. It is rarely done out of pure preference of a private station, but is generally the result of vexation and disappointment. It was perhaps voluntarily, and from being wearied with dominion, that Diocletian, and along with him Maximian, abdicated (305). Christina of Sweden retired from the throne (1654) out of preference for the freedom of private life, but wished still to exercise the rights of a sovereign. Charles V. laid down the crown (1556) because his great schemes had failed. Philip V. of Spain did so (1724) in a fit of melancholy, but resumed it on the death of his son. Amadeus of Savoy abdicated (1494) to become a priest. Victor Amadeus of Sardinia, who abdicated in 1730, wished to recall the step, but was not allowed. Louis Bonaparte resigned the crown of Holland, because he would not consent to treat that country as a province of France. Charles Emanuel of Sardinia retired from the throne in 1802, not finding himself equal to the crisis; and the same was the case with Victor Emanuel in 1819. William I. of [illegible]herlands resigned (1840), as his policy had [illegible] impossible from the turn of affairs in Be[illegible]. Foreign force compelled the abdication [illegible]s of Poland (1707), and later, that of Leszczynski (1735) and of Poniatowski [illegible], as well as that of Charles IV. of Spain (1808), and of Napoleon (1814 and 1815). Insurrections have been the most frequent cause of forced abdications. The early history of the Scandinavian kingdoms abounds in instances. In England, the compulsory abdication of Richard II. (1399) is an early example. In the case of James II., it was disputed whether the king had 'abdicated' or 'deserted.' More recent times saw Charles X. (1830) and Louis-Philippe (1848) retire before the storm of revolution, without the conditions they made being regarded. The abdication of Ferdinand of Austria (1848) was an indirect consequence of the events of the year of revolutions; that of Charles Albert of Sardinia (1849), of the battle of Novara. Of several cases among German princes, the chief is that of Ludwig of Bavaria (1848). A late instance is that of Amadeus, king of Spain, who felt himself obliged to give up his crown, on the 11th of February 1873.

In some countries, the king can abdicate whenever he pleases; but in England, the constitutional relation between the crown and the nation being of the nature of a contract, the king or queen, it is considered, cannot abdicate without the consent of parliament. It is, however, said that the king does abdicate, or, to speak perhaps more correctly, an A. may be presumed, and acted on by the people, if his conduct politically and overtly is inconsistent with, and subversive of, the system of constitutional government, of which the qualified monarchy of his office forms part.

At the conference between the two Houses of Parliament previous to the passing of the statute which settled the crown on William III., it would appear that the word 'abdicated' with reference to King James II. was advisedly used instead of 'deserted'—the meaning, it is presumed, being that King James had not only deserted his office, but that by his acts and deeds, of which the said desertion formed part, he had, in view of the constitution, ceased to have right to the throne. From this it may be inferred that A. was considered to have a twofold political signification, involving maladministration as well as desertion. The Scotch Convention, however, more vigorously and distinctly resolved that King James 'had forefaulted [forfeited] the crown, and the throne was become vacant.'

ABDO'MEN. The trunk of the human body is divided by the diaphragm into two cavities—the upper being the thorax or chest, and the under, the abdomen or belly. Both the cavity and the viscera



Organs of the Abdomen.

1. Diaphragm. 2. Gall-bladder. 3. Pyloric end of Stomach. 4. Right Lobe of Liver. 5. Duodenum. 6. Great end of Stomach. 7. Spleen. 8. Piece of Caul, or Omentum. 9. Pancreas (Sweetbread). 10. Small Intestine (Jejunum). 11. Great Intestine (Colon). 12. Small Intestine (Ilium).

it contains are included in the term A. It contains the liver, pancreas, spleen, and kidneys, as well as the stomach, small intestine, and the colon. The lower bowel, the bladder, and internal organs of generation lie in the lowest part of the cavity, which is called the pelvis. The A. is lined by a serous membrane, the peritoneum, which is folded over the viscera, allowing them a certain freedom of motion, but keeping them in their proper relations to each other. The A. is divided externally by two horizontal lines into three principal *regions*—the upper or epigastric, the middle or umbilical, and the lower or hypogastric. These are again subdivided by two vertical lines—the side-divisions being called the hypochondriac, lumbar, and iliac regions respectively; the names epigastric and umbilical are then applied in a restricted sense to the middle divisions of the two upper principal regions; while the middle division of the lower is called the region of the pubis. Diseases of the abdominal viscera are frequent, and chiefly consist either of chronic disorders of the digestive organs, or of derangements of the nerve-plexuses and ganglia there situated. These disorders announce themselves partly in bodily pain, and partly in mental affections, such as hypochondria and hysterics.

ABDOMEN, in Entomology, the last of the three parts into which the body of an insect is divided. It is composed of a number of rings or segments, frequently nine, more or less distinct from each other. It contains a portion of the intestines and the sexual organs. In the perfect insect, its segments bear no legs nor wings; but the hind-legs of larvæ or caterpillars, which afterwards disappear, are attached to them. In many insects, its last segments bear appendages of various uses and forms, as pincers, stings, borers or ovipositors, &c.

ABDOMINALES, or Abdominal Fishes, in the Linnæan arrangement, an order of Fishes including all the Osseous Fishes of which the ventral fins are placed upon and beneath the abdomen, and so behind the pectoral fins. Subsequent naturalists have thought it right in classifying Fishes to give a higher place to other characters; and in the system of Cuvier, the name A. is given to an order of much more limited extent, a subdivision of the *Malacopterygii* or Soft-rayed Osseous Fishes, distinguished by having the ventral fins placed beneath the abdomen and not attached to the bones of the shoulder. It includes the *Cyprinidæ* (Carp, Minnow, &c.), *Esocidæ* (Pike, &c.), *Siluridæ*, *Salmonidæ* (Trout, Salmon, &c.), and *Clupeidæ* (Herring, &c.).

ABDUCTION, in the criminal law of England, signifies the unlawful taking away of the person of a female. Such is the usual limitation of the word; although, under the Jewish law, and subsequently according to the principles of the Civil law, the A. or 'stealing' of the person was applied to the male sex, as well as to women, coming more nearly to what we now understand by *Kidnapping* (q. v.). In the Civil law, the offence was called *plagium*, or *crimen plagii*, under which name it still has a place in the Scotch criminal law, and, in practice, is applied to the A. of children of either sex, or of women generally. The A. may be accomplished either by force or by any fraudulent or sinister means; and this latter quality seems more appropriate to the strict meaning of the term, as derived from the Latin verb *abducere*, to lead off, or induce, or persuade away.

This subject will be best explained under the heads to which we have already referred.

1. ABDUCTION OF CHILD.—It is provided by the 24 and 25 Vict. c. 100, s. 56, that if any person shall unlawfully, either by force or fraud, lead or take away, or decoy or entice away, or detain any child under the age of fourteen, with intent to deprive the parent, guardian, or other person having the lawful charge of such child, of the possession of such child, or with intent to steal any article on its person; or shall with any such intent as aforesaid receive or harbour such child, knowing the same to have been so stolen or enticed, every such offender shall be guilty of felony, and shall be liable to penal servitude for seven years, or imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not more than two years, and also, if a male, to be whipped, such male being under sixteen. It is also a misdemeanour subject to two years' imprisonment to take or decoy unlawfully out of the parent or guardian's possession any unmarried girl under the age of sixteen. To steal or unlawfully take or decoy a child under fourteen is felony.

Sir Archibald Alison, in his work on the *Principles of the Criminal Law of Scotland* (p. 280), says: 'This [stealing a child] is obviously a crime of the very greatest atrocity, from the unequalled agony and distress which it necessarily inflicts on the unfortunate parents who are in this cruel manner bereaved of their offspring. . . . . From the earliest times, accordingly, this atrocious offence has been punished with death by the Scotch law. Nor is it any defence that the child is taken away for affection to itself, or from any other motive, and not for the sake of lucre, taken in its ordinary sense, for the detainer has at least that advantage and benefit which he coveted in taking away the child; and this is sufficient to constitute theft in the estimation of the law.' The same principle is recognised by the law of England, which holds that as the offence of A. is positively prohibited, the absence of a corrupt motive will not be a defence to the charge. Further on, in the same work (p. 630), Sir Archibald lays it down that 'The wickedly and feloniously enticing or inducing an infant child to leave its parents or guardians without their knowledge or consent is a crime at common law;' and in support of this he refers to a case where the prisoner, who was a teacher of elocution, and was desirous to get a little child to recite poetry to his audience, applied to a girl, an infant of nine years of age, in the Orphan Hospital, and prevailed on her, by promises of fine clothes, and making a lady of her, to leave the hospital, and come to him, where she was soon found after in his custody. This was done at clandestine interviews with the child, and without the knowledge or concurrence of her relations who had placed her in the hospital. The flight of the accused, who was out on bail, prevented any further procedure in the case, beyond his outlawry.

2. ABDUCTION OF WIFE.—Blackstone and Stephen both lay down that this species of A. might be either by fraud and persuasion or open violence; though the law supposed force and constraint in the former case as well as in the latter, the wife having no legal power to consent. The remedy to the husband was an action by which he sought not the possession of his wife, but damages for the A. of her; and by statute 3 Edw. I. c. 13, the offender could be imprisoned two years, and be fined at the pleasure of the crown. Both the crown and the husband might therefore have this action. The husband is also entitled to recover damages against such as persuade and entice the wife to live separate from him without a sufficient cause. But, although such was once the existing law of England, it is now antiquated, and is quite unsuited to the present state of society. The remedy for the offence, or rather injury, in question, will be more appropriately found under the statutes passed to amend the

law relating to divorce and matrimonial causes, and under which the marriage may be either annulled, with, in the case of the adultery of the wife, damages from the adulterers; or the parties may be 'judicially separated.'

3. ABDUCTION OF WARD, OR PUPIL.—By the law of England, a guardian was always, and is still, entitled to an action, if his ward or pupil be taken from him; but the proper remedy now is by an application to the Court of Chancery, which is the supreme guardian of, and has independent jurisdiction over, all the infants in the kingdom. In Scotland, a similar jurisdiction as to the charge and custody of all Scotch pupils is exercised by the Court of Session.

4. ABDUCTION OF HEIRESS.—The law on this subject is very distinct. The 24 and 25 Vict. c. 100, s. 53, enacts that where any woman shall have interest, present or future, in any real or personal estate, or shall be heiress presumptive, or next of kin, to any one having such interest, if any person shall, from motives of lucre, take away or detain such woman against her will, with intent to marry or defile her, or to cause her to be married or defiled by any other person; every such offender, and every person counselling, aiding, or abetting him, shall be guilty of felony, and subject to penal servitude for fourteen years and not less than three years, or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years.

Moreover, by the same statute, it is enacted that if any person shall fraudulently allure or take away such woman, being under the age of twenty-one, out of the possession, and against the will of her parent or guardian, with intent to marry or defile her, shall be guilty, though without any motives of lucre. And in this, as the preceding case, the offender forfeits all interest in property which would otherwise come to him by the marriage.

It is an offence within the statute to take away from the custody of her putative father a natural child under twenty-one.

By the above statutes the same law is extended to Ireland, without difference in the case of heiresses; and in both the above cases the Court of Chancery has power to settle the woman's property in a proper manner.

ABDUCTION OF WOMEN GENERALLY.—Not only are heiresses or females having property protected against forcible marriages or against violation; but the same law has been extended also to all women with or without expectations. By the 24 and 25 Vict. c. 96, s. 54, whosoever shall, by force, take away, or detain against her will, any woman of any age, with intent to marry or carnally know her, or to cause her to be married or carnally known by any other person, shall be guilty of felony, and subject to a punishment similar in all respects to the case of heiresses. This enactment, which had existed in Ireland since 1830, was extended to England in 1861.

ABDUCTION OF VOTERS. See VOTERS, ABDUCTION OF, ELECTION, PARLIAMENTARY.

ABD-UL-LATIF, a celebrated Arabian writer of multifarious acquirements, was born at Bagdad in 1161. During his youth, he underwent an amazing amount of mental drudgery, in accordance with the eastern fashion of his time, in order to fit himself for becoming a scholar. The ordeal consisted in his committing to memory a large number of standard works, such as the Koran, the novels of Hariri, and not a few grammatical treatises. To complete his culture in the various branches of Mohammedan lore, he betook himself to Damascus, where the famous Saladin had gathered round him the most learned men of the time. Through the liberality of the sultan, and the kindness of the Vizir Fadhel, he was enabled to proceed to Egypt, where he delivered lectures while Saladin was fighting the Lion-heart at St Jean d'Acre. Here he became intimate with Moses Maimonides, the great Jewish writer. He now devoted himself chiefly to the study of medicine, although while at Cairo, he also wrote his excellent and accurate work on Egypt, which was translated into Latin by Professor White of Oxford in 1800, and into French by Baron de Sacy in 1810. He died at Bagdad in 1231, on his way to Mecca, in the 70th year of his age.

ABD-UL-MEDJID-KHAN, the Grand Sultan, was born on the 6th of May 1822, and succeeded his father, Mahmud II., July 1, 1839. The Turkish Empire was then in a very dangerous position. The army had been defeated and dispersed by the Egyptians in the battle of Nisib (June 29, 1839), and there was nothing to hinder the victorious Ibrahim Pacha from advancing on Constantinople, where a large party were favourable to the Egyptian power. This party wished to make the viceroy of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, Chakan (the ancient title of the Grand Sultan) of both seas. He was the only man, they maintained, capable of upholding the banner of Islam against the unbelievers both within and without. Had it not been for the intervention of the Christian powers, the House of Osman was lost. The treaty of July 1840, from which France kept aloof, rescued the young Padishah from sure destruction. Mehemet Ali had to submit (November 27, 1840); and the treaty of July 1841, to which France subsequently adhered, settled the future dependent relation of Egypt to Turkey. The sultan, though not very energetic in body or mind, proceeded in the path of reform begun by Selim III. and Mahmud II. In this he had for his chief adviser Reshid Pacha, an intelligent and humane Mussulman, educated in France. The aim of all his measures was to place the Osman population on a footing with the civilised inhabitants of the west. A. wished the happiness of all his subjects, without respect of creed. A sort of proclamation of their rights was issued in the hatti-sherif of November 1839. This was followed by numerous reforms in all departments; and in 1850, the professors of all religions were decreed equal in the eye of the law. That these decrees remained, in a great measure, a dead letter, is not attributable to the will of the sultan. The chivalrous part acted by A. (1850) in refusing, at the risk of losing his throne, to give up Kossuth and the other political refugees to the menaces of Russia and Austria, will make his name remembered in the annals of humanity.

The sovereigns of Turkey have long been in an anomalous position. The ambassadors of the great powers have ruled the divan; and the sultan had a specially difficult part to play during the war with Russia (1854–56), and the diplomatic negotiations consequent to it. A. was the thirty-first sovereign of the race of Osman, and the twenty-eighth since the taking of Constantinople. His eldest son, Mohammed Murad, was born September 22, 1840; but according to the law of the empire, his brother, Abdul-Aziz (b. 1830), succeeded to the throne on his death in 1861.

ABD-UR-RAHMAN, the sultan of Fez and Morocco, born 1778, was the rightful heir to the throne when his father died, 1794; but was superseded by an uncle, after whose death he ascended the throne, 1823. His first four years of rule were occupied in quelling insurrections. Next, some danger to the state of Morocco was threatened by the refusal of Austria to pay the tribute for safety against pirates; but the sultan wisely adjusted the

dispute by relinquishing this sort of 'black-mail,' formerly levied by Marocco on European ships in the Mediterranean. The religious war under Abd-el-Kader against the French in Algerie involved the sultan in its movements; but was concluded by the battle of Isly, 1844, and the subsequent mediation of England. The piratical habits of his subjects brought A. to the brink of war with more than one European state. The sultan was a zealous Mussulman, without the wild fanaticism common among his countrymen; as a ruler, he was strict, and often cruel. He was succeeded in 1859 by his eldest son, Sidi-Mohammed (born 1803; died 1873).

ABEL appears in the book of Genesis as the second son of Adam, and a shepherd. He was slain by his elder brother Cain, under the influence of jealousy, because the offering of the latter had been rejected by Jehovah, and that of the former accepted. It is not said in Genesis, why Jehovah accepted the sacrifice of Abel; but the Saviour, in the New Testament, speaks of 'righteous Abel,' from which it is concluded that there dwelt in him a spirit of faith or trust in the unseen God, of which his brother was destitute. The writer of the Epistle to the Hebrews opens his enumeration of the 'faithful' in the 11th chapter of Hebrews, with these words: 'By faith Abel offered unto God, a more excellent sacrifice than Cain.' Such, also, has been in all ages the universal opinion of the Christian Church, which has regarded Abel as a type of innocence and faith.

ABEL, CHARLES FREDERICK, a native of Koethen, in Germany, born in 1719, was a distinguished musician. He was a pupil of Sebastian Bach, and for some years a member of the famous Dresden band of the Elector of Saxony, king of Poland. In 1758, when nearly forty years of age, he came to England in a state of great destitution; but his talents were quickly recognised. He was appointed chamber-musician to the queen of George III. His peculiar instrument, the *viola da gamba*, a small violoncello, with six strings, was never played by any one in equal perfection. He also obtained considerable reputation as a composer, though his pieces are not now held in very great estimation. He died in 1787, having shortened his life by his intemperate habits.

ABELARD, PETER, a scholastic philosopher and theologian, unquestionably the boldest thinker of the 12th c., was born in France, in 1079, at Paletz or Pallet, not far from Nantes, a village which belonged to his parents, Beranger and Lucie. An irrepressible thirst for knowledge, and a special pleasure in scholastic logic, moved him to resign his rights of primogeniture in favour of his younger brothers. He left Bretagne for Paris, in order to hear the prelections of William of Champeaux, but soon incurred the hatred of his master, whom he puzzled by his wonderful subtlety. He fled to Melun, and afterwards to Corbeil, persecuted and admired wherever he went. He then returned home for the restoration of his health. With renewed strength, he returned to Paris, reconciled himself with his opponents, and moulded, by his influence as a lecturer, some of the most distinguished men of his age, amongst whom were the future Pope Celestine II.; Peter Lombard; Berengar, his future apologist; and Arnold of Brescia. At this time, there lived in Paris, Heloise, the niece of the Canon Fulbert, then seventeen years of age, and already remarkable for her beauty, talents, and knowledge. She soon kindled in the breast of A., then thirty-eight years old, a violent and overwhelming passion, which was returned by Heloise with no less fervour. By means of Fulbert, A. became teacher and companion of Heloise, and the lovers were happy together until A.'s ardent poetical effusions reached the ears of the canon. He sought to separate the lovers; but it was too late. They fled together to the country, where Heloise bore a son, and was privately married to A., with the consent of her uncle. Not long after, Heloise returned to Fulbert's house, and denied the marriage, that her love might be no hinderance to A.'s advancement in the church. Enraged at this, and at a second flight which she took with her lover, Fulbert, in order to make him canonically incapable of ecclesiastical preferment, caused A. to be emasculated. In deep humiliation, A. entered as a monk the abbey of St Denis, and induced Heloise to take the veil at Argenteuil. But the lectures which he began to give soon after exposed him to new persecutions. The synod of Soissons (1121) declared his opinions on the Trinity to be heretical. He left St Denis, and built at Nogent-on-the-Seine a chapel and hermitage called Paraclete, which, after being enlarged by his scholars to a monastic foundation, he, on his appointment as abbot of St-Gildas-de-Ruys, in Bretagne, gave over to Heloise and her sisterhood for a dwelling. His residence in St-Gildas was imbittered by a continued struggle against his love, and by the hatred of the monks; till at last, in 1140, his doctrine was condemned by Pope Innocent III., and he was ordered to be imprisoned. But Peter the Venerable, abbot of Clugny, after A. had retracted his opinions on the Trinity and Redemption, reconciled him to his enemies. A. died with the reputation of a model of monastic propriety, on April 21, 1142, in the abbey of St Marcel, not far from Chalons-on-the-Saône. Heloise had him interred at the Paraclete, hoping one day to lie by his side. She survived A. twenty years. The ashes of both were taken to Paris in 1808, and in 1828 were buried in one sepulchre in Père la Chaise. —The doctrines advanced by A. in his controversy with St Bernhard, have a decidedly rationalist tendency; and he, and his predecessor Erigena, may be looked upon as the first avowed representatives of that school. A. laid down the principle, that nothing is to be believed but what has been first understood; while the church held that we must believe in order to understand; and Bernhard was for banishing inquiry altogether from the province of religion. In judging of A.'s merits, we are not to look so much to his writings, as to the influence which his wonderful power of public disputation enabled him to exercise on his age. His character, no less than his doctrine, gave great offence. Until recently, it is chiefly the romantic history of his love that has occupied attention. The chief biography that has appeared is that by Rémusat, under the title of *A.* (2 vols., Par. 1845), containing his life, character, writings, and opinions. The Latin writings and letters of A. and Heloise were collected by Amboise, and published by Duchesne (Par. 1616). Some works of A. have been recently discovered; among others *Sic et Non*, a collection of doctrinal contradictions from the Fathers; they have been published partly by Cousin (Par. 1836), partly by Rheinwald (Berl. 1831).

ABELE. See POPLAR.

ABELITES, a Christian sect of the 4th c., found chiefly in the neighbourhood of Hippo, in North Africa. Their chief distinction consisted in marrying but abstaining from matrimonial intercourse, in order not to propagate original sin. They held that Abel so lived, because the Bible mentions no children of his.

ABELMOSCHUS. See HIBISCUS.

ABENCERRAGES, a noble Moorish race whose struggles with the family of the Zegris, and tragical destruction in the royal palace of the Alhambra, in Granada, in the time of Abu-Hassan (1466–84),

the last but one of the kings of Granada, furnish the materials for a charming Spanish work of fiction, *Historia de las Guerras Civiles de Granada* (Madrid, 1694). From this Chateaubriand composed *Les Aventures du Dernier Abencerrage*, and furnished the text of an opera of Cherubini's. The work, however, seems to be destitute of historical foundation; at least Conde is perfectly silent on the subject in his *Historia de la Dominacion de los Arabes en España* (3 vols., Madrid, 1829).

A'BENDBERG, a hill in the canton of Berne, rising abruptly out of the waters of Lake Thun, on the south side. It is interesting as the site of an institution, established by Dr Guggenbühl, for the cure of Cretins (q. v.), and supported by contributions from far and near. The sanguine hopes raised as to the good to be effected by the healthiness of the situation, and the mode of treatment followed, have been greatly disappointed, little alleviation being perceptible. The establishment still exists as an asylum for these unfortunate beings.

ABEN-ESRA, properly Abraham-Ben-Meir-Ben-Esra, born 1093 in Spain, died 1168 in Rome, was one of the most learned Jews of his times. He understood the Hebrew, Arabic, and Aramaic languages; had considerable knowledge of mathematics, astronomy, and medicine; was a scientific observer; and generally distinguished himself as a sagacious thinker. Having left his native land, he visited Lombardy, Provence, France, Egypt, and England, and passed the later years of his life in Rome; everywhere giving lectures on grammar, theology, astronomy, &c., besides writing and translating several works in Hebrew and Arabic. His *Commentaries on the Old Testament* are the most important of his works, which include some treatises on astrology, since published in Latin. The scholastic writers mention Aben-Esra as ABENARE or AVENARD.

ABER is a Celtic word which enters into the composition of several names of places, chiefly in Wales and Scotland. It indicates the mouth or embouchure of a stream, either into the sea, or into another river—as Aberbrothock, at the mouth of the Brothock, in Forfarshire; Abergavenny, at the junction of the Usk and Gavenny, in Wales.

ABERCROMBIE, JOHN, M.D., in his own day the most eminent of Scottish physicians, and still worthy of remembrance for his professional and moral excellence, was born in 1781, at Aberdeen, where his father was long a parish minister. He studied medicine in Edinburgh, taking his degree in 1801, and thenceforth devoted himself to the practice of his profession in the Scottish capital. At a comparatively early age, he attained a high reputation; and after the death (in 1821) of the celebrated Dr Gregory, he became recognised as the first consulting physician in Scotland. His professional writings contributed to his celebrity, which was still further extended by the publication, in 1830 and 1833, of his works on *The Intellectual Powers* and *The Moral Feelings*. These works have no pretensions to originality or depth of thought, but acquired, from the high personal character of the author, a reputation during his life, which a few years have sufficed to impair. They possess, however, the merit of being more readable than many works of the same class, and are pervaded by a moral and religious feeling, which, in the case of their pious and benevolent author, was perfectly genuine. Dr A. died suddenly, Nov. 14, 1844. Among the honours bestowed upon him during his life were the degree of M.D. from Oxford, the rectorship of Marischal College, the vice-presidency of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and the office of Physician in Ordinary to Her Majesty for Scotland.

ABERCROMBY, SIR RALPH, was born at Menstry, in Clackmannanshire, in 1734. He was designed by his father for the Scottish bar; and studied from 1752 to 1755 at the universities of Edinburgh and Leipsic. His natural inclination, however, pointed to a military life; and in 1758, he went to Germany as a cornet in the 3d Dragoon Guards. In 1780, he raised a regiment in Ireland, which was called the 103d, or King's Irish. It was disbanded in 1783; and the next ten years were spent by Sir Ralph in the retirement of a country life. He had married in 1767. In 1793, he accompanied the Duke of York to Holland. His conduct throughout that unfortunate campaign, especially during the disastrous retreat in the winter of 1794–5, won him the love and admiration of the whole army. On his return to England, he was appointed to the chief command of the expedition to the West Indies, which, notwithstanding the vexatious obstruction of his designs, he conducted with distinguished success, taking Grenada, Demerara, Essequibo, St Lucia, St Vincent, and Trinidad. Soon after, he was appointed commander of the forces in Ireland; but his enlightened and manly remonstrances against the policy of government towards that country occasioned his removal to a similar command in Scotland. In 1799, he was appointed second in command to the Duke of York in the expedition to Holland, still more unhappy and ignominious in its results than the former. A. alone acquitted himself on all occasions with entire credit. On his return, he was appointed to command the expedition to the Mediterranean. The fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay on the 2d of March. On the 7th, A. reconnoitred the shore in person. Before mid-day of the 8th, the British troops were in possession of the sand-hills that commanded the shore, having landed in the face of a storm of shot that ploughed the water around them. On the 13th, the enemy were driven within the lines of Alexandria. On the morning of the 21st, Menou attempted to surprise the British camp. He found them ready, under arms. In the glorious action that ensued, the British commander was struck by a musket-ball in the thigh; but not till the battle was won, and he saw the enemy retreating, did he shew any sign of pain. He was borne from the field in a hammock, cheered by the blessings of the soldiers as he passed, and conveyed on board Lord Keith's ship. The ball could not be extracted; mortification ensued; and on the 28th he died, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. In the character of A. were combined the qualities that seem peculiarly characteristic of a true British soldier. He was at once gentle and brave, clear-sighted and cool in deliberation, in action prompt and daring, even to hardihood. Apart from his qualities as a soldier, he was a man of liberal accomplishments, free from prejudices, and of sound practical judgment.—The national gratitude to this eminent man took the form of a peerage conferred on his widow, afterwards enjoyed by his eldest son, with the title of Baron Abercromby.—His third son, JAMES ABERCROMBY, after being M.P. for Edinburgh and Speaker of the reformed House of Commons, was raised to the British peerage in 1839, with the title BARON DUNFERMLINE. He died in March 1858.

ABERDEEN, the chief city and seaport in the N. of Scotland, lies in lat. 57° 9′ N., and long. 2° 6′ W., in the S.E. angle of the county of the same name, at the mouth of the river Dee, which forms its harbour, and 111 miles N. of Edinburgh. Its mean annual temperature is 47·8° F., and rainfall, 30·57 inches. William the Lion made A. a royal burgh in 1179. The English burned A. in 1336, but it was soon rebuilt, and called New Aberdeen. Old A.,

within the same parliamentary boundary, is a small town a mile to the N., near the mouth of the Don. King's College and University, founded in Old A. in 1494, and Marischal College and University, founded in New A. in 1593, were in 1860 united into one institution, the University of Aberdeen. It had 723 students in 1872—1873, and its general council, with that of Glasgow University, sends one member to parliament. In the 17th c. A. had become an important place, but it suffered much from both parties in the civil wars. It has now a flourishing trade and large manufactures, and its handsome light-gray granite architecture is much admired. The harbour has been much enlarged and deepened, and a new breakwater has been lately built. In 1872, 236 vessels, of 101,188 tons (24 being steamers of 7483 tons), belonged to the port. The chief exports are linens, woollens, cotton-yarns, paper, combs, granite (hewn and polished), cattle, grain, preserved provisions, and fish. A. has the largest comb and granite-polishing works in the kingdom. It has considerable iron-works and much ship-building. The A. clipper-bow ships are celebrated as fast sailers. A has above 60 places of worship, and 10,000 children at school. Connected with A., which has always been a celebrated seat of learning, have been the names of Barbour and Boece; Bishops Elphinstone, Dunbar, and Forbes; the Earls Marsichal; Jameson, Gregory, Reid, Beattie, Campbell, and Hamilton. The British Association met here in 1859, under the presidency of the Prince Consort. The burgh is governed by 25 councillors, including a provost, six bailies, a dean of guild, &c. Pop. in 1871, of municipal burgh, 76,348; parliamentary burgh, 88,123, with a valuation in 1873 of £317,696, and sending one member to parliament.

ABERDEENSHIRE, a large maritime county in the E. of Scotland, between 56° 52′ and 57° 42′ N. lat., and 1° 49′ and 3° 48′ W. long.; bounded N. by Banffshire and the North Sea; E. by the North Sea; S. by Kincardine, Forfar, and Perth shires; W. by Inverness and Banff shires. It is the fifth in size of the Scottish counties; greatest length, 102 miles; greatest breadth, 50 miles; with 60 miles of sea-coast, and an area of 1970 square miles. It has long been popularly divided into five districts (proceeding from south-west to north-east)—Mar, Strathbogie, Garioch, Formartin, and Buchan. A. is generally hilly, and in the south-west (Braemar) entirely mountainous, the Grampians running along the south side, and branching off to the north-east and north. Braemar contains the highest mountains; Ben-Muic-Dhui (next to Ben Nevis, the highest hill in the British Isles), 4296 feet; Cairntoul, 4245; Cairngorm, 4090; Ben-na-Buird, 3860; Lochnagar, 3786. The predominant rocks are granite and gneiss. The granite is very durable, and is much used for building and polishing. The chief rivers are the Dee (96 miles long), Don (78 miles), and Ythan (37 miles), which run eastward into the North Sea; and the Doveran (58 miles), which runs north-east into the North Sea (see DEE, DON, DOVERAN). On the upper part of the Dee is *Balmoral* (q. v.). The Ythan yields the pearl-muscle, but rarely pearls of any value. The mean annual rainfall of A. varies from 30 to 37 inches. Clay soils predominate near the coast, loamy soils near the centre, and poor, gravelly, sandy, and peaty soils elsewhere. The most fertile parts lie between the Don and Ythan, and in the north-east angle of the county. Nowhere in the kingdom have the natural disadvantages of soil and climate been more successfully overcome. A. has 188 miles of railway, and 2359 miles of public roads, the latter supported by rates, and not by tolls. The chief towns and villages are Aberdeen (New and Old), Peterhead, Fraserburgh, Huntly, Kintore, Inverury, and Turriff. The county returns two members to parliament; the city of Aberdeen, one; and the burghs of Peterhead, Kintore, and Inverury, with Elgin, Cullen, and Banff, one. 36·6 per cent. of the area of A. is cultivated. In 1872, it had 191,880 acres in oats, 18,930 in barley and bere; 95,091 in turnips; and 157,960 cattle. A. produces one-fifth of the turnips and one-seventh of the cattle reared in Scotland, and is unsurpassed in breeding and feeding stock. The fisheries on the coast are very productive. Pop. in 1871, 244,603, with 34,589 inhabited houses, and 84·83 per cent. of the children, of ages 5 to 13, receiving education. The munificent Dick and Milne bequests for parochial schoolmasters has given A. a high place in the statistics of education. A. has about 290 places of worship, 105 being Established, and 100 Free. Value of real property (exclusive of the burgh of Aberdeen), in 1872—1873, £795,191.

ABERDEEN, GEORGE HAMILTON GORDON, EARL OF, was born at Edinburgh in 1784. He was educated at Harrow and at St John's College, Cambridge, where he took his degree of M.A. in 1804. Before this, on succeeding to the earldom in 1801, he made a tour through Greece, the record of which is preserved in Byron's well-known line—

'The travelled thane, Athenian Aberdeen.'

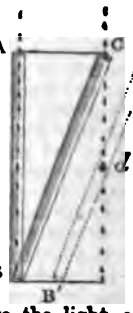
In his twenty-second year, he was elected one of the sixteen Scottish representative peers, and entered public life as a Tory. In 1813, he was appointed ambassador to the Austrian court, and conducted the negotiations which terminated in the alliance of that power with Britain. At this time he formed that close friendship with Prince Metternich which so decidedly influenced his subsequent policy as a statesman. On the conclusion of the war, he was elevated to the British peerage as Viscount Gordon. From this time till the year 1828, his lordship made no prominent appearance in public life. In that year he took office in the new ministry formed under the Duke of Wellington. The general principle which guided his policy, as Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, was that of non-interference in the internal affairs of foreign states, which, joined to his well-known sympathy with such statesmen as Metternich, has exposed him—not always justly—to the suspicion of being inimical to the cause of popular liberty. His gradual abandonment of high Tory principles was evinced by his support of the bill for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and of the Roman Catholic Emancipation Act. From the fall of the Wellington ministry till the Peel administration in 1841, his lordship was out of office, with the exception of his brief administration of the Colonial Office in the Tory ministry of 1834-5. In 1841, he again received the seals of the Foreign Office. M. Guizot was at that time foreign minister in France, and the two statesmen acted in cordial alliance. The conclusion of the Chinese War, the Ashburton Treaty, and the Oregon Treaty, were the principal services rendered to the country during his administration of foreign affairs. His act in 1843 for removing doubts regarding the admission of ministers to benefices in Scotland, was too late to save the disruption of the Church, and in working it does not seem to have proved very satisfactory. He had long been in favour of the repeal of the corn-laws, and from the time that that question became the rallying-point of the Peel party, he became identified with their policy. In 1846, he resigned with Sir Robert Peel. In 1853, on the resignation of Lord Derby, the extraordinary state of parties necessitated a coalition, and Lord A.

was selected as the fittest man to head the new ministry, which for some time was extremely popular. The feeble and vacillating policy displayed in the conduct of the war with Russia, gradually undermined its stability, and the disastrous mismanagement brought to light in the winter of 1854, in all departments of the public business connected with the war, filled up the measure of the popular discontent. On the 1st of February 1855, Lord A. resigned office. His lordship was author of an Essay on Grecian Architecture, published in 1822. He died in 1860.

A'BERDEVINE, or SISKIN (*Fringilla Spinus*), a song-bird, nearly allied to the goldfinch, with which it is placed by Cuvier and others in the new genus *Carduelis*. It is rather smaller than the goldfinch, and less elongated in form. The crown of the head and the throat are black, the nape, dusky green, and there is a broad yellow streak above and behind each eye. It is only a winter visitant of Britain, and breeds in the north of Europe, building its nest in high trees. It is frequently kept as a cage-bird, being easily tamed; and breeds freely with the canary. It feeds on the seeds of the thistle, alder, birch, and elm, and occasionally does great damage to the hop plantations in Germany. In France it injures the blossoms of the apple-trees. The nest of the A. is rarely found.

ABERNETHY, JOHN, a very eminent English surgeon, was born in London in 1764. His grandfather was the Rev. John Abernethy, an Irish Presbyterian clergyman, who acquired distinction by his writings, and his bold adoption of Bishop Hoadly's views on the right of private judgment and the subscription of Confessions. A.'s early tastes disposed him to the bar; but in 1780 he was apprenticed to Mr (afterwards Sir Charles) Blicke, surgeon of St Bartholomew's Hospital. He attended at the same time the lectures of John Hunter and Sir W. Blizard. In 1787, A. was elected assistant-surgeon to St Bartholomew's, an office which he filled for twenty-eight years; at the end of which time he was appointed surgeon, with a salary. Soon after his election, he began to lecture in the hospital on anatomy and surgery, and may be said to have laid the foundation of its character as a school of surgery. At first, he manifested extraordinary diffidence, but his power soon developed itself; and his lectures at last attracted such crowds, that, in 1790, it was found necessary to build a lecture-theatre in the hospital for his use. His clear, simple, and positive style, illustrated by an inexhaustible variety of apt anecdotes, made him the most popular medical teacher of his day. In 1813, he was appointed surgeon to Christ's Hospital, and in 1814, Professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the College of Surgeons. His practice increased with his celebrity, which the singular eccentricity and occasional rudeness of his manners contributed to heighten. Notwithstanding, however, the irritability and harshness which he so often exhibited, those who knew him best bear unanimous testimony to the generosity and kindliness of his character. He married in 1800, and had several children. He died at Enfield, in 1831. Of his works, the most original and important is his *Observations on the Constitutional Origin and Treatment of Local Diseases*, first published in 1806, in which a simple principle, till then little attended to, was made the foundation of much important and ingenious observation. His *Lectures on the Theory and Practice of Surgery* were published in 1830.

ABERRATION OF LIGHT is an apparent alteration in the place of a star, arising from the motion of the earth in its orbit combined with the progressive passage of light. When rain is falling perpendicularly, a drop entering at the top of an upright tube at rest, will go through; but if the tube be carried forward horizontally, a drop entering the top will strike against the side before it goes far; and to make the drop go through the tube in motion, we must incline the top of it forward in the direction of the motion. The amount of this inclination will be the greater, the more rapid the motion of the tube is compared with that of the falling drops. If in the time that a drop takes to fall through the height AB of the parallelogram in the annexed cut, the inclined tube BC is moved horizontally over a space equal to its breadth, AC, a drop entering the top of the tube will descend without touching the sides. For in half the time, the tube will be in the position, B'C', and the drop in the position *d*; and so for any other portion of the time. This exactly illustrates the astronomical phenomenon in question. The tube is a telescope directed to receive the light of a star; this tube, and the person looking through it, are moving along with the earth in its orbit, and the light may be conceived as particles coming from the star like drops of rain, moving much faster, no doubt, still requiring time. That a particle or ray of light from the star may pass through the tube, it must be directed, not straight to the star, but at a slight angle in the direction of the earth's motion. Thus the place where we see the star is not its true place. As the earth's motion, however, is slow compared with the velocity of light, the angle of inclination is small—never exceeding about 20″. The result is, that, if we conceive the true place of a star as a fixed point, the apparent place of the star describes about this true place, in the course of a year, an ellipse whose greater axis is about 40″. The aberration of light was discovered by the English astronomer Bradley, in 1727, while seeking to determine the parallax of certain fixed stars.



ABERY'STWITH, a seaport and a member of the Cardigan district of parliamentary boroughs. In 1872, 320 vessels, of a total tonnage of 18,316 tons, entered the port. A. is much resorted to for sea-bathing, and is well provided with good hotels and lodging-houses. Pop. (1871) 6998.

ABEYANCE, a legal term importing that a freehold inheritance, dignity, or office is not vested in any one, but is in expectation, or suspended, until the true owner appears, or the right thereto is determined. Titles of honour are said to be in A. when it is uncertain who shall enjoy them. A parsonage remaining void is also said to be in A. This A. or suspense, being repugnant to the general principles of the tenure of land, is never allowed except when it is unavoidable. It finds no place in the law of Scotland, where it is a maxim that the *fee* of an inheritance, or the *right* of property, cannot be *in pendente*, but must be somewhere, for this, among other reasons, that creditors must know with whom the right of property is. Titles of honour and office stand on a different footing in Scotland, where, however, the general provisions of the law are so comprehensive as almost to exclude a case of A.

ABIES. See FIR.

ABINGDON, a market town in Berkshire, England, situated at the junction of the Ock and the Thames. The name was originally Abbendon (town of the Abbey). It sends a member to parliament. Pop. of parliamentary borough (1871), 6571.

ABJURATION, Oath of. Formerly there were three oaths, called the Oaths of Allegiance, Supremacy, and Abjuration, required of all persons before admission to any public office; and next, by the 21 and 22 Vict. c. 48, one oath was substituted for the three referred to, and was as follows:

'I, A. B., do swear, That I will be faithful, and bear true allegiance to her Majesty Queen Victoria, and will defend her to the utmost of my power against all conspiracies and attempts whatever which shall be made against her person, Crown, or dignity, and I will do my utmost endeavour to disclose and make known to her Majesty, her heirs and successors, all treasons and traitorous conspiracies which may be formed against her or them; and I do faithfully promise to maintain, support, and defend to the utmost of my power, the succession of the Crown, which succession, by an Act, intituled *An Act for the further limitation of the Crown, and better securing the rights and liberties of the Subject*, is and stands limited to the Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants; hereby utterly renouncing and abjuring any obedience or allegiance unto any other person claiming or pretending a right to the Crown of this realm; and I do declare, that no foreign prince, person, prelate, state, or potentate, hath or ought to have any jurisdiction, power, superiority, pre-eminence, or authority, ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm: And I make this declaration upon the true faith of a Christian. So help me God.'

The subject of oaths was, however, again revised by the legislature in 1868 and 1871, and was settled in the following manner by the act 31 and 32 Vict. c. 71.

The former statutes prescribing certain forms of oaths were repealed, and the above form of oath was abolished, and the abjuration altogether omitted as no longer fit to be perpetuated among the solemn sanctions applicable to high offices. Three several oaths were prescribed to take the place of the former oaths, and these were—(1) the oath of allegiance, (2) the official oath, (3) the judicial oath. Certain high officers now require to take both the oath of allegiance and the official oath, and certain other officers require to take both the oath of allegiance and the judicial oath. The oath of homage taken by archbishops and bishops, and of canonical obedience to them, was left unaffected. But the oath of allegiance was substituted for the oaths taken by the clergy, and members of parliament, and judges, &c. This oath of allegiance is in the following form: 'I, A. B., do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to her Majesty, Queen Victoria, her heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God.' This oath gets rid of the objections formerly felt by Jews in taking the oath.

The act 34 and 35 Vict. c. 48 repealed nearly all the previous statutes as to oaths.

The act of 10 Geo. IV. c. 7, which settled the form of oath to be taken by Roman Catholics instead of the oaths of Allegiance, Supremacy, and Abjuration, has been repealed as regards the form of oath; but as it was part of a memorable settlement, it is here given:

'I, A. B., do sincerely promise and swear, That I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to her Majesty, Queen Victoria, and will defend her to the utmost of my power against all conspiracies and attempts whatever, which shall be made against her person, Crown, or dignity; and I will do my utmost endeavour to disclose and make known to her Majesty, her heirs and successors, all treasons and traitorous conspiracies which may be formed against her or them: And I do faithfully promise to maintain, support, and defend, to the utmost of my power, the succession of the Crown, which succession, by an Act, intituled *An Act for the further limitation of the Crown, and better securing the rights and liberties of the Subject*, is and stands limited to the Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants; hereby utterly renouncing and abjuring any obedience or allegiance unto any other person claiming or pretending a right to the Crown of this realm: And I do further declare, That it is not an article of my Faith, and that I do renounce, reject, and abjure the opinion, that princes excommunicated or deprived by the Pope, or any other authority of the See of Rome, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects, or by any person whatsoever: And I do declare, That I do not believe that the Pope of Rome, or any other foreign prince, prelate, person, state, or potentate, hath, or ought to have, any temporal or civil jurisdiction, power, superiority, or pre-eminence, directly or indirectly, within this realm. I do swear, That I will defend, to the utmost of my power, the settlement of property within this realm, as established by the laws; and I do hereby disclaim, disavow, and solemnly abjure any intention to subvert the present church establishment, as settled by law within this realm: And I do solemnly swear, That I never will exercise any privilege to which I am or may become entitled, to disturb or weaken the Protestant Religion or Protestant Government in the United Kingdom: And I do solemnly, in the presence of God, profess, testify, and declare, that I do make this Declaration, and every part thereof, in the plain and ordinary sense of the words of this oath, without any evasion, equivocation, or mental reservation whatsoever. So help me God.'

This oath having frequently been considered objectionable, as covertly imputing disloyalty and insincerity to the Roman Catholic body, has been superseded by the above short oath of allegiance common to all parts of the United Kingdom.

ABLATIVE CASE. See DECLENSION.

ABLUTION. See PURIFICATION.

ABO (pronounced *Obo*), the chief town of the government of Abo, in Finland, now belonging to the Russian Empire, is situated on the river Aurajokki, near its embouchure in the Gulf of Bothnia; pop. 18,109. The town was founded by the Swedes in 1157, and remained the capital of Finland until 1819. In the year 1827, a great part of the town, including the university buildings, was destroyed by fire, and consequently the university was removed to Helsingfors, now the capital.—The *Peace of Abo*, concluded August 17, 1743, between Sweden and Russia, put an end to the war commenced by Sweden, under French instigation, in 1741. In this war, Russia had gained possession of the whole of Finland through the misconduct of the two Swedish generals, Löwenhaupt and Buddenbrock, who were beheaded. In this treaty, the river Kymene was made the boundary between the territories of Sweden and Russia; but by another peace, concluded in 1809, the whole of Finland, as far as the Tornea, was ceded to Russia.

ABOLITIONISTS, a term used to designate a party in the U.S., who sought the immediate and total abolition of slavery. See SLAVERY. Abolitionist views had long been held by many, especially by members of the Society of Friends; but the term was not commonly used until an aggressive party spread from New England throughout the north and west, demanding immediate and unconditional emancipation. After about 30 years of agitation, the A. became sufficiently powerful to get some of their doctrines adopted by the republican party. The ends of the A. were gained when, under

Lincoln's administration, slavery was abolished, January 1, 1863.

ABORIGINES (Lat.), properly the earliest inhabitants of a country. The corresponding term used by the Greeks was *Autochthones*. The Roman and Greek historians, however, apply the name to a special people, who, according to tradition, had their original seats in the mountains about Reate, now Rieti; but, being driven out by the Sabines, descended into Latium, and in conjunction with a tribe of Pelasgi, subdued or expelled thence the Siculi, and occupied the country. The A. then disappear as a distinct people, they and their allies the Pelasgi having taken the name of Latini. The non-Pelasgic element of the Roman population is supposed to represent these A., who would thus belong to the Oscans or Ausonians.

ABORTION, in Criminal Law. Neither in the law of England nor of Scotland is it murder to kill a child in the mother's womb (although it would be murder of the mother, if she dies in consequence of the treatment). But the offence in question falls under the name A., which may be defined as the crime of administering to a pregnant woman any medicine, poison, or noxious drug, or of using any surgical instrument or other means, with the intent of procuring miscarriage. The English law on the subject is now regulated by the 24 and 25 Vict. c. 100, s. 58, which makes the offence felony, and subjects offenders to penal servitude for life, or for not less than three years, or to be imprisoned for any term not more than two years. In the law of Scotland, the procuring of A. is an offence at common law, punishable with 'an arbitrary pain,' and that equally whether the desired effects be produced or not. As in England, penal servitude or imprisonment, according to circumstances, is the punishment usually awarded.

ABOUKI'R, the ancient *Canopus*, is now an insignificant village on the coast of Egypt, about 13 miles north-east of Alexandria. The castle of Aboukir stands on the west side of the bay of the same name. This bay is celebrated on account of Nelson's victory here gained over the French fleet, August 1, 1798. The French fleet was stationed in a curved line near a small island guarded by a battery; but Nelson, with his usual intrepidity, forced a passage with half of his fleet of fifteen vessels between the island and the French line of battle, while the other half attacked the enemy in front. The French admiral De Brueys was killed by a cannon-ball, and his flag-ship, *l'Orient*, was destroyed by fire. Only sixty or seventy men were saved out of a crew of 1000. The French fleet was completely defeated, and only two vessels escaped.

ABOUSA'MBUL, or IPSAMBUL, a place on the left bank of the Nile, in Nubia, lat. 22° 22', the site of two very remarkable rock-cut temples, perhaps the oldest existing specimens of architecture in the world. The larger temple contains fourteen apartments, hewn out of the solid rock. The first and largest of these is 57 feet long, and 52 broad, and is supported by two rows of massy square pillars (four in each row), 30 feet high. To each of the pillars is attached a standing colossus, reaching to the roof, overlaid with a kind of stucco, and painted with gaudy colours. In front of the temple are four colossal seated figures—the largest pieces of Egyptian sculpture yet discovered. Reproductions of two of these, on the scale of the original (65 feet in height), form very striking objects in the Crystal Palace at Sydenham, where also may be seen a facsimile, on a small scale, of the temple itself. These figures are supposed to represent Rameses the Great (or Sesostris), whose achievements are described on the painted walls of the temple.

ABRACADABRA, a word said to be of Persian origin, and to designate in that language Mithra, the sun-god. It was, in former times, the most venerated of those magical formulas that were constructed out of the letters of the alphabet, and was supposed to be highly efficacious for the cure of fevers, and especially quartan and semi-tertian agues. Serenus Sammonicus gives the following directions for its use: Write the letters of the word so as to form a triangle, capable of being read many ways, on a square piece of paper. Fold the paper so as to conceal the writing, and stitch it into the form of a cross with white thread. This amulet wear in the bosom, suspended by a linen ribbon for nine days. Then go in dead silence, before sunrise, to the banks of a stream that flows eastward, take the amulet from off the neck, and fling it backwards into the water. If you open or read it, the charm is destroyed. The adjoining is one of the principal forms of arranging this mystic word.

A B R A C A D A B R A
A B R A C A D A B R
A B R A C A D A B
A B R A C A D A
A B R A C A D
A B R A C A
A B R A C
A B R A
A B R
A B
A

ABRAHAM, the progenitor of the Israelitish nation. He was a native of Chaldæa, but migrated, with his wife Sarah and his nephew Lot, to Canaan, where he lived a nomadic life, and worshipped the one God, Jehovah, in the midst of the polytheistic Canaanites. The details of the narrative, as given in the book of Genesis, are familiar to every one. A. died at the age of 175 (about 1800 B.C.). Of his two sons, Isaac was the ancestor of the Israelites; and the Arabs claim to be descended from Ishmael, whose mother was Hagar, a bond-woman. Later tradition ascribed to A. a complete knowledge of astronomy and philosophy, the invention of alphabetic writing, the art of interpreting dreams, &c. Even among Mohammedans, A. is reckoned a prophet and the friend of God; and they attribute to him the building of the sacred Kaaba at Mecca.

ABRAHAM-A-SANCTA-CLARA, a very eccentric but popular and useful German preacher, was born 1642, and died in Vienna 1709. His real name was ULRICH MEGERLE, but he is generally known by the name given to him in his monastery. Uncouth puns, coarse expressions, and strange freaks of humour, marked his sermons; but beneath their fantastic shells they had good kernels. A. was an honest, faithful, and devoted priest, as was proved by his self-sacrificing conduct during the plague in 1679. Though very severe in his reproof of vice, he was highly esteemed. The singular style of his writings is indicated by their very titles, e.g., *Gack Gack*, i. e., *Wallfarth Maria Stern in Texa; Heilsames Gemisch-Gemasch* (Wholesome Hodge-podge). His collected works amount to twenty vols. (1835). A selection was published in 2 vols. (Vien. 1846).

ABRAHAM-MEN, a class of sturdy beggars who simulated lunacy, and wandered about the country in a disorderly manner; at one time working on the sympathy, and at another on the fears of women, children, and domestics. They were common in Shakspeare's time, and, it would seem, existed even as late as the period of the civil wars. The term is a cant one. 'An Abram cove,' as Decker, in his *English Villanies*, calls one of these mendicants, meant one who personated a 'Tom o' Bedlam.' He would 'disguise himself in grotesque rags, with

knotted hair, long staff, and with many more disgusting contrivances to excite pity,' but he did not hesitate to live by thieving too, and when detected pilfering or in any species of depredation, he pleaded the immunities of the real Bedlamite, who was formally permitted to roam about the country when discharged from 'Bethlem Hospital.' A verbal relic of this class is still preserved in the slang phrase, 'to sham Abraham.'

A'BRAHAMITES, or Bohemian deists. Under this name, a number of residents in Bohemia, trusting in the edict of toleration issued by Joseph II., avowed themselves (1782) as believers of the doctrine alleged to have been held by Abraham before his circumcision. As early as the 9th c., a sect of the same name had arisen in Syria, and had denied the divinity of Christ. But the Bohemian deists professed to be followers of John Huss, though they held no Christian doctrine beyond that of the unity of God, and accepted nothing of the Bible save the Lord's Prayer. As they would join neither Jewish nor Christian sects, the emperor refused to tolerate them; and in 1783, expelled them from their native land, and scattered them in various parts of Hungary, Transylvania, and Slavonia, where many were made converts to the Roman Catholic Church, while others died as martyrs to their simple creed.

ABRANTES, DUKE OF. See JUNOT.

ABRA'XAS STONES are so called from having the word *abraxas* or *abrasax* engraved on them. They are cut in various forms, and bear a variety of capricious symbols, mostly composed of human limbs, a fowl's head, and serpent's body. These gems, whose value and significance have been greatly exaggerated, are common in collections, and are represented as coming from Syria, Egypt, and Spain. It is certain that the use of the name abraxas was at first peculiar to the Gnostic sect of the Basilidians (q. v.); and probably the word, by taking the numerical value of its Greek letters, may signify the number 365, so that there is no need to have recourse to old Persian or Egyptian, as is sometimes done. The Basilidians, however, did not designate by this name the highest deity, but the spirits of the world collectively. At a later period, the doctrines and practices of the sect were carried by the Priscellianists to Spain, whence many of these stones are got. Gnostic symbols were afterwards adopted by all sects given to magic and alchemy; and thus there is little doubt that the greater part of the abraxas-stones were made in the middle ages as talismans.

ABROGATION of laws is the repealing or recalling of them—as where a statute repeals a previous one. Generally, in England, all statutes, no matter how old, or how unsuited soever to the times, remain in force until they are expressly repealed. But in Scotland a statute may become obsolete and virtually repealed, so that it may not owing to the lapse of time be founded on. See STATUTE.

A'BRUS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Papilionaceæ*, of which the only known species, *A. precatorius*, is a shrub, originally belonging to India, where it is chiefly found in clayey soils, but now not uncommon in the West Indies and other tropical regions. The roots possess properties exactly similar to those of the common liquorice. The seeds are nearly spherical, as large as small peas, of a scarlet colour, with a black scar, and are familiar enough to most people in Britain, being used as beads. They are narcotic.

ABRU'ZZO, a district of Italy, was formerly the north-east corner of the kingdom of Naples, and divided into three parts—Abruzzo Ulteriore I. and II., and Abruzzo Citeriore. These three divisions correspond to the present Italian provinces, Chieti, Teramo, and Aquila respectively. The whole district contains about 5000 square miles, and 900,000 inhabitants. Its chief towns are Chieti, Teramo, Aquila, Sulmona. It forms the wildest and loftiest portion of the Apennines. The streams are numerous, but the only river of any consequence is the Pescara, which flows into the Adriatic. The rent and jagged mountain-groups arrange themselves in picturesque shapes, reaching in Il Gran Sasso d'Italia, or 'the great rock of Italy,' which is the highest of the chain, the elevation of 9590 feet. The highlands slope precipitously on all sides, but especially towards the north-eastern shore. The climate of A. is raw in the higher regions; snow rests on the hills from October to April, and on some of the peaks all the year round; but the valleys are extremely fertile, though husbandry is in a wretched condition, and the low open plains are left without the slightest protection from inundations of the rivers in spring, or means for irrigation in the arid summer. Dense forests of oak and fir clothe the sides of the mountains; at the base, almond, walnut, and other fruit-trees grow abundantly; olives in the deep-lying valleys. Fine cattle pasture in these regions; herds of swine roam through the lofty pine-woods; and the remoter fastnesses are the haunt of bears, wolves, and boars. The chief importance of A. used to be its military position as a defence of the kingdom of Naples. There are few roads into it, so that it is very difficult for an enemy to reach Naples from the north. It is admirably suited for the purposes of guerilla warfare. But the people have ceased to possess a reputation as banditti. No trace of the old spirit which made their ancestors, the Marsi, Sabines, and Samnites, so terrible to the Romans, and which in modern times manifested itself in a love of petty plundering, is to be found. They have become a race of rude and simple shepherds, fondly attached to their mountain homes, musical, superstitious, and hospitable; but they are robust and powerful, and during the French invasion of Naples, in 1799, displayed a vigorous courage in opposing the soldiers of the Revolution.

A'BSALOM, the third son of David, king of Israel, remarkable for his beauty, and for his unnatural rebellion against his father. By popular acts, he contrived to win the affections of the people, and then stirred up a formidable rebellion. The adherents of the king having rallied round him, a battle was fought in the forest of Ephraim, in which the rebels were defeated. In the flight, as A. was riding under a tree, his hair caught in the branches, and he was left suspended; in which position Joab, the commander of David's army, thrust him through, contrary to the king's express orders that he should be spared. The grief of David for his loss was excessive. See 2 Sam. c. 18.

ABSALOM, Archbishop of Lund. See AXEL.

A'BSCESS (*Apostema*), a collection of purulent matter formed by disease within some tissue or organ of the body. The process by which an abscess is formed is the following: First, the capillary vessels become overcharged with blood, in consequence of inflammation. From the blood thus made stagnant, or flowing very feebly, a fluid exudes through the walls of the capillary vessels, and, containing a large portion of albumen, becomes pus or purulent matter. This matter, at first contained in the minute interstices of the tissues, gradually dissolves them, and so makes for itself a larger cavity; and frequently, by gradual dissolution of the adjacent parts, works its way either to the surface or to some natural cavity of the body. Pus thus makes its appearance often in a

different part of the body from where it was formed. It also occurs, that when the purulent matter does not find any outlet either naturally or artificially, it is gradually dried up or absorbed. In abscesses superficially seated—either in or close under the skin—the early treatment consists chiefly in promoting the formation of pus by the application of moist and warm bandages or poultices. The next step is the removal of the pus. When this is too long delayed, serious disturbance of the organ, or even poisoning of the blood, may ensue. An abscess must be regarded not as a distinct, original disease in itself, but as the result of another disease—inflammation; or as an effort of nature for the removal of injurious matters from the system.

ABSCI'SSA. See PARABOLA.

ABSENTEE', a term applied, by way of reproach, to capitalists who derive their income from one country, and spend it in another. It has been especially used in discussions on the social condition of Ireland. As long as Ireland had its own parliament, a great portion of the large landed proprietors lived chiefly in the country during summer, and passed their winters in Dublin; thus spending a large portion of their incomes among their dependents, or at least among their countrymen. The Union changed the habits of the Irish nobility and gentry, who were attracted to London as the political metropolis, or were induced, by the disturbed condition of Ireland, to choose residences on the continent. Such Irish landed proprietors were styled 'absentees;' and it was argued that their conduct was the great source of Irish poverty, as it drained the resources of the land, or, in other words, sent money out of Ireland. One class of political economists—among them M'Culloch—maintain that, economically viewed, absenteeism has no injurious effect on the country from which the absentee draws his revenue. An Irish landlord living in France, it is argued, receives his remittances of rent, not in bullion, but in bills of exchange; and bills of exchange represent, in the end, the value of British commodities imported into France. The remittance could not be made unless goods to the same amount were also drawn from Britain. Thus, although the landlord may consume, for the most part, French productions, he causes, indirectly, a demand for as much of British productions; and his income goes, in the end, to pay for them. His residence abroad, then, does no harm to the industry and resources of the country at large, although it is admitted that it may be felt as an evil in a particular locality. The truth of this doctrine, however, in its full extent, is disputed. Among other objections to it, it is argued, that whatever may be true of the amount actually consumed, all the tradesmen and others who supply the absentee's wants have their profits, and have thus the means of accumulating; and that these accumulations which are thus added to the national wealth of a foreign country, would have been added to the wealth of his native country had he been living at home. The result of the controversy would seem to be, that absenteeism does, to some extent, act injuriously on the wealth of a country, though it is not true that the whole revenues thus spent are so much clear loss, there being several indirect compensations.—On the evil of absenteeism, in a moral point of view, all are agreed; especially in a country in the condition of Ireland, where nearly the whole wealth is in the hands of extensive landed proprietors, with almost no middle class. The possessors of land have duties to perform which cannot be deputed; the very least of these obligations being that of setting a good example in a neighbourhood, and one not less important being that of giving personal aid in effecting local improvements. It is a bad sign of the social condition of a country when its proprietors systematically live abroad, or in great cities away from their estates. The relations between landlord and tenant then become more and more cold and distant; while, too often, the agents of the landlords have no good feeling towards tenants, but strive only to raise as large sums as possible for their principals, and to enrich themselves. But though the evils of such a state of society are evident, it is not easy to propose a sound remedy. Forced residence is opposed to all British ideas of personal liberty. The most desirable object is to make Ireland a more pleasant home for landed proprietors.

A'BSOLUTE stands opposed to *relative*, and means that the thing is considered in itself, and without reference to other things. In physics, we speak of the *absolute* velocity of a body—i.e., the rate of its motion through space; and of the *relative* velocity of two bodies—i.e., the rate at which they approach or recede from one another, one or both being in motion. In the language of modern metaphysics, the Absolute is the unconditioned, unalterable original—that which is the ultimate cause and ground of the phenomena of the visible world. Absolute, in politics, is applied to a ruler whose authority is unrestricted by constitutional checks.

ABSOLUTION, originally a term of Roman law, signifying acquittal, is now used in an ecclesiastical sense. In the primitive Christian Church, its form was this: Members that had given scandal by gross and open sins, were excluded from the Lord's Supper or from the congregation altogether, and could be readmitted only if they repented and underwent the penance laid upon them by the church. When they had done so, the presbyter, along with the elders, pronounced the absolution in presence of the congregation—meaning, that the congregation forgave the offence, on their part, and received the sinner again into their number. Down to the 3d c., the concurrence of the congregation continued to be necessary to absolution. But by the 4th c., it had become a right of bishops to absolve, and the public confession had gradually turned into a private confession before the priest, who now imposed the penance of himself, modified or remitted it, and then absolved. Absolution had not, as yet, been extended to any but open and gross sins; but when the dominion of the hierarchy over men's minds had reached its height, and the fourth Lateran Council (1215) had made auricular confession, at least once a year, obligatory, confession and its attendant absolution were extended to all sins whatever; and the absolution was made to convey, not merely, as before, forgiveness on the part of the church, but forgiveness in the sight of God. The formula, *Deus* or *Christus absolvit te*, which was used till the 12th c., was changed into *Ego absolvo te;* thus ascribing to the priest the power to forgive sins in the sight of God. This is still the received theory of absolution in the Roman Catholic Church, sanctioned by the Council of Trent, and grounded on John xx. 21.—The Protestant churches ascribe to the absolution of the clergy only a declarative, and not an exhibitive power; on the ground of repentance, it announces and assures forgiveness on the part of God, but does not impart it. See PENANCE.

ABSORBENTS. See LACTEALS and LYMPHATICS.

ABSORPTION (in Botany).—It is believed that plants absorb carbonic acid gas, and also to some extent fluids, by their leaves and other aërial organs; and it is supposed that this absorption takes place principally through the *stomata* of the

leaves (see LEAVES), and both by the upper and under surface of the leaf, in some plants by both surfaces indifferently, in others much more powerfully by the one surface or the other. But plants principally depend upon their roots for nourishment, and it is at the extremities of their fibrils that absorption takes place most rapidly, according to a peculiar process to which has been given the name of ENDOSMOSE (q. v.).

ABSTINENCE. See FASTING.

ABSTINENCE SOCIETIES, associations for the promotion of abstinence from all kinds of alcoholic liquors, and the members of which usually receive the designation of abstainers or teetotalers—this last phrase inferring an utter and uncompromising abstinence; or at least that the only exception shall be for sacramental and medical purposes. Abstainers usually take a pledge or vow to that effect; the ground of their abstinence from alcoholic liquors being that they are injurious to, or at least no way promotive of, health, and that from the great social evils of intemperance it is important to set an example of entire abstinence. A. S. exist in great numbers in North America and the United Kingdom. In the early growth of this remarkable social movement, A. S. were called Temperance Societies, and under that head the subject will be treated in its various forms of development.

ABSTRACTION is that intellectual process by which the mind withdraws (*abstrahо*) some of the attributes of objects from the others, and thinks of them to the exclusion of the rest. The abstract is opposed to the concrete. John, William, my brother, form concrete images in my mind, each with a multitude of attributes peculiar to himself. But they have also certain attributes common to them and to all individuals of the race; I can overlook the others, and attend to these, and thus form a notion or conception, which is called *a man*. Man is, therefore, an abstract notion, the word connoting, as it is called, a certain though not very well-defined number of attributes. With the exception of proper names, all nouns are thus abstract. There are degrees, however, in abstraction. The abstract notion *animal* rises above that of *man*, embracing all men and innumerable organised beings besides. An *organised being*, again, is a still higher stage, and embraces both animals and plants. Being, time, space, are among the highest abstractions. The higher abstractions rise, the fewer attributes are implied or connoted in the name; hence the propriety of the phrase, *empty* abstractions. On the other hand, the number of objects to which the name is applicable, increases; and thus reasoning in abstract terms has the advantage of being general, or extensive in its application. But such reasoning is apt to become vague and fallacious, unless constant regard is had to concrete instances. Abstract language is best adapted for scientific exposition; concrete, for graphic and poetical effect.—ABSTRACT in Arith. is applied to numbers considered in themselves, and without reference to any objects numbered; thus 7, 20, are abstract numbers; but 7 feet, 20 horses are concrete numbers.

ABSURDUM, REDUCTIO AD, the method of proving a truth by shewing that to suppose the proposition untrue would lead to a contradiction or absurdity.

ABSYNTHIUM. See WORMWOOD.

ABU or BU (Arab. for 'father') is prefixed to many Arabic proper names, as the equivalent syllable *Ab* is prefixed to Hebrew names: ex., Abu-bekr, 'Father of the virgin' (Aysha). But *Abu*, like *Ab*, often signifies merely possessor; as in Abulfeda (possessor of fidelity), 'the Trusty;' Abner, 'the Brilliant'—literally, 'father or possessor of light.'

ABU-BEKR ('Father of the virgin' Aysha, the wife of Mohammed), was a man of great influence in the Koreish tribe; and in 632, when Mohammed died, was made the first calif or successor of the Prophet. After defeating his enemies in Arabia, and warring successfully against Babylonia, Syria, and the Byzantine emperor Heraclius, Abubekr died 635 A.D., aged 63, and was buried at Medina, near the remains of Mohammed and his wife Aysha.

ABULFARA'J (Lat. *Abulfaragius*), called also Barhebræus—i. e., Son of the Hebrew, as being by birth a Jew, though afterwards a Christian—was born at Malatia, in Armenia, 1226, and became so distinguished for his knowledge of the Syriac, Arabic, and Greek languages, and of philosophy, theology, and medicine, that he was called the phœnix of the age. At the age of twenty, he was made bishop of Gula, and afterwards of Aleppo; and rose to the rank of Maphrian, the highest dignity among the Jacobite Christians next to Patriarch. Of his numerous Syriac and Arabic writings, most of which yet lie buried in the library of the Vatican, the best known is a *Chronicle*, in Syriac, of universal history from Adam down to his own time. Only the first part has been published, by Bruns and Kirsch (Leipz. 1789). A. himself abridged this work in Arabic, under the title of *History of the Dynasties* (edited by Pococke, Arab. and Lat., Oxf. 1663). Among his writings of a theological kind may be mentioned his *Magazine of Mysteries*, being a Commentary on the Syriac Version of the Bible.

ABU'LFEDA, a Moslem prince, known as a writer of history, was born 1273 A.D., at Damascus; and during his youth, distinguished himself in several campaigns against the Christian kingdom founded by the Crusaders. From 1310 to the time of his death, he ruled over the principality of Hamat, in Syria, was a true ally of the sultan, visited Egypt and Arabia, patronised literature and science, and died in 1331. He left several important works in Arabic, among which are his Annals, the earlier portion of which has been edited by Fleischer, under the title of *Historia Anteislamica* (Leip. 1831), and the rest by Reiske, in his *Annales Moslemici* (Copenh. 1789–94). This work was in great part compiled by A. from earlier Arabic authors, and is a valuable source of history, especially of the Arabic Empire. He also wrote a Geography, from which extracts are given in Köhler's *Tabula Syriæ*, Michaelis's *Descriptio Egypti*, and Rommel's *Arabiæ Descriptio*. The whole work has been edited, with a French translation, by Reinaud and De Slane, under the title *Geographie d'Abulfeda* (Paris, 1848).

ABUSHE'HR (variously written Bushehr, Bushire, in Pers. Bendershehr) is the name of a seaport on the east coast of the Persian Gulf. It is situated at the extremity of a peninsula. The district is liable to be devastated by earthquakes, swarms of locusts, and the simoom, and is deficient in water; but the situation, so favourable for commerce, has raised the town to importance, so that it numbers above 15,000 inhabitants. It is the emporium of the Indian trade with Persia; and a main station on the Indo-European telegraph line. The exports are horses, fruits, shawls, pearls, silk, rose-water, asafœtida, &c.; imports, sugar, indigo, iron, cotton goods, &c.

ABUTMENT, in Arch., is the part of a pier or wall from which an arch springs, and which resists the outward thrust. The term *impost* is used when the arch is a semicircle, so that the pressure is vertical. In reference to a bridge, the

abutments are the walls adjoining the land, which support the ends of the roadway, or the extremities of the arch or arches.

ABY'DOS, a town in Asia Minor, situated at the narrowest part of the Hellespont, opposite Sestos. It is celebrated as the place whence Xerxes and his vast army passed into Europe in 480 B.C.; also as the scene of the story of Hero (q. v.) and Leander. In the later times of antiquity, the people of A. were reproached for their effeminate and dissolute manners.—There was another ABYDOS, in Upper Egypt (Thebais), on the left bank of the Nile, and on the main route of commerce with Libya. Even in the time of Strabo, this town was in ruins. Here the remains of the Memnonium and of a temple of Osiris are still remarkable. In the former, W. J. Bankes, in 1818, discovered the celebrated Tablet of A., bearing, in hieroglyphics, a genealogy of the eighteenth dynasty of the Pharaohs. It is now in Paris, and copies have been published.

ABYSSI'NIA, called Habesh by the Arabs, is the large tract of highlands in the east of Africa. From the Red Sea on the north-east, it rises in a succession of terraces towards the south-west. Between the highlands and the Red Sea lies a flat tract called Adal, narrow at the north (in lat. 15° 30′), and widening to the south. The plains of Nubia and Kordofan form the boundaries on the north and west, while the southern limits are not well known. The country consists of high table-lands, intersected by deep ravines formed by the rivers, and steep sandstone terraces. Numerous mountain-chains, mostly of volcanic origin, rise above the table-lands: the highest are the mountains of Samen or Samien, rising to about 15,000 feet above the sea-level. Some of the plains have an elevation of from 7 to 10,000 feet. A. gives birth to numerous rivers, the largest of which are the Abai or Nile (Bahr-el-Azrek or Blue River), and the Takkazie, an affluent of the Nile. In the south is the Hawash—from which the country takes its name—which flows eastward into the salt-lake of Assal in Adal. The largest lake is that of Tzana or Dembea, through which the Abai or Blue Nile flows. The climate in the elevated tracts of Abyssinia is temperate and salubrious; in the low tracts along the coast, and in the north and north-west, the heat is excessive, and the climate noxious. On the whole, A. is a country of great fertility; but, like the climate, the productions of the soil vary greatly with the different degrees of elevation. Wheat and barley are cultivated, also maize, the grains called Teff (*Poa Abyssinica*) and Tocusso (*Eleusine Tocusso*), various leguminous plants, cotton, coffee, sugar-cane, tobacco, &c. The coffee-plant grows wild. Among carnivorous animals, the lion, leopard, hyena, wolf, and jackal, are found. There are also elephants, buffaloes, rhinoceroses, zebras, &c.

The people of A. belong mostly to the Shemitic race, and resemble the Arabs both in physical characteristics and structure of language. See ETHIOPIA. The ethnology of the country is variously given by different authorities. According to Rüppell, there are three principal races. The aboriginal Abyssinians, inhabiting the greater part of Amhara, and numerous also in Tigré, are of middle size, with oval faces, lips not thicker than those of Europeans, pointed noses, and straight or slightly curled hair. In this race he includes the Falashas, or Jews, the Gamant, and the Agows. A second race, abounding most in the north of Tigré, have thick lips, noses blunt and somewhat curved, and thick hair, verging on woolliness. The third are the Gallas, inhabiting the south of Shoa and the regions west of Lake Dembea and the Abai; a large-bodied race, round-faced, short-nosed, with a depression between the nose and brow, deep-set lively eyes, and thickish lips. The colour of these races is brown of various shades. The only negroes in A. are slaves from the country of the Shangallas, to the west.

The oldest accounts of the Abyssinians are full of fables, but seem sufficient to prove that they attained some degree of civilisation even in remote antiquity. Christianity was introduced about the middle of the 4th c., and soon prevailed extensively. Axum was at that time the capital. Two centuries later, the Abyssinians were powerful enough to invade Arabia, and conquer a part of Yemen. In the subsequent struggles against the invading Moslem, the coast-land Samhara and the country of Adal were lost. In the 10th c., a Jewish princess overthrew the reigning dynasty, the surviving representative of which fled to Shoa. After three centuries of confusion, the empire was restored under Icon Amlac, and some progress was made in improvement. Early in the 15th c., the Abyssinians entered into close relations with the Portuguese, by whose assistance the empire was saved, in 1540, from falling into the hands of the invader Granie, sultan of Adal. The southern provinces, however, were lost, and the seat of empire was removed from Shoa to Gondar. Under the influence of the Portuguese missionaries, the royal family adopted the Roman Catholic faith; and the old Coptic Church was formally united to the see of Rome. The people and ecclesiastics obstinately resisted the innovation; the emperor gave way; and ultimately, in 1632, the Romish priests were expelled or put to death. In consequence of the commotions thus excited, the monarchical power declined, while that of the governors of provinces greatly increased, and, indeed, became almost absolute. The later history of A. is given under the article THEODORE, in the SUPP. The political divisions of the country are subject to continual alteration; but the following are the most important:—1. The kingdom of *Tigré*, extending between the river Takkazie or Bahr-el-Aswad (Black River), and the mountains of Samen on one side, and the district of Samhara on the other. Its chief towns are Antalo and Adowa. 2. The kingdom of *Gondar* or *Amhara*, extending on the west of the Takkazie and the Samen Mountains. The capital, Gondar, is situated in the north-east of the plain of Dembea or Gondar, at an elevation of 7420 feet. 3. The kingdom of *Shoa* (including *Efat*), lying south of Amhara, and separated from the Galla tribes by the Hawash. This is, by all accounts, the best organised and most powerful state now existing in A. The capital, Ankobar, at an elevation of 8198 feet, contains from 8000 to 10,000 inhabitants, and enjoys a delightful climate. The Gallas, a savage but enterprising race, effected a settlement in the south of A. in the 16th c. They inhabit the whole of the eastern part of tropical Africa. Several of their tribes have been modified in character and customs by conversion to Mohammedanism, and have founded kingdoms—such as *Enarea*, one of the highest mountain countries of Africa, and rich in produce; *Kusha*, on the river Goshob, where the slave-trade is actively carried on by the Portuguese; and several smaller independent states of which little is known.

In consequence of invasions and civil warfare, the present social and political condition of A. is very unfavourable. The kingdom of Shoa is in better circumstances than the other states. Though Christianity is still the professed religion of the majority of Abyssinians, it exists among them only in its lowest form, and is little more than ceremonial.

Their church is national and independent, but the visible head, or *Abuna* ('our father') is ordained by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria. The doctrines of the Abyssinian coincide with those of the Coptic Church, especially in the monophysite heresy; but several peculiar rites are observed, including circumcision of both sexes, and observance of the Mosaic laws respecting food, &c.; love-feasts, and adult baptism. The oldest Abyssinian churches are hewn out of rocks. The modern churches are mostly small, round, or conical buildings, thatched with straw, and surrounded by pillars of cedar. Statues and bas-reliefs are not tolerated in churches, but paintings are numerous. The state of manners and morals in A. is as low as might be looked for in a country so long a prey to anarchy and violence. Human life is lightly valued, the administration of justice is barbarously negligent and corrupt, and the marriage-bond is tied and loosed with extreme facility. The land generally yields at least two crops annually; but the agriculture is miserable, and the condition of the lower classes proportionally wretched. Among fruits, the fig is the most plentiful. Wine is used only for the Eucharist; the common drink is *bouza*, a kind of sour beer, made from the fermentation of bread. The manufactures of A. are rude, but sufficient, with a few exceptions, for the wants of the natives; cotton stuffs and leather goods are the staple articles. The foreign trade is carried on principally through Massowah; the chief exports being slaves, gold, butter, musk-horns, wax, and ivory.

A. has been frequently visited in recent years by Christian missionaries, scientific travellers, and mercantile and political agents; and our knowledge of its literature has received great additions. See the Travels and Journals of Bruce, Lord Valentia, Salt, Ritter, Gobat, Isenberg and Krapf, Rochet d'Hericourt, Ruppell, and Parkyns; the Report of the French Scientific Commission (1845); Contributions of MM. d'Abbadie to *Journ. Asiat.*, and of Beke and Kirk in *Journ. of Roy. Geogr. Soc.* See THEODORE in SUPPLEMENT.

ACA'CIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Mimoseæ*. The genus *A.* differs from *Mimosa* in the greater number of its stamens (10—200), and in the want of transverse partitions in its bivalvular legumes. The acacias are diffused over all quarters of the globe except Europe. The greater number of them have a singular appearance, because of the leaf-stalks spreading out in a leaf-like form (*phyllodium*); while the leaflets are more or less stunted in appearance, and frequently are altogether absent. Other species have bipinnate leaves, with a great number of leaflets, and are extremely beautiful. Many are of great importance in an economical point of view, because of the juice which flows from them, which, when inspissated, becomes an article of commerce under the name of Gum (q. v.). The species called *A. gummifera*, *A. Seyal*, *A. Ehrenbergii*, *A. tortilis*, *A. Nilotica*, and *A. vera*, natives of Africa, produce gum-arabic, also *A. speciosa*, and *A. Arabica*, natives of the south of Asia. *A. Arabica* is called the Babul-tree in India, and its gum, babul. A gum similar to gum-arabic is produced by *A. decurrens*, *A. mollissima* (the Silver Wattle), and *A. affinis* (the Black Wattle), in New Holland, and by *A. karroo*, at the Cape of Good Hope. Gum Senegal is the produce of *A. Verek*, and *A. Adansonii*, natives of the western coast of Africa. Yet *A. Verek* is also said to yield true white gum-arabic. Catechu (q. v.) is obtained from the wood of *A. catechu*. The astringent bark and pods of some species are used for tanning. The bark of *A. Arabica* is administered in India as a powerful tonic medicine. The pods of *A. concinna* form an article of commerce in India, its seeds being saponaceous and used in washing. A decoction of the pods of *A. Arabica* is sometimes used in the same way. A considerable number of species afford useful timber. The flowers of many species are fragrant. A number of species from New Holland and other countries have been introduced into the south of Europe. Some are of frequent occurrence in green-houses in Britain; and a few of the Australian species succeed tolerably in the open air in the south of England. The foliage of the acacias with bipinnate leaves shews a peculiar sensitiveness to changes of weather; when a thick cloud obscures the sun, the opposite leaflets close together, and so remain till the sun reappears. The Locust-tree of North America (*Robinia pseud-acacia*) is often called A. both in Britain and upon the continent of Europe. Other species of *Robinia* also receive the same name. See LOCUST-TREE and ROSE A. *Flores Acacia* (A. Flowers) is an old medical name for Sloe flowers.

Acacia Arabica (Gum-arabic Tree).

ACA'DEMY, a name originally applied to the philosophical school of Plato, and derived from the place in which that philosopher was accustomed to meet and converse with his pupils. This was a garden or grove in the suburbs of Athens, said to have once belonged to the hero Academus, and by him to have been presented to the citizens for a gymnasium. The spot is at this day known under the name of *Akadimia*. The variations of doctrine among the successors of Plato gave rise to the distinctive titles of *Old*, *Middle*, and *New A.* The first is applied to the philosophic teaching of Plato himself and his immediate followers; the second, to that modification of the Platonic philosophy taught by Arcesilaus (q.v.); and the third, to the half-sceptical school founded by Carneades (q. v.).

In its common English acceptation, the word academy is loosely applied to any species of school which professes to communicate more than the mere elements of instruction. This, however, though perhaps more in affinity with the original application of the term, must be regarded as an abuse of its more general and strict acceptation in modern usage, as signifying a society of savans or artists, established for the promotion of literature, science, or art. The first institution in ancient times that seems to merit the name, in this sense, of academy, was the celebrated *Museum* founded at Alexandria in the 3d century B.C. by Ptolemy Soter, which concentrated in that intellectual capital all that was most eminent in science, philosophy, poetry, and criticism. After this model, the Jews, and, at a later period, the Arabians, founded numerous institutions for the promotion of learning. During the middle ages, with the exception of the Moorish institutions at Granada and Cordova, in which poetry and music formed prominent subjects of study, we find nothing corresponding to the modern idea of an academy, save the learned society established in his own palace, at the suggestion of his teacher Alcuin, by Charlemagne. This association was dissolved by the monarch's death; and not till the middle of the

15th c., when the conquest of Constantinople drove many learned Greeks to seek an asylum in Italy, do we find any trace of a similar institution. Under the enlightened patronage of Lorenzo and Cosmo de' Medici, the lovers of Greek learning and philosophy were united in the bond of a common pursuit, and zealously laboured to revive the long extinguished light of classic literature. After the decline of the Greek and Platonic Academies of Florence, there arose institutions of a more comprehensive character, the example of which spread from Italy throughout all the states of Europe.

Academies may be divided into those established for general ends, and such as contemplate specific objects. The members are usually classified as *Ordinary*, *Honorary*, and *Corresponding*. The results of their labours in their various departments are reported at the periodic meetings, and printed in the records of the academy. Prizes are generally established as the rewards of distinguished merit in original discovery, or excellence in the treatment of subjects proposed for competition. Among general academies, deserving of mention in the first place is the *A. of Sciences*, at Paris, established by Colbert in 1666, and now entitled the *Institut de France* (see INSTITUT). The first scientific academy founded in modern times was the *Academia Secretorum Naturæ*, established at Naples in 1560, and afterwards put down by a papal interdict. It was succeeded by the A. of the *Lincei*, founded at Rome by Prince Ceci, which attained distinguished success. Galileo was one of its members. Subsequently arose the A. *del Cimento*, at Florence, and the A. *degl' Inquieti*, of Bologna, afterwards incorporated into the *Accad. della Tracca*, and finally, in 1711, merged in the Institute of Bologna, or Clementine A.—The *Berlin A. of Arts and Sciences*, founded in 1700 by Frederick I., was in 1710 divided into four sections: 1. Physics, Medicine, and Chemistry; 2. Mathematics, Astronomy, and Mechanics; 3. German Language and History; 4. Oriental Literature, in special connection with missions. The first president was Leibnitz, whose extraordinary versatility of genius qualified him for a leading place in all its departments. Under the Great Frederick, new life was infused into the academy by the encouragement offered to learned men of all countries to settle at Berlin. Maupertuis was now appointed president, and the academy was re-organised under the four classes of Physics, Mathematics, Philosophy, History and Philology. The public meetings are held twice a year. The transactions did not appear regularly till after 1811. They were formerly published in French, but now in German.—The *Imperial A. of Sciences of St Petersburg* was planned in 1724 by Peter the Great, with the advice of Leibnitz and Wolf. It was established in the following year by Catherine I., and liberally supported by the empress: fifteen members received pensions as professors of various branches. Of these were Wolf, Bülfinger, Nicolas and Daniel Bernouilli, and the two De Lisles. After various fluctuations, the academy attained a position of high eminence and utility under the patronage of Catherine II. Among the most important results of her liberality are the travels and researches of such men as Pallas and Klaproth. The academy is still composed of fifteen salaried members, besides a president and director, and four pensioned supernumeraries, who attend the meetings and succeed to the vacant chairs. It possesses an extensive library and a very valuable museum. The first series of its transactions (1725–47) bears the name of *Commentarii*; the second (1748–77), of *Novi Commentarii*; the third (1777–82), of *Acta*. Up to this date, they were written in Latin; thenceforth in Latin or French. From 1783 to 1795, they are called *Nova Acta*; from that time to the present they are entitled *Memoires*.—The *A. of Sciences at Stockholm*, founded in 1739, consisted at first of six members, one of whom was the celebrated Linnæus. It received a royal charter in 1741, but no endowment. Its publications, since 1779, are distinguished as *New Transactions*. Papers on agriculture are separately published, under the title of *Œconomica Acta*. In 1799, it was divided into six classes: 1. Political and Rural Economy, 15 members; 2. Commerce and Mechanical Arts, 15; 3. Swedish Physics and Natural History, 15; 4. Foreign Physics and Natural History, 15; 5. Mathematics, 18; 6. History, Philology, and Fine Arts, 12. The resident members preside in rotation, during a term of three months: the transactions appear quarterly. At the annual meeting in April, prizes are distributed.—The *Royal A. of Sciences at Copenhagen* owes its origin, like the last mentioned, to six learned men, employed by Christian VI. in 1742 to arrange his cabinet of medals. In 1743, the king, on the recommendation of Count Holstein, their first president, took the academy under his protection, endowed it, and ordered that natural history, physics, and mathematics should be embraced within the sphere of its operations, at first limited to the national history and antiquities. The academy's transactions are in Danish; some of them are translated into Latin.—The *A. of Sciences of Mannheim* was founded in 1755 by the Elector-palatine Karl Theodor, and divided into the sections of history and physical science; the latter was subdivided in 1780 into physics proper and meteorology. The transactions under the two former heads are published under the title of *Acta*; the meteorological memoirs are entitled *Ephemerides*.—The *A. of Sciences of Munich* was founded in 1759. Soon after the erection of Bavaria into a kingdom, it was reorganised on a very extensive footing, under the presidency of Jacobi. Its memoirs are published under the title of *Abhandlungen der Baierischen Akademie*.—The *A. of Lisbon*, established by Queen Maria in 1779, numbers 60 members; viz., 24 ordinary, and 36 honorary and foreign; and is divided into three sections: 1. Natural Science; 2. Mathematics; 3. Portuguese Literature. It is liberally endowed by government, and has a library, museum, observatory, and printing-office. Its *Memorias* have appeared since 1787.—The *Royal Irish A.* dates its origin from 1782, when a number of gentlemen, chiefly connected with the university of Dublin, associated themselves for the pursuit of science, history, and literature. The plan of the society was afterwards extended. The first volume of its transactions appeared in 1788.—The *American A. of Arts and Sciences* was established at Boston in 1780: it had previously existed in another form, the original institution being due to Franklin. The first volume of its transactions was published in 1785.—The *A. of Sciences at Vienna* was founded in 1846. It is divided into the sections of History and Philology; Mathematics and Natural Science; Philosophy, Political Economy, and Medicine. It published *Reports* of its meetings since 1848, and since 1850, *Memoirs*.

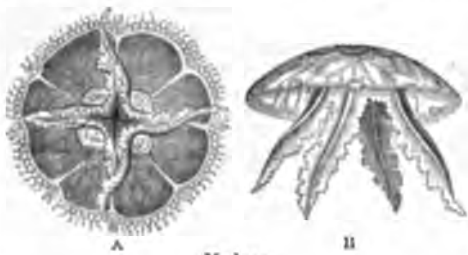
Among the academies established for the cultivation of particular departments of knowledge, are the following:—1. LANGUAGES. The *Academia della Crusca*, or *Academia Furfuratorum* was founded at Florence in 1582, chiefly for the purpose of promoting the purity of the Italian language; whence its somewhat fantastic designation—*crusca* signifying chaff or bran. It first drew attention by its attacks on Tasso. Its principal service has been the compilation

of an excellent dictionary, and the publication of correct editions of the older Italian poets. A new edition of this dictionary is at present in preparation, but from the slow rate of its progress, it is calculated that many centuries must elapse before its completion. For an account of the *Académie Française*, instituted in 1629, as a private society, see INSTITUT. The *Royal Spanish A.* was founded at Madrid in 1714, by the Duke of Escalona, for the cultivation and improvement of the national language, in which it has done good service particularly by the compilation of a Spanish dictionary. A similar institution was founded at St Petersburg in 1783, and afterwards united to the Imperial A. At Stockholm, a similar academy was established in 1786; and at Pesth (for the cultivation of the Magyar language) in 1830.—2. ARCHÆOLOGY. At the head of antiquarian institutions stands the *Académie des Inscriptions*, founded at Paris in 1663, by Colbert. See INSTITUT. For the elucidation of northern languages and antiquities, an academy was founded in 1710 at Upsala, in Sweden; a similar institution was established at Cortona, in Italy, in 1727. Both have issued valuable works. The *A. of Herculaneum* was founded at Naples in 1755, by the Marquis of Tanucci, for the elucidation of Herculanean and Pompeian antiquities. Its publications, commencing in 1775, bear the title of *Antichità di Ercolano*. An academy for the investigation of Tuscan antiquities was established at Florence in 1807; and at Paris, in 1805, a Celtic A. for the elucidation of the language, history, and antiquities of the Celts, especially in France. This society changed its name, in 1814, to *Société des Antiquaires de France*.—3. HISTORY. The *Royal A. of Portuguese History* was founded at Lisbon, in 1720, by John V. At Madrid, in 1730, a learned association was formed for the elucidation of Spanish history. It was constituted an academy in 1738, by Philip V. It has published editions of Mariana, Sepulveda, Solis, and the ancient Castilian chronicles, some of which had never before been printed. A historical academy has existed for some time at Tübingen.—4. MEDICINE. The *Academia Naturæ Curiosorum* was established at Vienna, in 1652, by the physician Bauschius, for the investigation of remarkable phenomena in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms. In honour of Leopold I., who patronised it liberally, it took the additional name of *Cæsareo-Leopoldina*; and, since 1808, has had its chief seat at Bonn. Its valuable memoirs have appeared at irregular intervals under the title of *Miscellanea*, *Ephemerides*, and *Acta*. The *Académie Impériale de Médecine* of Paris, was founded in 1820, for the prosecution of researches into all matters connected with the public health, such as epidemics, &c. The Surgical A. of Paris (whose functions have partly descended to the preceding) was founded in 1731. It was dissolved during the troubles of the first revolution. The Vienna A. of Surgery, established in 1783, is, properly speaking, a college.—5. FINE ARTS. The academies of painting and sculpture of St Petersburg (connected with the Imperial A.) and Paris, are institutions for the education of pupils. The French *Académie des Beaux Arts* is a branch of the Institut (q. v.). The *Royal A. of Arts* in London was founded in 1768, for the promotion of the arts of design, painting, sculpture, &c. The number of academicians is 40. Connected with it is a school, with professors selected from among the academicians. The annual exhibition of the academy is open to all artists of merit. The *Royal Scottish A.* of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, was founded at Edinburgh in 1825, and received a royal charter in 1838. The number of academicians is 15; the general plan of the institution is similar to that of the London A. Similar to these also is the *Royal Hibernian A.* incorporated at Dublin in 1803. Numerous academies of the fine arts have been established in Italy—at Rome, Milan, Turin, Florence, Mantua, and Modena; as also at Madrid, Vienna, and Stockholm.

Many learned Societies differ from Academies only in name; such are The Royal Society of London, The British Association, The Washington Smithsonian Institution, &c., &c. See SOCIETIES.

ACADIE. See NOVA SCOTIA.

ACALE'PHÆ (Gr. signifying nettles), one of the classes of the Radiata or Radiated Animals, in the system of Cuvier. They are commonly known by such names as *Jelly-fish*, *Sea-blubber*, &c., and are sometimes called *Sea-nettles*, on account of the stinging power which many of them possess. Most of them were included in the Linnæan genus *Medusa*, and the name *Medusæ* is still very frequently applied to them. They are all inhabitants of the ocean, in which they swim or float singly and freely. They abound in all parts of it, although some are tropical, and others belong to high latitudes. Some of them are of a large size, reaching to two feet in diameter, others are very small, and the phosphorescence of the sea is caused by multitudes of minute A. They consist of an extremely soft gelatinous tissue, which in most of them, and in all the true Medusæ, is unsupported by any harder substance. The quantity of solid matter even in a large Medusa



A B

Medusa.

A, under surface, shewing the mouth in the centre, surrounded by the tentacula, and the ovarial chambers exterior to the origins of these; B, side-view, shewing the tentacula hanging down in their natural position.

is very small, and the appearance of muscular fibre can only be detected by a microscope near the margin of the disk or umbrella-like body, which in most of the genera constitutes the principal part of the animal, by alternate contractions and expansions of which it moves in the water, and on the under side of which is its mouth. The margin of the disk is generally provided with tentacular appendages, which are of very various forms, often thread-like, sometimes foliaceous; and many have also tentacular appendages, presenting a similar variety of form, but often much larger in proportion, connected with the mouth, or attached to a proboscidean prolongation of it. There is no appearance of teeth. From the gastric cavity, a system of vessels proceeds through the body. No appearance of blood has been detected; nor is it certain that the A. possess any of the senses except that of touch; the nature of the organs sometimes called eyes or *ocelli* being by no means satisfactorily determined. These organs are situated on the margin, and in some are protected by membranous hoods or coverings; in others, are unprotected; those which have them protected, having also a much ramified and anastomosing system of vessels; the others, an extremely simple vascular system. The A. feed on

small marine animals, often of much higher organisation than themselves. Small fishes are amongst the prey of the large Medusæ. In the class A., as at present constituted, there are included animals differing much from the typical form and characters, as the genera *Beröe*, *Cestum*, &c., having two orifices to the alimentary canal; and others, as *Physalia* (the *Portuguese Man-of-war*), in which

Beröe.

a a, tentacula; *b*, mouth; *c*, termination of intestine.

Physalia.

there is no proper mouth, but the food is conveyed to the digestive cavity through a number of flask-like appendages, which hang down beneath, each having an orifice and a sort of sucker. The stinging power seems to be used to benumb the prey. Reproduction takes place in the A. both by means of ova and by germination. The organs of the two sexes appear generally to exist in each individual. The young Medusæ differ very much in appearance from the mature animal, and in the process of their development, assume forms resembling those of hydraform polypes, and like them are attached by the base; whilst a still more wonderful fact has been discovered of the formation of a number of Medusæ from a single polype-like individual of this kind, which become detached, and swim off in the water.—The A. have of late been diligently studied by a number of eminent naturalists, of whom may be mentioned Eschscholtz, De Blainville, Sars of Norway, and the late Professor E. Forbes.

ACANTHOPTERY'GII, in Zoology, one of the two primary divisions of the *Osseous Fishes* in the system of Cuvier, distinguished by having spinous rays in the first portion of the dorsal

Perch.

fin, or in the first dorsal, if there are two. The name is derived from the Greek *akantha*, a thorn, and *pteryx*, a wing. The A. are divided by Cuvier into fifteen families, amongst which are *Percidæ* (Perch, Bass, &c.), *Triglidæ* (Gurnard, Flying-fish, &c.), and *Scomberidæ* (Mackerel, Tunny, &c.).

ACA'NTHUS, the name given by the Greeks and Romans to the plants sometimes called Brancursine, of which it is also the botanical generic name. *A. mollis* and *A. spinosa*, natives of the south of Europe, are the species best known. The twining habit of the plants, their large white flowers, and, above all,

A. spinosus, natural. Ornamental A. Leaf.

the beautiful form of their dark and shining leaves, have led to their artistical application, especially in the capitals of Corinthian columns. See ORDERS OF ARCHITECTURE. Roman drinking-cups have been found whose handles are twined with A. leaves.—The ancients made the *A. mollis* chiefly their pattern; but in Gothic ornaments, more use is made of the smaller and less beautiful leaves of *A. spinosa*.

The genus A. is the type of the natural order ACANTHACEÆ, which contains nearly 1400 known species. They are herbaceous plants or shrubs, chiefly tropical; dicotyledonous. The greater part are mere weeds, but the genera *Justicia*, *Aphelandra*, and *Ruellia* contain some of our finest hot-house flowers. The leaves are opposite, rarely in fours, simple; two or three bracts, which are often large and leafy, accompany each flower. The calyx is persistent, usually 5-leaved, occasionally cut into many pieces, sometimes obsolete. The corolla is monopetalous, hypogynous, usually irregular, deciduous. The stamens are generally two; sometimes four, didynamous, the shorter ones sometimes sterile; the anthers 1-2-celled, opening lengthwise. The disk is glandular; the ovary free, 2-celled, with two or more ovules in each cell; placentæ adhering in the axis; style one. The fruit is a capsule bursting elastically with two valves, the dissepiment also separating into two pieces through the axis. The seeds are roundish, hanging by hard, usually hooked processes of the placenta; testa loose; albumen wanting; embryo curved or straight; cotyledons large; radicle subcylindrical, next the hilum.—Some of the *Acanthaceæ* are used in their native countries as medicines. A valuable deep-blue dye, called Room, is obtained in Assam from a species of *Ruellia*.

ACAPU'LCO, the best harbour belonging to Mexico in the Pacific, and a place of considerable commercial importance; situated in lat. 16° 50′ N.; long. 99° 48′ W. The harbour is so well sheltered that deeply laden vessels may lie safely at anchor close to the granite rocks. The town, defended by Fort Diego, on an eminence, has a very unhealthy site, and is one of the places most frequently visited by cholera, which proves especially fatal to new settlers. The population is composed of pearl-fishers, sailors, and husbandmen. The chief exports are cochineal, indigo, cocoa, wool, and skins; the imports are cottons, silks, spices, and hardware. Pop. above 3000.

ACARNA'NIA, a country of ancient Greece, separated from Epirus on the north by the Ambracian Gulf, now the Gulf of Arta; from Ætolia on the east by the river Achelöus; and washed south and west by the Ionian Sea. Along with Ætolia, it forms one of the *nomes* or departments of the modern

kingdom of Greece. The western part of A.—from the mouth of the Achelóus or Aspropotamo to Cape Actium in the north-west—is occupied by a mass of rocky and thickly-wooded mountains, rising abruptly from the indented coast, and culminating in the summit of Berganti. A considerable part of A. is overgrown with wood—a rare feature in modern Greece. There is no town of importance in the whole district, though naturally it is not destitute of resources.

A'CARUS, a genus of *Arachnides* (q. v.), of the order *Trachearia*, the type of a tribe called *Acarides*, which corresponds with the genus Acarus as defined by Linnæus. The species of the Acarides are very numerous. All of them are small; many microscopical. Some are familiar to us under the names of Mites (q. v.), Ticks (q. v.), &c. Some live upon the juices of plants; some in the dung of animals; many species are found in the vegetable and animal substances used for human food, especially when these have been kept for a considerable time, as in cheese, flour, sugar, on the surface of preserves, of dried fruits, &c.; others are parasites upon the bodies of animals, particularly in diseased conditions, as in cases of itch. A minute species has been detected in the follicles of the human skin, and others even in the human brain and eyes. Some insects, particularly beetles, are often covered with Acarides. A species (*Trombidium holosericeum*) common in gardens in spring, is remarkable for its blood-red colour; and a nearly allied but much larger species (*T. tinctorum*), found in the East Indies, yields a fine dye. A Persian species (*Argas Persicus*) is poisonous, and causes sores. The bite of many species is annoying, as of the common Harvest-bug (*Leptus autumnalis*). The Acarides have eyes. Some of them have the mouth furnished with mandibles, others with a sucker. They are oviparous, and extremely prolific. They have generally eight legs; but, when young, many of them have only six, and in some genera the additional pair seems never to be acquired. A few are aquatic, and have legs covered with hairs to adapt them for swimming.

Acarus (Mite).

ACATHISTUS, a hymn sung in the ancient Greek Church in honour of the Virgin.

ACCELERA'NDO (Ital.), in Music, with gradually increasing velocity of movement.

ACCELERATED MOTION, in mechanics, is motion in which the velocity is continually increasing. When the increments of velocity are equal in equal times, the motion is said to be *uniformly* accelerated. The best example of such a motion is that of a falling body. It is found that near the earth's surface a body, descending from a state of rest, falls $16\frac{1}{12}$ feet in the first second. Now, a little consideration will shew that at the end of the first second, it is moving at the rate of $32\frac{2}{12}$ feet per second. For, since the velocity was nothing at first and increased uniformly, $16\frac{1}{12}$ feet must have been the *mean* velocity, i. e., the velocity at the middle of the time; and therefore the velocity at the end must be double, or $32\frac{2}{12}$ feet: $32\frac{1}{6}$ feet is thus the measure of the accelerative force of gravity. At the end of the second and third seconds, the velocity is found to be doubled, trebled, &c., or $64\frac{1}{3}$, $96\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

ACCELERATION OF THE MOON. It was first observed by Halley, that the time of the moon's revolution round the earth has for several thousand years been decreasing, or her velocity has been increasing. This phenomenon remained for a considerable time inexplicable; at last, Laplace, in 1787, discovered the cause in the varying eccentricity of the earth's orbit, which has been on the decrease since about 12,000 years B.C. Since that time, the moon has been gradually coming nearer to the earth; and this will go on till 36,900 after Christ, when the eccentricity of the earth's orbit will begin again to increase.—ACCELERATION OF THE FIXED STARS is the excess of a mean solar day over a sidereal day; i. e., a day measured by the transits of a star over the meridian; the excess is about 3′ 56¼″ sidereal time.

A'CCENT, in Grammar, is a special stress of voice laid upon one syllable of a word, by which it is made more prominent than the rest; the accented syllable is sometimes indicated by a mark, as *awa'y*, *fo'rtify*. Every word in English has one syllable thus brought markedly into notice. When the accented syllable falls near the end of a long word, there may be one or more secondary accents, as in *re'comme'nd*, *subo'rdina"tion*. A. depends upon force of vocal or articulative effort, not upon highness or lowness of pitch. Variations of pitch produce what elocutionists call *inflection*. It is the confounding of A. with a rise of tone, and the contrasting of it with a sinking of tone, that has produced so much confusion on this subject, especially as regards the accents of the ancients. In English, many nouns are converted into verbs simply by transposing the A., as *o'bject—obje'ct*. It is A., and not quantity, that determines English measures or metres in versification. No rule can be given as to what syllable of a word shall be accented. There seems to be an increasing tendency in our language to throw the A. towards the beginning of words. In the Finnish language, the A. is said to be invariably on the first syllable.—*Emphasis* is to sentences what A. is to words; it is a stress laid upon one word of a sentence to make it prominent. If A. is syllabic emphasis, emphasis is logical A.

A'CCENT, in Music, is analogous with A. in language. It consists of a stress or emphasis given to certain notes or parts of bars in a composition, and may be divided into two kinds—grammatical, and rhetorical or æsthetic. The first kind of A. is perfectly regular in its occurrence—always falling on the first part of a bar. It is true that long or compound measures of time have, besides the chief A. in every bar, some subordinate accents; but these are only slightly marked. As a general rule, we may observe, that the grammatical or regular A. must not be exaggerated. It should be marked only so far as to give a clear sense of rhythm. The æsthetical A. is irregular, and depends on taste and feeling, exactly as does the A. and emphasis used in oratory. In vocal music well adapted to words, the words serve as a guide to the right use of æsthetical accents.

ACCE'PTANCE is the act whereby the drawee engages to pay a bill according to the terms of the A. It may be said to consist in the drawee writing the word 'accepted' on the bill and subscribing his name; or writing, as has been decided in England, the word 'accepted' only (although it is not so in Scotland, where the act of A. must be shewn by the actual signature of the acceptor); or merely subscribing his name at the bottom or across the bill. But there are other and various forms of A., in England and Scotland, as to which, and generally, see BILL OF EXCHANGE. In common parlance, the accepted bill is called *an A.*, and the drawee, or party who engages to pay the bill, is called the *acceptor*.

A. is also a term in the ...tch law of contracts. A mutual contract may

be completed by A. The offer is viewed as an obligation provisional on the A., but may, before A., be recalled, on condition of making reparation for any loss fairly occasioned by the offer. The offer may be verbal, by letter, or even tacit, as when goods are sent without an order, or contrary to order, in which case, acquiescence is A. The A. may be either tacit or express. The word is not a technical one in the law of England, but the matter to which it relates in that system will be found under CONTRACT.

A'CCESSARY or ACCESSORY. In the criminal law of England, an A. is a person who is not the chief actor in a felony, nor even present at its perpetration, but who is in some way concerned, either *before* or *after* the fact committed. An A. *before* the fact is one who procures or counsels another to commit a crime, he himself being absent. An A. *after* the fact is a person who, knowing a felony to have been committed, receives, protects, or assists the felon. In sudden and unpremeditated offences, there can be no accessaries *before* the fact; and in all crimes under the degree of *felony* there are no accessaries at all, either before or after the fact, but all persons concerned therein are held to be equally guilty as principals.

There are no accessaries in treason, but all are principals, on account of the heinousness of the crime.

In the Scotch law, 'art and part' in the indictment, or formal accusation, is the phrase by which accession to a crime is signified; and it applies to all offences against the criminal law, there being, according to the practice of the Scotch courts, no distinction in this respect between felonies, properly so called, and misdemeanours.

ACCESSORY ACTIONS, in the practice of the Scotch law, are those which are, in some degree, subservient or ancillary to other actions. For example, actions for reviving a cause, or prosecuting it against the heir of a deceased defendant, or for restoring lost deeds or other documents, are of the nature of A. A.

ACCESSORY OBLIGATION is a technical term in the Scotch law signifying an obligation annexed to another obligation which is antecedent or primary. Thus, an obligation for the regular payment of interest, or by way of further security, is an A. O.

ACCE'SSION. In the law both of England and Scotland, property may be acquired by A., and this A. may be either natural or artificial. The young of cattle and other animals, for example, belong to the person who is the owner of the mother, and the fruits and produce of the earth to the proprietor of the soil; and for the same reason, the gradual addition to lands on the bank of a river belongs to the proprietor of the land receiving the addition. These are instances of *natural* A. Property, again, is said to be acquired by *artificial* A. when it is the result of human industry; thus trees planted, or buildings erected, on the ground of another, belong to the owner of the ground itself, and not to the planter or builder; and so with regard to the conversion of wood or metal, which, in whatever form, remain the property of the original owner.

ACCESSION TO THE THRONE signifies the commencement of the sovereign's reign.

ACCESSION, Deed of. In the practice of Scotch conveyancing, this is a deed by which the creditors of a bankrupt or insolvent debtor approve of a trust-settlement executed by the debtor for the general behoof, and consent to the arrangement proposed. The corresponding deed in English practice is a deed of trust for creditors, or, under the Bankrupt Law Consolidation Act, 12 and 13 Vict. c. 106, a deed of arrangement for creditors.

ACCIDENTAL COLOURS. See LIGHT.

A'CCIDENTS, in Mus., occasional sharps, flats, and naturals placed before notes in the course of a piece.

ACCIDENTS, in Log., are opposed to Essentials, or to Substance. An Accident is a property of an object which may be modified, or even be altogether abstracted, without the object ceasing to be essentially what it is. But many of the distinctions made by the older philosophers between accidental and essential are fallacious.

ACCI'PITRES (plural of the Lat. *accipiter*, a hawk), the name given by Linnæus to an order of Birds, including, according to his system, the genera *Vultur* (Vultures), *Falco* (Eagles, Falcons, Hawks,

Head and Foot of Golden Eagle.

&c.), *Strix* (Owls), and *Lanius* (Shrikes), and principally distinguished by a hooked bill, short strong feet, and sharp hooked claws. The name has not generally been adopted by subsequent ornithologists, but the order, as a truly natural one, has been retained under the names *Rapaces*, *Raptores*, &c.; the Shrikes, however, being generally excluded from it.

ACCLI'MATISE, to accustom an animal or plant to a climate not natural to it. The process, of course, varies widely, according to the amount of difference between the old and the new climate. In cases where the difference is extreme, important changes take place in the constitution, and are often attended with certain diseases described as 'diseases of acclimatisation.' Thus, Europeans settling in tropical parts, are liable to disease of the liver, while natives of tropical lands, when resident in England, are exposed to pulmonary disease. The power of bearing changes of climate is greatest in the Anglo-German race, and usually bears a direct ratio to the intellectuality of a race. Civilised people display greater ingenuity and strength of will than savages in accommodating themselves to changes of climate, by making careful corresponding changes in their mode of life. Ulloa and Humboldt assert that persons of and above middle age best stand transportation to tropical climates. Among animals, we find great powers of adaptation to various climates in the horse, dog, cat, rat, &c.; and among plants, in the various cereals, in potatoes, and several weeds common to almost all climates; but there seems to be a limit to the power, at least as seen in the individual. To A. beyond a certain point is the work of some few generations. Almost all the domestic animals now commonly spread over Europe, and even in high northern latitudes, were originally natives of warm climates. The change produced by the acclimatising of animals may be either an improvement or a deterioration; of the latter, we have an instance in the Shetland

pony; of the former, we see an example in the merino sheep of Spain. As an instance of want of the faculty of being acclimatised, the reindeer may serve. Removed from the cold north to the fertile valleys of a temperate clime, the reindeer degenerates and dies. On the other hand, the horse, whose native land is the East, arrives at its highest development in England; and the Syrian sheep, brought northwards as far as Spain, becomes remarkable for its fine fleece. Spain, on the whole, has a climate much warmer than that of Silesia and Pomerania; and yet the merino sheep, bred in these countries, have become superior to their ancestors imported from Spain. This is a proof that art may do very much in modifying the influences of climate. Silk-worms, brought from China first into Italy, have been acclimatised not only in the south of France, but even on the coast of the Baltic. Recently, attempts have been made to A. in France the llama, the vicugna, and the alpaca of Peru, and with some success in the last instance, as alpacas have been found to thrive pretty well in the Pyrenees. It has been very generally believed that plants may become gradually inured to a climate so different from that to which they have been accustomed, that if they had been at once transferred to it, they would have perished; and that their adaptation to it becomes more perfect when successive generations are raised by seed. On the other hand, it is maintained by some of the most distinguished botanists of the present time, that each species of plant has certain limits of temperature within which it will succeed, and that alleged instances of acclimatising have been merely instances of plants formerly supposed to be more delicate than they really were. But as it is certain that different varieties of the same species are often more and less hardy, it would seem that in the production of new varieties by seed, there is still a prospect of the acclimatising, to a certain extent, of species of which the existing varieties are too delicate to grow well in the open air.

ACCOLADE, the term applied to the ceremony with which a knight was admitted into the order of chivalry. The grand-master, in receiving the neophyte, embraced him by folding the arms round the neck (*ad collum*).—In music, the A. is the couplet uniting several staves, as in part-music or pianoforte-music.

ACCO'MPANIMENT, in Music, is the assisting or aiding of a solo part by other parts, which may consist of a whole orchestra, or a single instrument, or even subservient vocal parts. It serves to elevate and beautify the solo part, and is subject to certain rules for composition as well as for performance. It must be subservient, and therefore should not predominate, but merely assist to place the solo part in its brightest light. In this point of view, modern composers have often erred by making the A. too full, and causing it to stand out so independent and engrossing, that the solo part is often, as it were, entirely lost. This abuse takes place mostly in vocal music; and not only is the effect destroyed, but the vocal organ of the singer is frequently ruined. Were it not too true that this bad practice has become the fashion, it would be difficult to believe that a composer would lend himself to it. In proper A., after faithfully fulfilling its duty to the solo part, there always remains opportunity enough for display in the ritornells and symphonies. The Italians in their best period were celebrated for the simplicity and effectiveness of their A. Now, they have entirely lost this claim. In A., the composer must keep three principal points in view—namely, harmony, rhythmical figure, and suitable choice of instrumentation, in respect to number and character of tone; but all must be subservient to the ruling character of the solo part. Right or proper harmony is, or should be, easily found by every experienced composer. It is, as it were, born at the same time with the melody, and only requires to be here and there adjusted with care. When this is not the case, there arises a double character, which interrupts and totally destroys the melody. The figure of the A. should be chosen so as to be conformable to the solo part, having to express what the solo part cannot be expected to do, and may also, by a succession of secondary ideas, render clear and certain the individuality of the principal solo part, such as the blustering of the poltroon, the daring of the courageous, or the fear of the timid. The necessity of a judicious choice of instrumentation for the proper support of the solo part is evident. The A. should, above all things, by its certainty and firmness, prevent wavering. Good A. is as creditable as solo playing; and all qualified orchestras view it as of great importance.—The word also means the art of playing harmony from a figured bass; this, though more in use formerly, is still a necessary study for the A. of recitative. See FIGURED BASS.

ACCO'RDION, a simple musical instrument, but little better than a toy, which produces its tones by the vibration of metallic tongues of various sizes, while wind is supplied by the action of bellows. The *concertina* and the *harmonium* are superior instruments, constructed on the same principle—the action of a gust of air on metallic tongues.

ACCUM, FREDERICK, a native of Westphalia, came to London in 1803. He is known in this country chiefly on account of his work, *A Practical Treatise on Gas-light*, which had the effect of introducing that method of illumination into London and all the large towns of England. It was translated into several languages, and became very popular. Subsequently, he wrote a book upon practical chemistry, which was well received, and one on the adulteration of food. Ultimately he became professor in an institution in Berlin, where he died, 28th June 1838.

ACCUSATIVE CASE. See DECLENSION.

ACE'PHALA. See MOLLUSCA.

A'CER and ACERACEÆ. See MAPLE.

ACE'TIC ACID, the sour principle in vinegar, is the most common of the vegetable acids. If alcohol, diluted with water, be mixed with a ferment, such as yeast, and exposed to the air at, or a little above, its ordinary temperature, it is rapidly converted into vinegar or A. A. The change is accompanied by the absorption of oxygen, 2 atoms of which combine with as many of hydrogen to form water, whilst other 2 take the place of the hydrogen which has become water, so that A. A. is produced from alcohol by the substitution of 2 atoms of oxygen for 2 of hydrogen. Thus alcohol is $C_4H_6O_2$. If we take from this 2 atoms of hydrogen, and add 2 of oxygen, it becomes $C_4H_4O_4$. But from the mode in which A. A. acts when it combines with bases, it is certain that one of the equivalents of hydrogen and one of oxygen are united as water, so that the formula of A. A. is $C_4H_3O_3 + HO$. A striking experiment may be made illustrating the mode in which alcohol is converted into A. A. If slightly diluted alcohol be dropped upon *platinum-black*, the oxygen condensed in that substance acts with great energy on the spirit and A. A. is evolved in vapour. Here the whole [illegible] of the platinum is to determine the oxygen of the [illegible] and the hydrogen of the alcohol to unite. In the [illegible] ficial processes

for manufacturing vinegar, some vegetable substance containing nitrogen (one of the albuminous principles) takes the place of the platinum-black, and determines the same change. A. A. is not known in the anhydrous form. In its most concentrated state it contains an equivalent of water, $C_4H_3O_3 + HO$. When it combines with metallic oxides, they take the place of the water; acetate of soda, for example, consisting of anhydrous soda and anhydrous A. A., $NaO,C_4H_3O_3$. The salts of A. A., called A'CETATES, are numerous and important in the arts. The most important is acetate or sugar of lead. See LEAD. For the commercial processes of manufacturing A. A., see VINEGAR.

ACHA'IA, a small district in the north of the Peloponnesus, was divided into twelve little states; and was bounded E. by the Saronic Gulf; N. and W. by the Bay of Corinth; and S. by Arcadia and Elis. The land, rising gradually from the coast to the hills of the interior, was famed, in ancient times, for fertility in the produce of oil, wine, and fruits. When the Romans divided the whole of Greece into Macedonia and A., the latter included all Greece excepting Thessaly. In the modern kingdom of Greece, A. forms, along with Elis, a *nome* or department, in the extreme north-west of the Morea, and its chief town is Patras (q. v.). Excepting the west coast, the land is fertile, and produces corn, wine, and oil.—The ancient Achæans were, in a great measure, separated from the other people of Greece. Their twelve little towns, of which Ægium was the chief, formed a confederacy which was dissolved in the Macedonian times; but was renewed in 280 B.C., and subsequently extended itself, under the name of the *Achæan League*, throughout Greece, until 146 B.C., when Grecian liberty fell under the power of Rome.

ACHARD, FRANZ KARL, a meritorious naturalist and chemist, born April 28, 1754, in Berlin, chiefly distinguished himself by his improvements in the process of preparing sugar from beet-root. In these labours he was supported by the king of Prussia. The results of his experiments were acknowledged as partly successful in 1799 and 1800; but were not carried into extensive application until the king gave to A. a farm in Lower Lusatia, where he founded a model manufactory of beet-root sugar. Here, after six years of experiments, conducted with the aid of Neubeck, a medical man, A. found out the true method of extracting beet-sugar; and in 1812, when the factory had become a very profitable investment, the king annexed to it a school for teaching the process of manufacture. A. was called to Berlin as director of the physical class in the Academy of Sciences, and died April 20, 1821. He wrote, among other similar essays, one on the *European Manufacture of Sugar from Beet* (Leip. 1809).

ACHELO'US, now called ASPROPOTAMO (i. e., White River, from the cream-colour of its waters), the largest river in Greece, rises in Mount Pindus, flows through the land of the Dolopians, divides Ætolia from Acarnania, and falls into the Ionian Sea. The extensive alluvial deposits at the mouth of this river have been observed from ancient times. It is said that the banks of the A. were anciently the haunt of lions.

ACHE'NIUM, ACHŒNIUM, or AKENIUM, a term now very frequently employed by botanists, to designate a dry, hard, one-seeded, indehiscent fruit, in which the integuments of the seed are closely applied to it, but distinct from it. Such are what are popularly called the *seeds* of borage, and other plants of the same natural order. They were termed nuts by Linnæus. Sometimes the achenia are aggregated upon a common receptacle, forming what is called an *etaerio*, as in the ranunculus, in which they are placed upon a dry receptacle, or in the strawberry, in which the receptacle is fleshy. Sometimes the aggregated achenia are enclosed within the fleshy tube of the calyx, as in the rose. The fruit of the *Compositæ* is also sometimes called an A.; but a different appellation (*cypsela*) has been given to it, because the tube of the calyx coheres with the fruit, the name A. being limited to *superior* fruits.

A'CHERON, the name given to several rivers by the ancients, always with reference to some peculiarity, such as black or bitter waters, or mephitic gases. The A. in Thesprotia, which flows through the lake Acherusia, and pours itself into the Ionian Sea; another river of the same name in Elis, now called Sacuto; and several streams in Egypt, were supposed to have some communication with the infernal world. According to Pausanias, Homer borrowed from the river in Thesprotia the name of his infernal A., which the later poets surrounded with many imaginary horrors. Other lakes besides that above mentioned, bore the name of Acherusia; e. g., the lake near Hermione in Argolis.

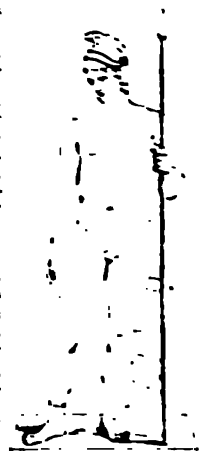
A'-CHEVA'L POSITION. When troops are arranged so that a river or highway passes through the centre and forms a perpendicular to the front, they are said to be drawn up in A. P. Wellington's army at Waterloo was *à-cheval* on the road from Charleroi to Brussels. In cases where a river forms the perpendicular to the front, secure possession of a bridge is necessary; otherwise one-half of the troops might be routed, while the remainder stood idly as spectators.

A'CHILL, or 'Eagle' Isle, off the west coast of Ireland, is reckoned within the county of Mayo. It is 15¼ miles long by 12¼ miles broad, and has a very irregular coast-line, though its general shape is almost that of a right-angled triangle. It has a wild and desolate appearance; most of the surface is boggy; of the 35,000 acres which the island contains, not half a thousand are cultivated. There are three villages in A., and a number of hovels or huts scattered over its barren moors, sometimes in small clusters, forming hamlets, but so wretched as hardly to be fit for beasts. A. rises towards the north and west coast, where the mountains attain an elevation of 2000 feet. One of them, composed, like the rest of the island, wholly of mica-slate, presents, towards the sea, a sheer precipice from its peak to its base, a height of 2206 feet. There is a mission-station in the island, which forms an exception to the general wretchedness of the houses. It possesses, amongst other agencies of civilisation, a printing-press. The population is decreasing, from emigration and other causes: in 1841, it amounted to 5000; it is now under 4000.

ACHILLÆ'A, a genus of plants of the natural order *Compositæ* (q. v.), having small flowers (heads of flowers) disposed in corymbs, and the receptacle covered with chaffy scales (small bractes). The florets of the ray are female, and have a short, roundish tongue or lip; the florets of the disk are hermaphrodite, the tube of the corolla flatly compressed and two-winged; the involucre is imbricated. —The common YARROW or MILFOIL (*A. millefolium*) abounds in all parts of Europe and in some parts of North America—into which, however, it has perhaps been carried from Europe—growing in meadows, pastures, &c. It is about a foot in height: its leaves bipinnate, the pinnæ deeply divided, the segments narrow and crowded. It has white or rose-coloured flowers. The leaves have a bitterish aromatic,

somewhat austere taste, and little smell: the flowers have a strong aromatic smell, with an aromatic bitter taste, and contain an essential oil, a resin, bitter extractive, gum, several salts, and traces of sulphur. Both leaves and flowers are used in medicine as a powerful stimulant and tonic. The leaves were formerly much used for healing wounds, and are still so employed by the common people in the Highlands of Scotland and in some parts of the continent. The expressed juice is a popular spring medicine in Germany. Yarrow is often sown mixed with grasses intended to form permanent pasture for sheep; and *A. moschata*, sometimes called MUSK MILFOIL, is cultivated as food for cattle in Switzerland. *A. moschata*, *A. atrata*, and *A. nana*—all natives of the Alps—are very aromatic, and bear the name of GENIPI or GENEPI. The inhabitants of the Alps value them very highly, and use them for making what is called *Swiss Tea*. They are very stimulating and tonic: as are also *A. ptarmica*, and *A. nobilis*, both natives of Switzerland and other middle parts of Europe, and *A. species*, a native of the south of Europe, used by the French as a vulnerary, and called *Herbe au Charpentier*.—SNEEZEWORT (*A. Ptarmica*) is a native of Britain and other parts of Europe, 1—3 feet high, with lanceolate leaves, and much larger flowers than the common Milfoil. It grows in meadows and damp places. The root, which is aromatic, is used as a substitute for *Pellitory of Spain* (q. v.), and the whole plant is pungent and provokes a flow of saliva.

ACHILLES, the hero of Homer's *Iliad*, was the son of King Peleus and Thetis, a sea-goddess, belonging to a line descended from Jove. Of his life before the Trojan war, and of his death after the fall of Troy, the poets after Homer first profess to give accounts. We are told that he was dipped in the river Styx by his mother, and was thus made invulnerable, except in the heel, by which he was held during the process; hence 'the heel of A.' became a proverbial phrase to denote any vulnerable point in a man's character. It had been prophesied at his birth that his life would be short; and, therefore, when the seer Calchas announced that without A. Troy could not be taken, his mother, to keep him from the dangers of the expedition, concealed him at the court of King Lycomedes, among whose daughters the boy lived disguised as a girl. But Ulysses discovered him by a stratagem. He offered to the young ladies a number of articles, some of feminine attire and others of arms; and the young warrior was betrayed by his choice. A., in the Greek campaign against Troy, appeared with fifty vessels manned by his followers, the Myrmidons; but remained sullen and inactive during a great part of the contest. When the city of Lyrnessus was taken, he had seized and carried away the beautiful Briseis. A pestilence in the Greek camp being ascribed to the anger of Apollo, whose priest had been robbed of his daughter, Chryseis, by Agamemnon; Agamemnon was compelled by the army to send Chryseis back to her father. On this, he took away Briseis from A., which greatly offended the latter. With this incident, the *Iliad* begins. Neither the splendid offers made by Agamemnon, nor the disasters of the Greeks, could afterwards move A. to take any part in the contest, until his friend Patroclus was slain by Hector. The hero then buckled on his armour, which had been made for him by Vulcan, and of which the shield is described at great length by Homer. The fortunes of the field were now suddenly changed in favour of the Greeks; and the vengeance of A. was not satiated until he had slain a great [illegible] of the Trojan heroes, and lastly, Hector. [illegible] he fastened to his chariot, and dr[illegible] Grecian camp. He then buried his f[illegible] with great funeral honours. King Priam, the father of Hector, came by night to the tent of A., and prayed that the body of his son might be given back to the Trojans. A. consented, and with the burial of Hector the *Iliad* closes. We are told that soon after the fall of Troy A. made a contract of marriage with Polyxena, the daughter of the Trojan king, but was slain by her brother Paris in the temple of Apollo where the marriage rites were to be celebrated. According to other accounts, he was slain by Apollo who assumed the likeness of Paris as a disguise. His ashes were placed in an urn with those of his friend Patroclus, and were buried on the promontory of Sigeum, where, after the fall of Troy, the captive Polyxena, who had been made a prisoner, was offered as a perpetually sacrifice.



Achilles, from an ancient statue.

ACHILLES' TENDON (*Tendo Achillis*), attaches the soleus and gastrocnemius muscles of the calf of the leg to the heel-bone. It is capable of resisting a force equal to a [illegible] lbs. weight: and yet is frequently ruptured by the contraction of these muscles in sudden extension of the foot. The name was given with reference to the death of the Grecian hero Achilles by a wound in the heel. Ancient surgeons regarded wounds or serious bruises of the A. T. as fatal.

ACHIMENES, a genus of plants of the natural order *Gesneraceæ* (q.v.), much cultivated in stoves and greenhouses for the beauty of their flowers. The species are numerous—natives of the warm parts of America.

ACHROMATIC (without colour), the name applied to lenses and telescopes through which objects are seen without false colours, or, in other words, free from that coloured fringe which, in the old telescopes, surrounded the object, and diminished its distinctness. The white, or rather colourless ray of light is composed of several coloured rays which have various degrees of refrangibility. See REFRACTION, LIGHT, COLOUR. When the direct ray is refracted, it divides itself into coloured rays, deviating in various degrees from the right line of the primitive ray. The rays thus refracted by the convex object-glass do not meet exactly in one point, the focus of the glass, but rather at several points, so as to produce the various colours, red, blue, and yellow, which surround the object. Newton, misled by imperfect experiments, believed it impossible to find any remedy for this defect; but Euler, in 1747, expressed his conviction that the desired A. improvement was practicable, and this belief was confirmed by the researches of the Swedish mathematician Klingenstierna. The practical solution of the difficulty was reserved for John Dollond; though, when he obtained a patent for his A. telescope, a priority of invention was claimed for a gentleman of the name of Hall. Dollond succeeded in forming an A. object-glass by a combination of crown-glass and flint-glass, which follow one law as to their relative refractive powers, and another as to their powers of dispersing the colours, uniting a convex lens of crown-glass with a con[illegible] one of flint-glass, in certain relative dimensions, [illegible]n of the coloured rays may be effected, and

the object will be seen without false colours. In the construction of A. telescopes, Dollond was followed by his son Peter, and also by the optician Ramsden. A further improvement was made by Fraunhofer of Munich, who succeeded in producing perfectly pure glass—a very difficult achievement in the case of flint-glass. We owe an important improvement of the A. telescope to the Viennese optician Plössl, who has lately invented what he calls the dialytic telescope, in which the several kinds of glass composing the compound object-glass are not placed close together, but at regulated distances apart. This arrangement allows a shortening of the tube. See TELESCOPE.

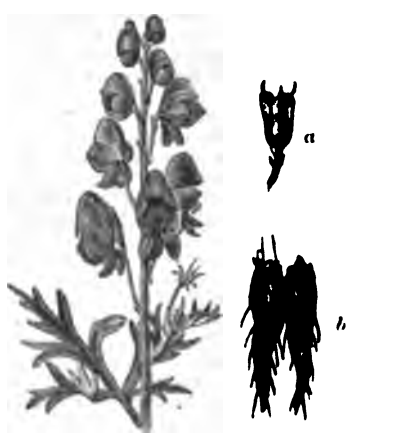
A'CI REA'LÉ, a town of Sicily, in the district of Catania. It lies at the foot of Mount Etna, on the coast, where the small river Aci, flowing from Etna, enters the sea. The town is built of lava, is defended by a fortress, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, who are employed chiefly in the manufacture of linen and silk; it also carries on a not inconsiderable trade in flax and grain. Many of the edifices are very handsome. A. R. is famed for its mineral waters, and for the cave of Polyphemus and the grotto of Galatea in its vicinity.

A'CIDS. An acid is a chemical compound distinguished by the property of combining with bases in definite proportions to form salts (q.v.). The most striking characteristics of A. are a sour taste, and the property of reddening vegetable blues. They are also mostly oxidised bodies; and at one time oxygen was thought to be essential to an acid, as the name *oxygen* (the acid-producer) indicates. Subsequent experience has extended the definition. There is an important class of undoubted A. that contain no oxygen; and silex, or flint, which, being insoluble, neither tastes sour nor reddens litmus-paper, is held to be an acid because it combines with bases and forms compounds like acknowledged A. The oxygen A., which are by far the most numerous class, are formed of elements (sulphur, nitrogen, chromium, &c.), with two or more equivalents of oxygen. The elements that form the strongest A. with oxygen are the non-metallic, and most of them have more than one stage of acid oxidation. Thus sulphur, with two equivalents of oxygen, forms sulphurous acid, symbol SO_2; with three equivalents it forms sulphuric acid, symbol SO_3. Similarly, arsenic gives rise to arsenious acid (AsO_3) and arsenic acid (AsO_5). The higher stage of oxidation forms the stronger and more stable acid. All metals, except arsenic, that form A. with oxygen, have also, at a lower stage of oxidation, one or more oxides. To these oxygen A. must be added the organic A., composed either of carbon and oxygen, as oxalic acid (C_2O_3), or of these two along with hydrogen, as acetic acid ($C_4H_3O_3$) and formic acid (C_2HO_3). There are also A. found in animal fluids or resulting from their decomposition which contain nitrogen in addition to the three elements above named; such is uric acid ($C_{10}N_4H_4O_6$). The *hydrogen A.* are formed of hydrogen and a radical, either simple or compound. The most important of these, and the type of its class, is hydrochloric or muriatic acid (ClH); others are hydriodic (IH) and hydrocyanic A. (NC_2H). As all A., however, even oxygen A., possess acid properties—i. e., combine with bases—only when in combination with water, a new view of the constitution of A. is beginning to prevail, which makes hydrogen the real acidifying element in all A. Thus, instead of considering vitriol as a compound of sulphuric acid and water (SO_3+HO), the hydrated acid is held to be the real sulphuric acid, and its rational formula to be (SO_4H). It thus becomes analogous to hydrochloric acid (ClH). This view has not only the advantage of bringing all A. into one class, but makes the theory of their combination with bases and of their capacity of saturation uniform and simple. See CHEMISTRY, in SUPPLEMENT.

ACKERMANN, RUDOLPH, a native of Saxony in Germany (b. 1764—d. 1834), came to London, where he opened a repository of the fine arts in the Strand, which succeeded well. He introduced the art of lithography into England, and was the originator of the 'Annuals' (q. v.), which he commenced by his *Forget-me-not*, published in 1823 and following years. Among his numerous illustrated publications may be mentioned his *Repository of Arts, Literature, and Fashions; Microcosm of London; Westminster Abbey;* and *Universities of Oxford and Cambridge*. English wood-engraving, the art of water-proofing, and the introduction of gas-light into shops, were greatly promoted by this enterprising German. He was chief promoter of the subscription (1813) for the sufferers by the war in Germany.

A'COLYTES, a name occurring first about the 3d c., and applied to functionaries who assisted the bishops and priests in the performance of religious rites, lighting the candles, presenting the wine and water at the communion, &c. They were considered as in holy orders, and ranked next to sub-deacons. These services have, since the 7th c., been performed by laymen and boys, who are improperly called A.; but in the Romish Church, aspirants to the priesthood are still at one stage consecrated as A., receiving candles and cups as the symbols of the office. See ORDERS, HOLY.

A'CONITE (*Aconitum*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Ranunculaceæ* (q. v.), having five petaloid sepals, of which the upper one is helmet-shaped, and two hammer-headed petals concealed within the helmet-shaped sepal. The fruit consists of 3—5 follicles. *A. Napellus*, the common WOLF'S-BANE or MONK'S-HOOD, often cultivated in flower-gardens for the sake of its erect racemes of blue



Monk's-hood (*Aconitum Napellus*):
a, fruit; *b*, root.

flowers, is a somewhat doubtful native of England, but common in some parts of Europe. The roots are fusiform and clustered. The root and whole plant are very poisonous, containing an alkaloid, called *Aconita*, or *Aconitine*, one of the most virulent of all known poisons; but an extract of the leaves is a valuable medicine, administered in small doses for nervous and other diseases. An A., sometimes called *A. Stoerckianum*, but generally regarded as a

variety of *A. Camnarum* (also known as *A. paniculatum*), was brought into great repute on the continent during last century by Dr Stoerck, an Austrian imperial physician, and is still much cultivated for medicinal use. The same properties seem in greater or less degree to belong to a number, if not to all, of the species of this genus, and they contain the same alkaloid. The virulent *bikh* poison of India, equally fatal in its effects whether introduced into wounds or taken into the stomach, is prepared from the roots of several species. The *A. ferox* of Nepaul, from which much of it is obtained, has been identified by Drs Hooker and Thomson with *A. Napellus*. Two other Himalayan species, *A. palmatum* and *A. luridum*, are equally employed in its preparation. *A. album*, or white-flowered monk's-hood, a native of the Levant, and *A. lycoctonum*, yellow-flowered monk's-hood, or wolf's-bane, a native of the Alps, are not unfrequent in our flower-gardens.

ACORN-SHELL. See BALANUS.

A'CORUS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Aroideæ* (see ARUM), or, according to other botanists, of the natural order *Orontiaceæ*, which is regarded as a connecting-link between *Aroideæ* and *Juncæ*. The plants of this genus have a leaf-like scape, which bears upon its side a dense, cylindrical, greenish spike of flowers, with 6-partite herbaceous perianth and six stamina in each flower. To this genus belongs the SWEET FLAG (*A. calamus*), which was long ago brought from Asia, and in the 15th c. was planted in the gardens of princes and rich men, but has now become naturalised in England, Germany, &c., growing in marshes and ditches. Its root (rhizome) is perennial, divided into long joints about the thickness of the thumb, has a bitteriah acrid taste, and is very aromatic. It is a powerful medicine of transient tonic effect, occasionally used, especially in cases of weak digestion. In many places of the continent it is to be found in every confectioner's, cut into slices, and prepared with sugar. It is also used to correct the empyreumatic odour of spirits, and to give them a peculiar flavour. It is called *Calamus Root*. In Britain it is chiefly employed by perfumers in the manufacture of hair-powder.—The other species of A. are likewise aromatic, and are applied to the same uses. *A. gramineus* is cultivated in China.

ACOSTA, GABRIEL, a Portuguese nobleman, descended from a Jewish family, born at Oporto in 1587. After being educated in the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church, he became sceptical, and leaving Portugal, went to Amsterdam, where he adopted the Jewish faith. He did not remain long contented with his new creed; but wrote against the Pentateuch, disputed the doctrine of the soul's immortality, and became involved in controversy with his rabbinical teachers. On account of his work, entitled *Examen de Tradiçoens Phariseas conferidas con á ley Escripta* (Examination of Pharisaic Traditions compared with the Scriptures), 1624, he was charged with atheism by the Jews before a Christian magistracy. Having lost his property, and being sentenced to a seven years' excommunication, he sought reconciliation with the synagogue, and submitted to very ignominious chastisements, which were repeatedly inflicted as often as his religious doubts arose again; until, in a state of insanity, he ended his career by suicide in 1640, or, as others say, in 1647. His autobiography was published in Latin and German (Leip. 1847).

ACOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS (*Acotyledones* of Jussieu), one of the great primary classes into which the vegetable kingdom is divided, according to the structure of the seed and whole development therewith connected. See COTYLEDON. The class of *Acotyledones* contains those plants which, in the Linnæan system, form the class CRYPTOGAMIA (q. v.). It consists partly of *Acrogenous Plants* (q. v.), as Ferns and Mosses, and partly of *Thallogenous Plants* (q. v.), as Lichens, Fungi, and Algæ. It thus includes the vegetable tribes of lowest organisation, whose embryo exhibits no distinct seed-lobes (cotyledons), but is a mere cell or *spore*, with granular matter in its interior, and germinates indifferently from any point of its surface.

ACOU'STICS (Gr. *akouo*, I hear) is the science of sound. This part of physics is often treated in connection with the atmosphere—an arrangement that seems inappropriate; for the atmosphere is only the most common conductor of sound; and every substance, whether solid or fluid, is capable, as well as air, of sounding itself, or of conveying the sound of other bodies. A. is rather a part of the science of motion. All motion is either rectilineal, circular, or vibratory; and when a vibratory motion is quick enough to affect the sense of hearing—for which at least thirty vibrations in a second are required—it constitutes a sound. A definable, uniform sound is a note or tone, and the rapidity of the vibrations is its pitch; a confused indeterminate sound is a noise. The chief subjects treated of in A. are: 1. Musical sounds, or Notes (q.v.). Here the question is concerning the absolute and relative velocities of the vibrations, and those modifications, called temperament, to which their original proportions are subjected for the practical purposes of music. 2. The origin of Sound (q. v.), and the laws which guide the vibrations of sounding bodies, and which give rise to different phenomena in different substances. In all sounding bodies, it is elasticity that is to be looked upon as the moving power. The elasticity of a sounding body may arise from stretching, as in the strings of a violin or the head of a drum; or from its own stiffness, as in rods, bells, &c. 3. The propagation of sound, as well through the air and other gases as through solids and liquids; and the reflection of sounds or echoes. All elastic bodies conduct sound, many much more powerfully than air. In water the conducting power is four times stronger than it is in air; in tin, seven times; in silver, nine times; in iron, ten times; in glass, seventeen times. 4. Perception of sound, or the structure and functions of the Ear (q. v.).

The ancients had made attempts to cultivate A. Pythagoras and Aristotle were aware of the way that sound is propagated through the air, but as a science independent of its application to music, it belongs almost entirely to modern times. Bacon and Galileo laid the foundation of this new mathematical science; Newton shewed by calculation how the propagation of sound depends upon the elasticity of the atmosphere or other conducting medium. He observed that a sounding body acts by condensing the portions of air that lie next it, and in the direction of the impulse. These condensed portions then spring back by their elasticity, and at the same time impel forward the portions lying next them. Each separate portion of air is thus driven forwards and backwards; and thus all round the sounding body there is an alternate condensation and rarefaction of air, constituting, as it were, waves of sound. In determining the velocity of sound, Newton, Lagrange, and Euler erred in their calculations; the best researches on this subject are those of Laplace. Chladni first raised A. to an independent science. In recent times, comparatively little has been done in this branch of physics. Savart has determined more exactly the number of vibrations in a second necessary to produce an audible sound; and Cagniard de Latour invented the sirene,

and discovered many of the conditions under which both solids and fluids sound. The sounding of heated metals, when laid on cold metallic supports, has occasioned much discussion. See *Edinb. Phil. Journal.* Faraday and Marx have examined the figures of sound; Wheatstone, the phenomena of sympathetic sounds; and Willis, the formation of vowel-sounds by the human voice.

While the principles of A. are well known in theory, they are seldom carried out to a satisfactory result in practice. We allude more particularly to the many instances in which costly assembly halls and churches are defective as regards public speaking; it being seemingly a mere chance that new edifices of this kind exhibit proper acoustic qualities. In some cases, the sounds uttered cause echoes and reverberations, perplexing alike to a speaker and his auditory, and in others the sounds are dispersed at a high elevation and are lost. This subject urgently demands consideration in connection with architecture. As a general rule, the ceilings of halls should be at a moderate elevation; the lowering of a ceiling and the removal of chandeliers, have been known to improve the speaking and hearing properties; and the hanging up of flags and draperies has, in a variety of instances, had a similarly good effect. The whispering gallery of St Paul's, London, offers an interesting example of one of the phenomena in acoustics. See ECHO.

A'CQUI (Lat. Aquæ Statiellæ), a walled town of N. Italy, on the left bank of the Bormida, and distant 18 miles from Alessandria. It derives its name from its hot sulphur springs, which were known to the Romans, and which are much frequented by invalids from the north of Italy. The town is of great antiquity, and contains many remarkable buildings, especially of an ecclesiastical character. Pop. 8200.

ACRE. The word is identical with Lat. *ager*, Gr. *agros*, 'a field;' the Ger. *acker* means both 'a field' and a 'measure of land.' Most nations have some measure nearly corresponding; originally, perhaps, the quantity which one plough could plough in a day; uniformity, therefore, is not to be looked for.

The English statute A. consists of 4840 square yards. The chain with which land is measured is 22 yards long, and a square chain will contain 22 × 22, or 484 yards; so that 10 square chains make an acre. The acre is divided into 4 roods, a rood into 40 perches, and a perch contains 30¼ square yards. The Scotch A. is larger than the English, and the Irish than the Scotch. 121 Ir. ac. = 196 Eng., nearly; 48 Sc. ac. = 61 Eng. The following table shews the values of the more important corresponding measures compared with the English A.:

English acre,	1·00
Scotch " ,	1·27
Irish " ,	1·62
Austria, Joch,	1·42
Baden, Morgen or Acre,	0·89
Belgium, Hectare (French),	2·47
Denmark, Toende,	5·5
France { Hectare (= 100 ares),	2·47
France { Arpent (common),	0·99
Hamburg, Morgen,	2·38
Hanover, " ,	0·64
Holland, " ,	2·10
Naples, Moggia,	0·83
Poland, Morgen,	1·38
Portugal, Geira,	1·43
Prussia { Little Morgen,	0·63
Prussia { Great Morgen,	1·40
Russia, Deciatina,	2·70
Sardinia, Giornate,	0·93
Saxony, Morgen,	1·36
Spain, Fanegada,	1·06
Sweden, Tunneland,	1·13
Switzerland, Faux,	1·62
" , Geneva, Arpent,	1·27
Tuscany, Saccata,	1·23

United States, English acre,	1·00
Würtemberg, Morgen,	2·40
Roman Jugerum (ancient),	0·66
Greek Plethron (ancient),	0·23

A'CRE, ST JEAN D', the biblical *Accho*, known as *Ptolemais* in the middle ages, is a seaport town situated on the coast of Syria, not far from the base of Mount Carmel, and contains 10—15,000 inhabitants. The harbour is partly choked with sand, yet is one of the best on this coast. A. has often been the arena of warfare, and has suffered many changes of fortune. In 1004, it was taken by the Genoese; in 1187, by the Sultan Saladin; afterwards, it became the chief landing-place of the Crusaders, the seat of a bishop and of the Order of St John; next, it fell into the hands of the Egyptians; and in 1517 was captured by the Turks; in 1799, it was besieged by the French for sixty-one days, but was successfully defended by the garrison, aided by a body of English sailors and marines under Sidney Smith. In 1832, it was stormed by Ibrahim Pacha, son of the viceroy of Egypt, and continued in his possession till it was bombarded and taken, in 1840, by a combined English, Austrian, and Turkish fleet. See EGYPT.

A'CROBAT, a word derived from the Greek, and nearly synonymous with rope-dancer. It literally signifies one who walks on tip-toe (*akron*, an extremity, and *baino*, I go); and is employed to designate those who perform difficult feats, vaulting, sliding, tumbling, and dancing on a slack or tight rope, stretched either horizontally or obliquely. These feats require great skill, suppleness, and steadiness. For a long time, acrobats were contented to divert and astonish only children or the most ignorant of the populace; but the extraordinary skill of some recent performers has given this perilous art a great celebrity. Within the present century, Farioso, Madame Saqui, and Signor Diavolo have excited the admiration of all Paris by their marvellous agility. The acrobats of antiquity appear to have closely resembled those of our own day.

ACRO'GENOUS PLANTS (Gr., growing at the summit) are plants in which the structure of the stem is *acrogenous*—that is, in which the vascular bundles are developed simultaneously, and not in succession, the stem increasing by the coherence

Section of Acrogenous stem.

Tree Fern.

of the bases of the leaves and by elongation at the summit. In a transverse section of the stem, a circle of vascular tissue is found near the circumference, and the centre is composed of cellular tissue, some portion of which frequently disappears, so that the stem, although solid when young, becomes hollow in a more advanced stage of its growth. Tree-ferns afford the finest specimens of the acrogenous stem. All A. P. have *stomata*, or breathing-pores, on the surface. In general, they have a distinct stem and leaves arranged with

most perfect symmetry. Some plants, in which the distinct stem is absent, are ranked with A. P., because the *thallus* has the texture of leaves, and exhibits a higher organisation than in *Thallogenous Plants* (q. v.). A. P. are all *Acotyledonous* (q. v.); and under this designation are included *Ferns*, *Equisetaceæ*, *Lycopodiaceæ*, *Marsileaceæ*, *Mosses*, and *Hepaticæ*.

ACROLITHS (Gr. *acron*, extremity; *lithos*, a stone), the name given to the oldest works of Greek plastic art, in which wood-carving is seen in transition into marble statuary. The trunk of the figure is still, in the old style, of wood, covered with the usual temple-vestments; but the extremities—head, arms, feet—which are meant to appear naked from below the drapery, are of stone.

ACROPOLIS, 'the highest point of the city.' Many of the important cities of Greece and Asia Minor were protected by strongholds, so named. The A. occupied a lofty position, commanding the city and its environs; inaccessible on all sides except one, which had, for the most part, artificial defences. It contained some of the most important

Acropolis at Athens.

public buildings, especially temples, besides affording a last refuge in case of a hostile attack. The A., like the castle of the middle ages, had formed the centre or nucleus around which the town gradually grew. Among the most celebrated of the ancient Acropolises was that of Argos, whose name, Larissa, indicates its Pelasgic origin; that of Messenia, which bore the name of Ithome; that of Thebes, called Cadmea; that of Corinth, known as Acro-Corinthus; but especially that of Athens, which was styled pre-eminently the A. See ATHENS.

ACROSTIC is a Greek term for a number of verses the first letters of which follow some predetermined order, usually forming a word—most commonly a name—or a phrase or sentence. Sometimes the final letters spell words as well as the initial, and the peculiarity will even run down the middle of the poem like a seam. Sir John Davies composed twenty-four *Hymns to Astrea* (Queen Elizabeth), in every one of which the initial letters of the lines form the words ELISABETHA REGINA. The following is one of the twenty-four:

E very night from ev'n to morn,
L ove's chorister amid the thorn
I s now so sweet a singer;
S o sweet, as for her song I scorn
A pollo's voice and finger.

B ut, nightingale, sith you delight
E ver to watch the starry night,
T ell all the stars of heaven,
H eaven never had a star so bright
A s now to earth is given.

R oyal Astrea makes our day
E ternal with her beams, nor may
G ross darkness overcome her;
I now perceive why some do write
N o country hath so short a night
A s England hath in summer.

In the A. poetry of the Hebrews, the initial letters of the lines or of the stanzas were made to run over the letters of the alphabet in their order. Twelve of the psalms of the Old Testament are written on this plan. The 119th Psalm is the most remarkable. It is composed of twenty-two divisions or stanzas (corresponding to the twenty-two letters of the Hebrew alphabet), each stanza consisting of eight couplets; and the first line of each couplet in the first stanza begins, in the original Hebrew, with the letter *aleph*, in the second stanza, with *beth*, &c. The divisions of the psalm are named each after the letter that begins the couplets, and these names have been retained in the English translation. With a view to aid the memory, it was customary at one time to compose verses on sacred subjects after the fashion of those Hebrew acrostics, the successive verses or lines beginning with the letters of the alphabet in their order. Such pieces were called *Abecedarian Hymns*. See *Hook's Church Dictionary*.

ACROTERION (Gr., the summit or extremity), a term in Arch. for a statue or other ornament placed on the apex or at one of the lower angles of a pediment. Some understand by A., the pedestal on which such ornament stands.

ACT, in the Drama, is a distinct part of the general plot or action, and its conclusion is usually marked by a fall of the curtain. An act should be, in a certain sense, complete in itself, and at the same time should form a necessary part of the whole drama. As every dramatic plot naturally divides itself into three parts—the exposition, the development, and the conclusion or catastrophe—a division into three acts would seem most natural; but in practice it has been found inconvenient to enclose extended plots in such limits, and since the time of the ancient Greek tragedy, *five* acts have generally been considered necessary. In the first act, the general nature of the drama is indicated, the characters are introduced, and the action commences. The plot should rise in interest in the second, and reach its climax in the third act. In the fourth act, the conclusion or catastrophe should be prepared, but should by no means be anticipated so as to weaken the effect of the *dénouement*, which must occupy the fifth act. This is a rather difficult task; and, accordingly, many dramas fail in the fourth act.

ACT, in the University sense, is an exercise preparatory to receiving a degree. The student who 'keeps the Act,' and who is called the 'Respondent,' reads a Latin thesis on some proposition which he has announced that he is to maintain. Three other students, who have been named by the Proctor as 'Opponents,' then try, one after another, to refute his arguments syllogistically in Latin. The practice of keeping Acts is still adhered to, as a form at least, at Cambridge.

ACT, in Law, has various meanings. In its more general acceptation it is used to denote the solemn accomplishment of some distinctive proceeding, as when a person in England, when executing a legal instrument, declares it to be his *act and deed*. Formerly, in Scotland, the word A. was frequently applied to the procedure in a litigated

cause; and to this day the technical term to signify a plaintiff in Scotch pleading is *Actor*—hence also *Acts of Sederunt* (q. v.). By an A. is sometimes meant an act or proceeding, or rather the record of an act or proceeding, of a public nature—and in this sense it is used when we speak of an *A. of Parliament* (q. v.). This use of the word appears to be derived from the Romans, who employed *Acta* to signify specially public official transactions, and oftener perhaps the records of such transactions. The *Acta Diurna* was a kind of official Roman gazette, giving an account of the public transactions and events of the day. The Germans use *Acten*, and the French *Actes*, to signify official or legal documents, or papers generally. The title *Acta* has been applied in modern times to the journals or records of learned societies: *Acta Societatis Regiæ*—the Transactions of the Royal Society. *Acta Eruditorum*, the oldest journal of erudition in Germany, was begun at Leipsic in 1680, and ceased publication in 1782, when it had extended to 117 quarto volumes. To these may be added (shewing the close connection between the Roman and Scotch legal institutions and their phraseology) the *Acta Auditorum*, or the records of the proceedings of the Lords Auditors, who were a committee of the old Scotch Parliament appointed to hear causes, by way of appeal, and otherwise to exercise supreme jurisdiction. Also the *Acta Dominorum Concilii*, or ancient records of the supreme court in Scotland.

But the word *A.* has at the present day several precise legal applications, the principal of which we now proceed to mention and explain:

ACT OF BANKRUPTCY, by which is meant a certain ostensible indication of insolvency on the part of a debtor, sufficient to bring him within the operation of the bankrupt laws. Section 67 of the former Bankrupt Law Consolidation Act, 12 and 13 Vict. c. 106, defined Acts of B. in the following terms: 'That if any trader, liable to become bankrupt, shall depart this realm, or being out of this realm, shall remain abroad, or shall depart from his dwelling-house, or otherwise absent himself, or begin to keep his house, or suffer himself to be arrested or taken in execution for any debt not due, or yield himself to prison, or suffer himself to be outlawed, or procure himself to be arrested or taken in execution, or his goods, money, or chattels to be attached, sequestered, or taken in execution, or make or cause to be made, either within this realm or elsewhere, any fraudulent grant or conveyance of any of his lands, tenements, goods, or chattels, or make or cause to be made any fraudulent surrender of any of his copyhold lands or tenements, or make or cause to be made any fraudulent gift, delivery, or transfer of any of his goods or chattels, every such trader doing, suffering, procuring, executing, permitting, making, or causing to be made any of the acts, deeds, or matters aforesaid, with intent to defeat or delay his creditors, shall be deemed to have thereby committed an A. of B. The modifications on this definition by recent legislation are slight, and will be found under INSOLVENCY. The expression *A. of B.* is unknown in the phraseology of Scotch law, but the evidences of *notour bankruptcy*, as it is called, are analogous to the English A. of B. See INSOLVENCY.

ACT OF GOD is a legal expression, and signifies any natural or accidental occurrence, not caused by human negligence or intervention; such as the consequences arising from storms, lightning, tempests, &c., and which are deemed fatalities and losses such as no party under any circumstances (independently of special contract) is bound to make good to another. It has been ruled in England that the loss must be immediate, and the necessary consequence of the accident.

ACT OF GRACE is the name given to an old Scotch act (1696, c. 32) for the maintenance of poor persons imprisoned for debt. It is usually applied in England to insolvent acts, and general pardons, at the beginning of a new reign or on other great occasions.

ACT OF INDEMNITY is an annual act of parliament passed for omissions in taking the oaths and assurances required by law of persons admitted to any public office or employment. See ABJURATION.

ACT OF PARLIAMENT is a resolution or law passed by all the three branches of the legislature—the King [or Queen], Lords, and Commons. The expression is generally used to signify the *record* of an A. of P., and such records are strictly synonymous with the term 'statutes' or 'statutes of the realm.' An A. of P. thus made is the highest legal authority acknowledged by the constitution. It binds every subject in the land, and even the sovereign himself, if named therein. And in England it cannot be altered, amended, dispensed with, suspended, or repealed, but in the same forms and by the same authority of parliament. In Scotland, however, a long course of contrary usage or of disuse may have the effect of depriving a statute of its obligation, for, by the Scotch law, a statute may become obsolete by disuse, and cease to be legally binding. It was formerly held in England that the king might in many cases dispense with penal statutes; but by the statute 1 W. and M. st. 2, c. 2, it is declared that the suspending or dispensing with laws by royal authority, without consent of parliament, is illegal.

An A. of P. or statute is either *public* or *private*. A public act regards the whole community, but the operation of a private act is confined to particular persons and private concerns, and some private acts are *local*, as affecting certain places only. As the law till lately stood, the courts of law were bound *ex officio* to take judicial notice, as it is called, of public acts, that is, to recognise these acts as known and published law, without the necessity of their being specially pleaded and proved; but it was otherwise in regard to private acts; so that in order to claim any advantage under a private act, it was necessary to plead it, and set it forth particularly. But now, by the 13 and 14 Vict. c. 21, s. 7, every act made after the then next session of parliament is to be taken to be a public one, and judicially noticed as such, unless the contrary be expressly declared.

Acts of P. are also sometimes described as *declaratory*, or *penal*, or *remedial*, according to the nature of their object or provisions. Declaratory statutes are where the old custom of the kingdom has almost fallen into disuse, or become disputable, in which case the parliament has thought proper (*in perpetuam rei testimoniam*, and for avoiding all doubts and difficulties) to declare what the common law is and ever has been. Penal acts are those which merely impose penalties or punishments for an offence, as in the case of the statutes relative to game. Remedial acts are such as supply some defect in the existing law, and redress some abuse or inconvenience with which it is found to be attended, without introducing any provision of a penal character. There is also a distinction of Acts of P. as being either *enlarging* or *restraining*, *enabling* or *disabling* acts.

An A. of P. begins to operate from the time when it receives the royal assent, unless some other time be fixed for the purpose by the act itself. The rule on this subject, in England, was formerly different; for at common law, every A. of P., which had no provision to the contrary, was considered, as soon as it passed (i. e., received the royal assent), as having been in force, retrospectively, from the first day of the session of parliament in which it passed, though, in fact, it might not have received the royal assent,

or even been introduced into parliament, until long after that day; and this strange principle was rigidly observed for centuries. The ancient acts of the Scotch parliament were proclaimed in all the county towns, burghs, and even in the baron courts. This mode of promulgation was, however, gradually dropped as the use of printing became common; and in 1581, an act was passed declaring publication at the Market Cross of Edinburgh to be sufficient. British statutes require no formal promulgation; and in order to fix the time from which they shall become binding, it was enacted by the 33 Geo. III. c. 13, that every A. of P. to be passed after 8th April 1793 shall commence from the date of the endorsement by the clerk of parliament, stating the day, month, and year when the act was passed and received the royal assent, unless the commencement shall, in the act itself, be otherwise provided for.

An A. of P. consists of various parts—such as the title, the preamble, the enacting sections and clauses, and sometimes certain forms or schedules added by way of appendix—and it is referred to by the year of the sovereign's reign, and the chapter of the statutes for that year. The old acts of the Scotch parliament, before the union with England, are cited by the year in which they were passed, and the order of the number or chapter. See STATUTES, SCOTCH STATUTES, and PARLIAMENT.

ACTS OF SEDERUNT are ordinances of the Court of Session or supreme civil court in Scotland, made originally under authority of the Scotch Act 1540, c. 93, whereby the judges are empowered to make such rules or ordinances as may be necessary for the regulation of legal procedure and the expediting of justice. The power thus conferred was exceeded, and it became necessary to ratify several of the A. of S. in the Scotch Parliament. In so far, however, as A. of S. are confined to declarations of the purposes of the court to decide in a particular way, on an occurrence of similar circumstances, they seem to amount to little more than authoritative announcements of the intention of the court to adhere judicially to certain precedents; and for upwards of a century and a half, they have been almost exclusively confined to the regulation of judicial procedure, and to matters therewith connected. In several recent statutes, express power is given to the Court of Session to pass A. of S., for carrying the purpose of the legislature into more complete effect; and it is usually provided that the A. of S. made in virtue of such power shall be laid before parliament within a limited time. The old quorum of nine judges is requisite in passing an Act of S., 48 Geo. III. c. 151, s. 11.

ACT OF SETTLEMENT, a name given to the statute 12 and 13 Will. III. c. 2, by which the crown was limited to the family of her present Majesty, Queen Victoria. It was towards the end of King William III.'s reign, when all hopes of other issue died with the Duke of Gloucester, that, as we are told by Blackstone, the king and parliament thought it necessary again to exert their power of limiting and appointing the succession, in order to prevent another vacancy of the throne, which must have ensued upon their deaths, as no further provision was made at the Revolution than for the issue of Queen Mary, Queen Anne, and King William. The parliament had previously, by the statute of 1 W. and M. st. 2, c. 2, enacted, that every person who should be reconciled to, or hold communion with, the see of Rome, should profess the Roman Catholic religion, or should marry a Roman Catholic, should be excluded from succession to, and be for ever incapable to inherit, possess, or enjoy the crown; and that in such case the people should be absolved from their allegiance, and the crown should descend to such persons, being Protestants, as would have inherited the same, if the person so reconciled, holding communion, professing or marrying, were naturally dead. To act, therefore, consistently with themselves, and, at the same time, pay as much regard to the old hereditary line as their former resolutions would admit, they turned their eyes on the Princess Sophia, Electress and Duchess-dowager of Hanover; for upon the impending extinction of the Protestant posterity of Charles I., the old law of regal descent directed them to recur to the descendants of James I.; and the Princess Sophia, being the youngest daughter of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, who was the daughter of James I., was the nearest of the ancient blood-royal who was not incapacitated by professing the Roman Catholic religion. On her, therefore, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants, the remainder of the crown expectant on the death of King William and Queen Anne without issue, was settled by statute 12 and 13 Will. III. c. 2. And at the same time it was enacted, that whosoever should thereafter come to the possession of the crown, should join in the communion of the Church of England as by law established.

This is the last limitation of the crown that has been made by parliament; and the several actual limitations, from the time of Henry IV. to the present, clearly prove the power of the king and parliament to re-model or alter the succession. It is even made highly penal to dispute such power, for by the statute 6 Anne, c. 7, it is enacted, that if any person maliciously, advisedly, and directly, shall maintain, by writing or printing, that the kings of this realm, with the authority of parliament, are not able to make laws to bind the crown and the descent thereof, he shall be guilty of high treason; or if he maintains the same by only preaching or advised speaking, he shall incur the penalties of *præmunire*.

The Princess Sophia dying before Queen Anne, the inheritance, thus limited, descended on her son and heir, King George I.; and having, on the death of the queen, taken effect in his person, from him it descended to King George II.; from him to his grandson and heir, King George III.; from him to his son, George IV., who was succeeded by his brother, William IV.; and from the monarch last mentioned the crown descended to his heiress, the daughter of his brother Edward, Duke of Kent, our present gracious sovereign, Queen Victoria.

'Hence,' Blackstone remarks, 'it is easy to collect that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock or ancestor from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Formerly, the common stock was King Egbert, afterwards William the Conqueror, and now it is Princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly, the descent was absolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any restriction; but now, upon the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to such heirs only of the body of the Princess Sophia as are Protestants, members of the Church of England, and are married to none but Protestants.'

ACT OF TOLERATION is the name commonly given to the act of parliament 1 William and Mary, statute 1, c. 18, confirmed by 10 Anne, c. 2, by which all persons dissenting from the Church of England (except Roman Catholics and persons denying the Trinity) were relieved from such of the acts against nonconformists as prevented their assembling for religious worship according to their own

forms, or otherwise restrained their religious liberty, on condition of their taking the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribing a declaration against transubstantiation; and in the case of dissenting ministers, subscribing also to certain of the Thirty-nine Articles. The clause of this act which excepted persons denying the Trinity from the benefits of its enactments, was repealed by 53 Geo. III. c. 160.

The Protestant dissenters, however, still remained, notwithstanding these provisions, subject to the obligation imposed by the Test and Corporation Acts (q. v.) on all those who were admitted to any office, of taking the sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the rites of the Church of England; but this disability was at length removed by the 9 Geo. IV. c. 17. And to this list of concessions we are now to add the act of 15 and 16 Vict. c. 36, allowing the dissenters to certify their places of worship to, and register them with, the Registrar-general of Births, Deaths, and Marriages, instead of the Archbishop, Bishop, or Court of Quarter-sessions.

These various Acts of T. operated, however, to the exclusive benefit of *Protestant* dissenters, and afforded no relief to Roman Catholics. With respect to the latter, the progress of emancipation was slower and more reluctant. By statutes, however, of 18 Geo. III. c. 60, 31 Geo. III. c. 32, and 43 Geo. III. c. 30, most of the severer penalties and disabilities to which they were formerly subject, were removed; and by 10 Geo. IV. c. 7, commonly called the Catholic Emancipation Act, Roman Catholics were restored in general to the full enjoyments of all civil rights, being only excluded from holding ecclesiastical offices, and certain high appointments in the state. By another act of the 2 and 3 Will. IV. c. 115, it was provided that Roman Catholics should be subject in this particular to the same laws as were applicable to Protestant dissenters; the effect of which provision is to empower them to acquire and hold property for such purposes. And now, by the acts of 7 and 8 Vict. c. 102, 9 and 10 Vict. c. 59, and 21 and 22 Vict. c. 48, Roman Catholics and Jews are relieved from all enactments calculated to oppress them, and are thus practically admitted to all the privileges of the constitution.

In Scotland, toleration in religious matters is secured by various old Scotch statutes passed before the Union with England, particularly by the act 1690, c. 27; and this was followed up after the Union by the British statute 10 Anne, c. 7, s. 5, which declares that 'it shall be free and lawful for all the subjects in that part of Great Britain called Scotland to assemble and meet together for divine service without any disturbance; and to settle their congregations in what forms or places they shall think fit to choose, except parish churches;' an enactment which amounts to a legal recognition of dissenters, if, indeed, it may not be called their charter in Scotland.

ACT OF UNIFORMITY is the name by which the statute 13 and 14 Car. c. 4, is usually described. By that statute it was enacted, that the Book of Common Prayer, as then recently revised, should be used in every parish church and other place of public worship in England, and that every schoolmaster and person instructing youth should subscribe a declaration of conformity to the Liturgy, and also to the effect of the oath and declaration mentioned in the act of 13 Car. II. st. 2, c. 1. It further enacted that no person should thenceforth be capable of holding any ecclesiastical promotion or dignity, or of consecrating or administering the sacrament, till he should be ordained priest according to episcopal ordination, and with respect to all ministers who then enjoyed any ecclesiastical benefice, it directed that they should, within a certain period, openly read morning and evening service, according to the Book of Common Prayer, and declare before the congregation their unfeigned assent and consent to the use of all things therein contained, upon pain of being *ipso facto* deprived of their spiritual promotions. By this statute, two thousand of the clergy, who refused to comply with its provisions, were deprived of their preferments. This statute also contained a regulation that no schoolmaster in a private house should instruct youth without having obtained a licence from the Ordinary; but this regulation was repealed by 9 and 10 Vict. c. 59.

ACTS, Test and Corporation. See article Test Acts.

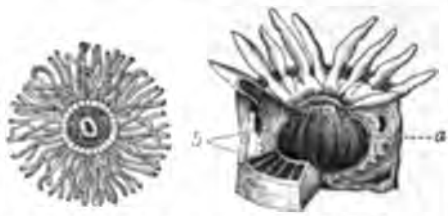
ACTA SANCTO'RUM or MA'RTYRUM (Acts of Saints or Martyrs), the collective title given to several old writings, respecting saints and martyrs, in the Greek and Roman Catholic churches, but now applied especially to one extensive collection begun by the Jesuits in the 17th c., and intended to serve as a better arrangement of the materials found in ancient works. This great undertaking, which was commenced by the Jesuit, Heribert Rosweyd of Antwerp, has considerable importance, not only in a religious and ecclesiastical point of view, but also with regard to history and archæology. After Rosweyd's death, in 1629, J. Bolland was commissioned by the order of Jesuits to continue the work; and with the assistance of G. Henschen, he prepared two volumes, which appeared in 1643. After the death of this editor (1665), the work was carried on by a society of learned Jesuits, who were styled 'Bollandists,' until 1794, when its further progress was prevented through the invasion of Holland by the French. In recent times, the undertaking has been resumed; and in 1846 the fifty-fourth volume was published at Brussels. Three or four additional volumes have appeared since. The lives are arranged in the order of the calendar. The first two volumes, published in 1643, contained the lives of the saints for January. The volumes last published, of which the latest appeared in 1868, are for October. For notices of other and similar collections, see Saints, Martyr, and Martyrology.

ACTÆ'A, a genus of plants of the natural order *Ranunculaceæ* (q. v.), the type of the sub-order *Actaeæ*, distinguished by the coloured imbricated calyx and indehiscent succulent fruit. The genus *Actaea* has four deciduous sepals, four petals, and a single baccate carpel.—*A. spicata*, the Baneberry or Herb Christopher, is a native of the north of Europe, found in bushy places in some parts of England. It is a perennial herbaceous plant, about 1—2 feet high, with triternate leaves, and the leaflets deeply cut and serrated, the flowers in racemes, the berries black and poisonous. The root is anti-spasmodic, expectorant, and astringent, and is sometimes useful in catarrh. *Botrophis actaeoides* (*Actaea racemosa* of Linnæus) is a native of the United States, whose roots are said to possess similar qualities, and are also reputed as a remedy for the bite of the rattlesnake.

ACTÆ'ON, a mythical personage, a grandson of Cadmus. He was trained as a hunter by Chiron. Having once surprised Diana while bathing in a fountain, he was changed by the offended goddess into a stag, and his own dogs, not knowing him, tore him in pieces. According to Euripides, Diana was jealous because Actæon had boasted that he excelled her in hunting.

ACTI'NIA, a genus of marine animals closely allied to the Hydraform Polypi, but of much greater size, and always living separately, very generally affixed by the base to rocks or shells. The old genus Actinia has been subdivided into a number

of genera, and is now the type of a family, *Actiniadæ*. They consist of a fleshy sac with one orifice, around which are numerous tentacula, and when these are expanded, much resemble flowers, and have therefore been called *Animal Flowers* and *Sea Anemones*. They are found on all shores; those of Britain



Actinia seen from above. Section of Actinia: *a*, cavity of stomach; *b*, surrounding chambers.

possess a number of very beautiful species, but they are most abundant, and attain their greatest size and beauty in tropical seas. They are capable of moving by alternate contractions and expansions of the fleshy base, and can also make use of their tentacula for locomotion. The tentacula appear to act as suckers in capturing prey, which they promptly convey to the mouth, and which consists of small fishes, molluska, crustacea, &c. They produce living young, the germs of which are formed in ovarian chambers, divided by radiating vertical partitions in the fleshy substance around the stomach cavity, and which pass into the stomach cavity, and are ejected from the mouth; but simple gemmules, furnished with cilia, are also discharged through the tentacula. The Actiniadæ possess a remarkable power of reproducing parts which have been cut away, and may be multiplied by division. They are very sensitive to light. In many parts of the world they are eaten, and are esteemed a delicacy. A small A. was kept by Sir John G. Dalyell for twenty-six years.

ACTINISM, the property of the sun's rays which produces chemical changes. See SPECTRUM.

ACTION, in its large and general sense, means a judicial proceeding before a competent tribunal for the attainment of justice; and in this sense it is applied to procedure, whether *criminal* or *civil*. In its more limited acceptation, it is used to signify proceedings in the *civil* courts, where it means the form prescribed by law for the recovery of a right, or what is one's due. And it is in this sense that it is regarded by the Roman law, which defines an action as *jus persequendi in judicio quod sibi debetur*. In the law of England, the term A. is usually applied to proceedings in the courts of *common law*, as distinguished from those of *equity*, where the word *suit* is commonly used to denote litigation. Thus, in the courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, we speak of an A.-at-law; whereas in the courts of Chancery, the forensic controversy is described as a suit in equity.

In the Scotch law, which recognises no distinction in legal administration between law and equity, the word A. is defined comprehensively as a demand regularly made and insisted on before the judge competent for the recovery of a right. Accordingly, while in Scotland there is, as in England, a remedy for every wrong, the law recognises and gives effect to the right of a party to claim and to have *declared* a particular interest or right, even although that interest or right may not be withheld, or called in question. It is sufficient that it is doubtful, and that the ascertainment of it is necessary for the position and purposes of the plaintiff, or *pursuer*, as the Scotch law calls the active party. This procedure is known by the name of an *A. of declarator*, which has been described as a suit in which something is prayed to be decreed in favour of the plaintiff, but nothing sought to be paid, performed, or done by the defendant. Lord Stair, in his *Institutes of the Law of Scotland*, says 'such actions may be pursued for instructing or clearing any kind of right relating to liberty, dominion, or obligation;' and he further observes, 'there is no right but is capable of declarator.' Various attempts have been made to introduce this mode of proceeding into the practice of the law in England, but as yet without success. The idea of the declarator has been said to have been derived by the Scotch lawyers from the French legal system, according to whose forms the existing administration of the Scotch law was originally moulded. In the Institutes of Justinian there are, however, indications of the partial use of this form of A. by the Roman lawyers.

We may add that the word A. is derived from the Latin *actio* (*agere*), and that the plaintiff in a suit or action was originally said to be the *actor*, which, indeed, in the recorded pleadings of the Scotch courts, his counsel or advocate still is called.

A'CTIUM (now Azio), a town and promontory on the west coast of Greece, at the entrance of the Ambraciot Bay, now the Gulf of Arta, is memorable for the sea-fight which took place near it, 2d September, 31 B.C., between Octavianus (afterwards the Emperor Augustus) and Marcus Antonius. These two had for some time ruled the Roman world between them—the former in the west, the latter in the east; it now came to a struggle for the sole sovereignty. The two armies were encamped on the opposite shores of the gulf: Octavian had 80,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, and 260 ships of war; Antony, 100,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, and 220 ships. Antony's ships were large, and well provided with engines for throwing missiles, but clumsy in their movements; Octavian's were smaller and more agile. Antony was supported by Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt, with sixty vessels, who induced him, against the opinion of his most experienced generals, to determine upon a naval engagement. The battle continued for some hours undecided; at last, Agrippa, who commanded Octavian's fleet, succeeded, by a skilful manœuvre, in compelling Antony to extend his line of battle, whose compactness had hitherto resisted all attempts of the enemy to break through. Cleopatra, whose ships were stationed behind Antony's line, apprehensive of that line being broken, took to flight with her auxiliary fleet, and Antony recklessly followed her with a few of his ships. The deserted fleet continued to resist bravely for some time, but was finally vanquished; the land-army, after waiting in vain seven days for Antony's return, surrendered to Octavian. As a memorial of the victory that had given him the empire of the world, and out of gratitude to the gods, Octavian enlarged the temple of Apollo at A., dedicated the trophies he had taken, and instituted games to be celebrated every five years. He also built, on the spot where his army had been encamped, the splendid city of Nicopolis (city of victory), near where Prevesa now stands.

ACTON, JOSEPH, PRINCE, prime-minister of Ferdinand IV. of Naples, was the son of an Irish physician, and was born at Besançon in 1737. After acquiring distinction in the naval service of France and Tuscany, he gained a position in the Neapolitan government, and became the favourite of Queen Caroline. His measures, prompted by his extreme hatred of France, were cruel and intolerant, and ultimately caused a reaction against the royal family

of Naples, and in favour of the French party and the Carbonari. When left unaided by English influence, A. lost the power he had so often abused, and died in 1811, deservedly contemned by all parties.

ACTS OF THE APOSTLES, the fifth book of the New Testament, the authorship of which is ascribed by tradition, and with the highest probability, to the Evangelist Luke. Beginning with the ascension of Christ, it gives an account of the spread of the Christian Church; confined, however, chiefly to the part taken therein by the Apostle Paul. Notwithstanding its title, little is said of the other apostles, with the exception of Peter. The narrative closes with the year 62 A.D., Paul being then a prisoner at Rome. The book has always been received as canonical, except by a few Manichæan heretics. In the early centuries, numerous spurious ACTS OF THE APOSTLES were put in circulation by various sects.

A'CTUARY. The *Actuarii*, in ancient Rome, were clerks who recorded the *Acta* of the senate and other public bodies. The term might therefore, so far as its etymology is concerned, be applied to men of business in general. But in the constantly increasing tendency to subdivide labour and specialise functions, there has arisen, in recent times, a distinct branch of business, embracing all monetary questions that involve a consideration of the separate or combined effect of Interest and Probability, especially as connected with the duration of human life; and it is to one who devotes himself to this department of business that the name of A. has been specially assigned. The investigations and calculations of the A. supply the principles of operation for the numerous institutions now engaged in the transaction of Life-assurance, Annuity, and Reversionary business. His functions might be briefly defined as *the application of the doctrine of probabilities to the affairs of life*. There are two Societies of Actuaries in this country: 'The Institute of Actuaries of Great Britain and Ireland,' established in London in 1848; and the 'Faculty of Actuaries in Scotland,' established in Edinburgh in 1856.

ACU'LEUS, in Botany. See PRICKLE.

ACUPU'NCTURE (Lat., puncturing or pricking with a needle [*acus*]), is a very ancient remedy, and one practised extensively in the East, for the cure of headaches, lethargies, &c. In Europe it is principally employed to relieve neuralgic pains, and those of chronic rheumatism. Steel needles are made use of, about three inches long, and set in handles. The surgeon, by a rotatory movement, passes one or more to the desired depth in the tissues, and leaves them there from a few minutes to an hour. Their insertion is accompanied by no pain, except the first prick—a fact the quacks of the 16th c. did not fail to take advantage of. According to Jerome Cardan, they travelled from place to place practising A., and before inserting the needle, they rubbed it with a peculiar kind of magnet, either believing, or pretending, that this made the operation painless. The relief to pain afforded by this simple operation is sometimes astonishing, and the wounds are so minute as to be perfectly harmless.—The needles are sometimes used as conductors of the galvanic current to deep-seated parts, and are sometimes made hollow—on the suggestion of Dr Alexander Wood of Edinburgh—to allow of a small quantity of some sedative solution being injected into the tissues, by which even the terrible pain of Tic Douloureux may be almost immediately relieved. See NEURALGIA.

ADA'GIO, a slow movement or measure of time in Music, between *largo*, *grave*, and *andante*. In our more extended compositions of instrumental or chamber music, the second or third *movement* is generally marked *adagio*, and serves as a contrast with the rapid and energetic movement of the preceding and following parts of the sonata or symphony. The A. must be written in a measure of time which will afford scope for a flowing and expressive slow melody with a gracefully varied accompaniment. Without contrasted movement and a lively variety in the accompaniment, the slow air would have a monotonous or dull effect. A clear and expressive execution of the A. is a sure test of ability and good taste in the player or singer, as it demands a pure and beautiful intonation, a true reading and phrasing of the cantilena, even in its most minute details, and a careful attention to all points of effect. The finest specimens of the A. are found in the works of the old masters, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, and are as distinct in their features as were the composers in their personal characteristics. In recent works, our composers have generally succeeded better in their rapid movements than in the A.

ADA'L and **ADE'L.** The name Adal is applied by geographers to the flat country lying between Abyssinia and the Red Sea, from Massowa in N. lat. 15° 40′, to the Bay of Tajurra, lat. 11° 30′. Adel would seem to designate the coast-country from Tajurra to Cape Guardafui, part of which is known as the country of the Somauli.

ADA'LIA, anciently *Attalia*, the chief seaport on the south coast of Asia Minor, in N. lat. 36° 52′; E. long. 30° 45′. The streets rise like the seats of a theatre, up the slope of the hill behind the harbour. Pop. 13,000.

ADAM and EVE. The narrative of the creation and fall of A. and E. is given in Genesis. To the Scriptural account, the later Jewish writers in the Talmud have made many tasteless additions. They tell us that the stature of A., when first created, reached to the heavens, while the splendour of his countenance surpassed that of the sun. The very angels stood in awe of him, and all creatures hastened to worship him. Then the Lord, in order to shew the angels his power, caused a sleep to fall on A., and removed a portion of every limb. A. thus lost his vast stature, but remained perfect and complete. His first wife was *Lilith*, the mother of demons; but she fled from him, and afterwards E. was created for him. At the marriage of A. and E., angels were present, some playing on musical instruments, others serving up delicious viands; while the sun, moon, and stars danced together. The happiness of the human pair excited envy among the angels, and the seraph Sammael tempted them, and succeeded in leading them to their fall from innocence.—According to the Koran, all the angels paid homage to A., excepting Eblis, who, on account of his refusal, was expelled from paradise. To gratify his revenge, Eblis seduced A. and E., and they were separated. Adam was penitent, and lived in a tent on the site of the temple of Mecca, where he was instructed in the divine commandments by the archangel Gabriel. After 200 years of separation, he again found E. on Mount Arafat. Many other traditions of the Jews and the Mohammedans respecting A. and E. may be found in Herbelot's *Bibliothèque Orientale*.—In the system of the Christian Gnostics and Manichæans, A. is one of the highest Æons.—According to the Calvinistic theology, A. was the *covenant head* or *federal representative* of the whole human race, who were thus involved in the consequences of his breach of the *Covenant* (q. v.) which God made with him at his creation. This view is supported by reference to the parallel drawn between A. and Christ in Rom.

v. and 1 Cor. xv., in the latter of which chapters Christ is called, in contradistinction to A., 'the second man,' and 'the last A.'

ADAM (of Bremen), an old historical writer, whose work entitled *Gesta Hammenburgensis Ecclesiæ Pontificum*, gives a history of the archbishopric of Hamburg from 788 A.D. to the death of the Archbishop Adalbert in 1072. This work has great historical value; in addition to its notices of ecclesiastical affairs, it gives accounts of the northern Slavonic tribes, which the author collected during a visit to the Danish king Svend-Estrithson. A. was canon and *magister scholarum* at Bremen from 1067 to the time of his death, which took place in 1076.

ADAM, ALEXANDER, LL.D., an eminent scholar and teacher, was born in the parish of Rafford, near Forres, in 1741. His father was a small farmer, with limited means and a numerous family, so that young Adam had to struggle through much hardship in the pursuit of the learning for which he thirsted. While studying at the University of Edinburgh, he had to support himself by giving private lessons, for which he was paid at the rate of one guinea a quarter. He breakfasted and supped on porridge and small-beer; a penny loaf served him for dinner. Such was the stern initiation—not, indeed, a singular case in Scotland—of the brave young scholar. His patient merits, however, soon gained recognition. A.'s first public office was that of classical master in Watson's Hospital, Edinburgh; and not long after (1761), he succeeded to the head-mastership of the institution. In 1768 he was appointed rector of the High School; and this situation he filled for nearly forty years with distinguished ability and success, giving himself to its duties with singular devotion, and raising the reputation of the school beyond what it had ever been before. In some of his efforts to that end he encountered such opposition as now seems almost fabulous. He composed a new Latin grammar (1772), in which he aimed at combining the study of English and Latin; but the town-council prohibited him from teaching it. In 1791 he published his *Roman Antiquities*, the work which did most to promote his reputation, and which, though now generally superseded by more accurate and comprehensive dictionaries, was for many years the best manual of the kind in existence. His *Summary of Geography and History* appeared in 1794, his *Classical Biography* in 1800, and his *Latin Dictionary*—an abridgment of a larger work unfinished at his death—in 1805. On the 18th of December 1809, Dr A. died of a fit of apoplexy, the effect of intense study, by which he had been seized in his class-room five days before. 'Amidst the wanderings of mind that accompanied it,' says the writer of the biography in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*—who afterwards filled his chair—'he was constantly reverting to the business of the class, and addressing his boys; and in the last hour of his life, as he fancied himself examining on the lesson of the day, he stopped short and said: "But it grows dark; you may go," and almost immediately expired.'

ADAM, ROBERT, a distinguished architect, was born at Edinburgh in 1728. His father, William Adam of Maryburgh, in Fifeshire, was also an architect of no mean repute. After receiving a university education, Robert A. proceeded in 1754 to Italy, and thence to Dalmatia, where he devoted some time, in conjunction with Clerisseau, a French architect, to exploring and making drawings of the ruins of Diocletian's palace at Spalatro. On his return to Britain he rapidly rose to distinction, was appointed architect to the king, and obtained extensive employment. The publication, in results of his labours at Spalatro, contributed to his reputation. In opposition to the heavy style of architecture prevalent at the time, A. introduced a taste for lightness and decoration, which, however, tended to the opposite extreme of weakness and triviality. Those, however, who form the lowest estimate of the general character of his designs, grant him the merit of having effected great reforms in British domestic architecture generally. In 1768 A. was elected M.P. for the county of Kinross. During upwards of twenty-five years, his practice, in partnership with his brother James, was more extensive than that of any other architect of the time. In 1773, the brothers commenced to publish a series of engravings of their chief designs, which was continued for some years. Robert died in 1792, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. The most generally admired of his works is the Register House, Edinburgh. Reddleston Hall, near Derby, is regarded by some as his greatest work. Among his other principal works are the University buildings and St George's Church, Edinburgh (both altered from the original design), the Glasgow Infirmary, the Adelphi buildings, London, the screen to the Admiralty, Caen Wood House, Luton House (altered), Lansdowne House, &c.

ADAMA'NTINE SPAR. See CORUNDUM.

A'DAMITES, a sect of fanatics who spread themselves in Bohemia and Moravia in the 15th and 16th centuries, but had no connection with the Hussites. One Picard is said to have been the founder of the sect about 1400. He styled himself Adam, the son of God, rejected the sacrament of the supper and the priesthood, and advocated the community of women. After his death, his followers spread themselves in Bohemia under several leaders. They even fortified themselves on an island in a tributary of the Moldau, and committed depredations around. They were detested as much by the followers of Huss as by the Catholics. Ziska (q. v.) made war against them, and slew great numbers; but they were never entirely rooted out. Even as recently as 1849, when the Austrian government declared religious liberty for all its subjects, certain members of this sect appeared and endeavoured to gain proselytes. The official investigation into their character which took place at that time, represents their creed as a mixture of freethinking, quietism, and communism. The members belong to the peasant or labouring class; and both men and women are generally industrious, temperate, and discreet in their ordinary course of life; but at their nightly meetings, at which they dispense with clothes, the utmost licentiousness is said to prevail.—As early as the 2d c., there was a sect of Gnostic tendency, called *Adamites*, who sought, by abstaining from all indulgence of the senses, to recall the state of innocence men were in before the fall. They therefore rejected marriage, and in order to exercise the virtue of continence, went naked. They held that for those who had once attained the state of innocence, all actions were alike indifferent—neither good nor evil. This doctrine led directly to the greatest licentiousness. Aberrations of this kind, under various disguises and modifications, have made their appearance from time to time in all ages of the world.

ADAM'S BRIDGE, a chain of shoals extending across the Gulf of Manaar, between Ceylon and the peninsula of Hindostan. It forms a great obstruction to vessels proceeding through the channel.

ADAM'S PEAK, the name given by
medans, and after them by Europeans, to
summit in the south of Ceylon, 7420
however, the highest of the group).

name is Samanhela. The cone forming the summit is a naked mass of granite, terminating in a narrow platform, in the middle of which is a natural hollow, five feet long, artificially enlarged, having a rude resemblance to a human footstep. Mohammedan tradition makes this the scene of Adam's penitence, after his expulsion from Paradise; he stood a thousand years on one foot, and hence the mark. To the Buddhists, the impression is the *Sri-pada*, or sacred footmark, left by Buddha on his departure from Ceylon. Over the sacred spot stands a temple, like a wooden canopy, and multitudes of devotees, Buddhist, Hindu, and Mohammedan, frequent it.

ADAMS, JOHN, the second president of the United States of North America, was born at Braintree, in Massachusetts, on the 19th of October 1735. His parents were descended from a Puritan family which had emigrated from England to Massachusetts in 1640. Before the revolution, A. had distinguished himself as a jurist, and wrote in the *Boston Journal* an essay on *Canon Law and Feudal Law* (1765). He was sent by Massachusetts to the congress which commenced its sittings in Philadelphia in 1774. With Lee and Jefferson, he boldly argued for a separation from the mother-country; and Lee's proposition of a declaration of independence was carried on the 4th of July 1776. A. and Jefferson had been appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence, but it appears that Jefferson is the sole author of it. In succeeding years, A. was employed on many important negotiations with European powers; among others, he assisted Franklin, Jay, Jefferson, and Laurens, in 1782, in settling the conditions of peace with England. In 1785 he came to London as the first ambassador from the Union. George III. expressed his pleasure in receiving an ambassador who had no prejudices in favour of France, the natural enemy of the English crown, and A. replied: 'I have no prejudices but in favour of my native land.' He published in London his *Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States* (3 vols. 1787). On his return to America, in the same year, he was elected as vice-president of the United States, and on the retirement of Washington (in 1797) became president. The enmity of the democratic party, which had already been excited against him, was now increased by the measures which he judged necessary to uphold the national honour against the pretensions of France, and still more by his decided favour for a hereditary aristocracy. In 1801, when his term of four years of office had expired, his adversary Jefferson was elected by a majority of one vote. A. now retired to his estate of Quincy, near Boston, where he occupied himself with agricultural pursuits. After this retirement, he received many proofs of respect and confidence from his countrymen. When 85 years old, we find him still in his place as member of the convention appointed (1820) to revise the constitution of Massachusetts. He died on the 4th of July 1826, on the fiftieth anniversary of the day when he had proclaimed in congress the independence of the United States.

ADAMS, JOHN COUCH, discoverer, simultaneously with Le Verrier, of the planet Neptune, was born near Launceston in Cornwall, 1816. He early manifested an aptitude for mathematics; and after the usual amount of school-training, he was sent to St John's College, Cambridge, where he attained the honour of senior wrangler, and became a mathematical tutor. In 1841, he undertook to find out the cause of the irregularities in the motion of Uranus, anticipating, indeed, his own and Le Verrier's discovery—namely, that they are due to the influence of an unknown planet. Le Verrier did not commence his researches till the summer of 1845; but on the 10th of November published the results of his calculations, demonstrating the existence of an unknown planet, declaring it to be the cause of the known disturbance, and assigning to it almost the same place as A. had done in a paper which he left with the Astronomer Royal at Greenwich Observatory in the previous October, but which he neglected to publish. Le Verrier has thus acquired, naturally, the whole honour of the discovery; but the merit of A. is not less. The researches of the latter commenced earlier; his discovery, too, was earlier; and it was only unfortunate for the reputation of the young astronomer that he omitted to publish the results he had obtained. The council of the Royal Astronomical Society shewed that they appreciated the value of A.'s labours, by awarding equal honours to both. In 1858, A. was appointed to the chair of mathematics in St Andrews, which, however, he vacated within a few months, on being nominated to the Lowndean Professorship of Astronomy, Cambridge.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY, the sixth president of the United States of North America, and son of the second president, was born in Massachusetts, July 11, 1767. In his boyhood he accompanied his father on an embassy to Europe, and passed a considerable part of his youth in Paris, at the Hague, and lastly in London. When his father was elected president, the younger Adams was sent on an embassy to Berlin, and travelled through Silesia. Of this country he gave a description in his letters, which were first published in the *Portfolio*, a Philadelphia journal, and afterwards translated into French and German. In his political views, A. perfectly agreed with his father, and, consequently, he was recalled from Berlin when Jefferson was elected president in 1801. On his return to America, he was engaged as professor of rhetoric, at Harvard University, in Massachusetts, the stronghold of the federalists; but he soon left his academical post to engage again in politics, and was chosen as senator for Massachusetts. He soon became prominent as a leader of the federal party; but in later years he adroitly changed his course, and seemed inclined towards the party of Madison. By Madison he was sent as plenipotentiary to Russia, and afterwards to England. On this embassy he took a part in the negotiation of peace with England, and assisted with his counsel the deputies sent from America to Ghent. When Monroe was elected president, he recalled A. from Europe, and made him secretary of state. On the retirement of Monroe from office, A. gained the presidency, after a hard contest against Jackson, in February 1825. He had now to strive against democratic majorities; for, though he endeavoured to make himself popular by betraying the schemes of his former political associates, he could never win the confidence of the growing party of democrats; and on the expiration of his term of office, he had to give place to General Jackson. A. retired to his estate of Quincy, near Boston; but in 1830 was chosen as representative of his district. He now joined the party of abolitionists, and frequently raised the whole House of Representatives against himself by his incessant petitions on the slavery question. On one occasion (in 1842), in order to assert strongly in the abstract the right to petition, he went so far as to present a petition for the dissolution of the union! This was misunderstood, and turned against him. He died at Washington during the session of congress, February 17, 1848. Among American statesmen of the old school, he was one of the most able, and, as a diplomatist, was well acquainted with foreign relations.

ADAMS, SAMUEL, one of the leading men of the American revolution, was born at Boston, U.S., September 27, 1722. His political leanings were early manifested; on taking the degree of A.M. at Harvard College, 1743, he maintained the affirmative of the question: Whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate, if the commonwealth cannot be otherwise preserved? He intended at first to become a clergyman, but afterwards commenced a small business, and was made a collector of taxes. He displayed on all occasions an unflinching zeal for popular rights, and was, by the patriotic party, placed in the legislature in 1766. A. was a member of the first congress, and signed the declaration of independence in 1776. He took an active part in framing the constitution of Massachusetts, and was for several years president of the senate of that state. He held the office of its lieutenant-governor from 1789 to 1794, and of governor from that time till 1797. He then retired from public life, and died at Boston, October 2, 1802, poor as he had lived. A.'s character was one of great courage and determination. He was, at the same time, somewhat narrow-minded and bigoted, both in religion and politics. He was prejudiced against Washington, whose conduct of the war his ignorance of military matters led him to think weak and dilatory; and the confidence reposed in Washington, as first president of the republic, seemed to A. to savour of aristocracy.

ADA'NA, a Turkish ejalet or province in the south-east of Asia Minor, derives its name from its chief city Adana, containing 25,000 inhabitants. The city is distant almost thirty miles from Tarsus, on the way to Aleppo, commands the pass of the Taurus mountains, and carries on a considerable trade between Syria and Asia Minor. Pompey peopled the territory of Adana with pirates. The Syrian kings made the place a city, under the name of *Antiochia ad Sarum*, and on the ruins of Antiochia the caliph Haroun al Raschid built Adana. The present inhabitants are mostly Turks, mixed with some Greeks and Armenians.

ADANSON, MICHEL, a celebrated French botanist, born at Aix, April 7, 1727. He soon left the clerical profession, for which he was educated, and devoted himself to the study of natural history. In his early career, he entertained the ambition of superseding the Linnæan system by a clearer and more comprehensive method of arrangement. When about twenty-one years old, he went to Senegal in Africa, and, fearless of the unwholesome climate, stayed there five years, afterwards returning to France, with a large collection of specimens in natural history. Soon after his return, he laid before the French East India Company his plan of a colony on the African coast, in which all colonial produce was to be raised without slave-labour. But his plan was neglected. He published, in 1757, his *Histoire Naturelle du Sénégal*, and, in 1763, his *Familles des Plantes*, in which he endeavoured to give a new form to botany; but he could not prevail against the established Linnæan system. His next undertaking was one on a vast scale—nothing less than a complete Encyclopædia, for which he hoped to gain the patronage of Louis XV. and the Academy; but though his bold plan was regarded with admiration, he received little substantial encouragement. This, however, did not check his enthusiasm; he proceeded with the work until he exhausted his means. During the Revolution he fell into very indigent circumstances. When invited to become a member of the National Institute, he answered that he was unable to attend for want of a pair of shoes. Afterwards, he received a p a, and until the time of his death, August 3, 1806, he was earnestly devoted to the prosecution of his plan, too vast to be carried out by an individual.

ADANSO'NIA, a genus of the natural order *Sterculiaceæ* (q. v.), sub-order *Bombaceæ*, named by Linnæus in honour of the botanist Adanson (q. v.), and distinguished by a simple deciduous calyx, a very long style, with numerous stigmas, and a woody capsule containing a farinaceous pulp. The only known species, *A. digitata*, the *Baobab*, also called the Monkey-bread Tree, is a native of the tropical parts of Western Africa, but now introduced into the East and West Indies. It is the largest known tree—not indeed rising to a very great height, but exceeding all other trees in the thickness of its trunk (20—30 feet). Even its branches (60—70 feet long) are often as thick as the stems of large trees, and they form a hemispherical head of 120—150 feet in diameter; their outermost boughs drooping to the ground. The leaves are digitate or 7-fid; the flowers are white and extremely large, on drooping peduncles of a yard in length. The fruit (*Monkey-bread*) is of the size of a citron. The bruised leaves (*Lalo*) are mixed with the daily food of the inhabitants of tropical Africa; and Europeans in that country employ them as a remedy for diarrhœa, fevers, and diseases of the urinary organs. The pulp of the fruit, which is slightly acid and pleasant to the taste, is eaten with or without sugar; and the expressed juice mixed with sugar is much esteemed as a beverage, being very refreshing, effectual in quenching thirst, and regarded as a specific in putrid and pestilential fevers. The bark is said to be powerfully febrifugal.

ADDA, the Latin *Addua*, a river of Lombardy, rising in the Rhætian Alps above Bormio. It flows into the Lake of Como, issuing from which below Lecco, it traverses the plain of Lombardy in a direction S.S.E., passing Lodi and Pizzighetone, and falls into the Po about 8 miles above Cremona. It formerly bounded the republic of Venice and the duchy of Milan.

ADDER, a common English name of the Viper (q. v.), but also often more vaguely used for poisonous serpents of the family *Viperidæ*. Where the name occurs in the authorised version of the Scriptures, it appears to be always in this vague sense; although the terms in the same places of the original may probably be more precise. A very venomous serpent of New South Wales (*Acanthopis tortor*) is sometimes called the *Death* or *Black A.*

ADDISCOMBE. See CADET.

ADDISON, JOSEPH, the son of an eminent clergyman of the Church of England, was born at Milston, near Amesbury, in Wiltshire, on the 1st May 1672. After a preliminary education at various schools, he entered the university of Oxford when only fifteen years of age, where he greatly distinguished himself, especially by the facility with which he wrote Latin verse. He was originally intended for the church, but various circumstances conspired to draw him aside into literature and politics; the principal of which were, his acquaintance with Dryden, who honoured the young poet with his patronage, and his intimacy with Lord Somers, whose favour he gained by dedicating a poem to him on one of King William's campaigns. In 1699 he received a pension of £300 a year, and then set out on a continental tour. While in France, he perfected himself in the language of the country. On the outbreak of the Spanish war of succession, he departed to Italy, where he penned his charming 'Letter' to Lord Halifax. Towards the end of 1703, he returned h by way of Switzerland and Germany; but his ' of a 'place' were disappointed, for out of office. The battle of B

which occurred in the next year, presented a brilliant opportunity to him, which he did not fail to make the most of. The ministry wished the victory commemorated in verse, and A. was appointed to do it. Lord Godolphin, the treasurer, was so excessively delighted with the first half of the triumphal poem, that before the rest was finished, he made A. a Commissioner of Appeals. The poet was now fairly involved in politics. He accompanied Halifax to Hanover; became under-secretary of state in 1706, and in 1709 went to Ireland in the capacity of secretary to the Lord-lieutenant, where he also obtained the office of Keeper of the Records, worth £300 a year. In the same year, his friend Steele commenced *The Tatler*, to which A. soon became a frequent contributor. He also wrote a number of political articles in the *Whig Examiner*. On the 1st of March 1711, appeared *The Spectator*,

the most popular and elegant miscellany in English literature. It ceased to appear on the 6th of December 1712. A.'s fame is inseparably associated with this periodical. The quality of his genius is now determined by it, rather than by the cold, sonorous, artificial rhetoric of his *Tragedy of Cato*, which was extravagantly admired in his own day, and even later. He was the animating spirit of the magazine, and by far the most exquisite essays and criticisms which appeared in it are the work of his hand. Next followed a similar work, entitled *The Guardian*. In 1713 appeared *The Tragedy of Cato*, the popularity of which, considering its total absence of dramatic power, was amazing. It was generally understood to have a political as well as a poetical inspiration; but so prudently had A. expressed himself, that both parties, Whig and Tory, received its frigid declamation with rapture. It was translated into various European languages; and even the monarch of French criticism, Voltaire, held Shakspeare a barbarian in tragedy compared with our author. 'All the laurels of Europe,' says Thackeray, 'were scarcely sufficient for the author of this "prodigious" poem.' Every one in England praised it except Dennis. A. was called the 'great Mr A.' after that wonderful night in the theatre, when, as Pope says, 'the numerous and violent claps of the Whig party on the one side, were echoed back by the Tories on the other.' This enthusiasm was a delusion which time has effectually dispelled. In 1716, A. married the Dowager-countess of Warwick, and in the following year was appointed secretary of state. For neither of his new situations was he at all suited. Lady Mary Wortley Montague, in a letter to Pope, expressed her fear that 'a day might come when he would be heartily glad to resign both.' He was so extremely timid and awkward in large companies, that it was out of the question for him to attempt debating in parliament—a thing indispensable to one in his position. He consequently resigned in 1718. Then as to the other matter, Dr Johnson sarcastically remarks, that 'the lady was persuaded to marry him on terms much like those on which a Turkish princess is espoused—to whom the sultan is reported to pronounce: "Daughter, I give thee this man for thy slave."' No one can doubt that this marriage was a mistake on the part of A. His health had been for some time in a very precarious state; and at length, after an illness of a few months, he died at Holland House, Kensington, on the 17th June 1719, in the 48th year of his age, three years after what Thackeray calls 'his splendid but dismal union.' A. had appointed Mr Tickell his literary executor, who published his works shortly after in 4 vols. quarto. Besides those to which we have incidentally alluded, he wrote *A Treatise on the Usefulness of Ancient Medals, Especially in Relation to the Latin and Greek Poets*, which, however, excited little interest. He also left an unfinished work on *The Evidences of the Christian Religion*. But the most delightful and original of all his productions is that series of sketches in *The Spectator* of which Sir Roger de Coverley is the central figure, and Sir Andrew Freeport and Will Honeycomb the side ones. Sir Roger himself is an absolute creation; the gentle yet vivid imagination, the gay and cheerful spirit of humour, the keen, shrewd observation, and fine raillery of foibles which A. has displayed in this felicitous characterisation, render it a work of pure genius. But A. in prose is always excellent. He has given a delicacy to English sentiment, and a modesty to English wit which it never knew before. Elegance, which in his predecessors had been the companion of immorality, now appeared as the advocate of virtue. Every grace was enlisted in the cause of a benign and beautiful piety. His style, too, is perfect after its fashion. There are many nobler and grander forms of expression in English literature than A.'s, but there are none comparable to it in sweetness, propriety, and natural dignity. 'Whoever wishes,' says Dr Johnson, 'to attain an English style, familiar but not coarse, and elegant but not ostentatious, must give his days and nights to the volumes of A.' His various writings, but especially his essays, fully realised the purpose which he constantly had in view; 'to enliven morality with wit, and to temper wit with morality.' They materially helped to reform the manners of their time, and created, in addition, that class of readers, which has now become so prodigious in numbers, and on which all literature now depends for its support—the middle class. It must, however, be admitted, that since the beginning of the present century, their popularity has undergone a considerable decline. The chief cause of this is, that much in them relates to temporary fashions, vices, rudenesses, and absurdities which are now out of date. Yet, after making every abatement, it is certain that there are in the collected works of A. so many admirably written essays on subjects of abiding interest and importance, on characters, virtues, vices, and manners, which will chequer society while the human race endures, that a judicious selection can never fail to present indescribable charms to the man of taste, piety, philanthropy, and refinement.

A'DELAAR, CORD SIVERTSEN, one of the greatest naval commanders of the 17th c., was born at Brevig, in Norway, in 1622, and in his twentieth year was employed in the naval service of Venice against the Turks. Courage and good-fortune conspired in his favour. On one occasion, he broke through a line of sixty-seven Turkish galleys which surrounded his ship, sunk fifteen, burned several others, and destroyed about 5000 of the enemy. The various naval powers now contended for his services. Frederic III., by the offer of the then unheard-of salary of 7200 dollars per annum, engaged him as admiral of the Danish fleet; and, in 1675, under Christian V., he commanded the whole of the Danish naval force in the war with Sweden. He died at Copenhagen in 1675.

ADELAI'DE, the capital of the colony of South Australia, is situated on the Gulf of St Vincent, where the first settlers arrived on the 27th July 1836, without knowing where they were to locate themselves. It was not till March 1837 that the site of the capital was fixed, and the town-lands surveyed, the settlers living in the meantime in tents or in huts of mud, reeds, and brushwood. The town stands on both sides of the river Torrens, but at some distance from the sea. It is connected by railway with Port Adelaide, which stands on a creek about seven miles distant, and has a very fair harbour. The plan of the town is extensive, and the streets are broad. There are many fine buildings recently erected, and an unusual number of churches. Water is abundantly supplied by the river and by sinking wells. Around the city, a public demesne has been reserved, called the Parklands. Pop. (1871) 27,208.

A'DELSBERG, a district and market-town in Carniola, in the vicinity of which is a large stalactite cavern called the *A. Grotto*, through which flows a rapid stream. This cavern, the largest in Europe, is divided into the Old and the New Grotto: the former is 858 feet in length; the latter, 8550 feet in length, contains some most remarkable stalactites, among which is 'the curtain' (*vorhang*), a white semi-transparent wall. The grotto ends in two paths, one of which leads to a lake, beyond which more wonders of nature are likely to be discovered. The cavern is shut, and can only be entered in company with an appointed guide. The town of A. is 22 miles N.E. of Trieste.

A'DELUNG, JOH. CHRISTOPH, a distinguished linguist and lexicographer, was born, 1732, in Pomerania, and died, 1806, at Dresden, where he had held the office of chief-librarian. His chief works are his *Wörterbuch der Hochdeutschen Mundart* (Dictionary of High German), in which he took Dr Johnson as his model; and his *Mithridates oder allgemeine Sprachenkunde*, a work on general philology.

A'DEN, a peninsula and town on the south-west coast of Arabia. The most southern promontory of the peninsula, Cape Aden, is in N. lat. 12° 47', and E. long. 45° 9'. This peninsula, the area of which is 18–20 square miles, is doubtless of volcanic origin, and consists chiefly of a range of hills not exceeding 1776 feet in height. It is joined to the mainland by a narrow, level, and sandy isthmus. In a valley which forms the crater of a submarine volcano, stands the town of A., which is also named from the neighbouring promontory, Bab-el-Mandeb, or the Gate of Mandeb. It was styled by the native Arabs Aden or Eden (Paradise), on account of its fine climate and great commerce, for which it was celebrated from the oldest times. It enjoys almost perpetual sunshine; a cloudy day is of rare occurrence; the heat is pleasantly tempered by the sea-breezes; and the inhabitants are generally healthy. Pliny the Elder seems to have known the native name of the place, for which he writes 'Athana.' It was also known by the name of 'Emporium Romanum.' Up to the time of the circumnavigation of Africa, A., so favourably situated at the entrance of the Red Sea, was the chief mart of all Asiatic produce and manufactures, and even the Chinese traded here. Marco Polo and other voyagers of the middle ages told wonders of the riches and splendour of the place. In the course of time, however, it was reduced to a small village, which in 1838 contained only about 600 inhabitants, including some 250 Jews and about 50 Indian merchants. The Anglo-Indian government had long been on the outlook for a speedy route by steam from India to Europe. The explorations on the river Euphrates afforded no satisfactory results, and ultimately the old commercial route by the Red Sea was chosen. This, of course, gave to the shores and harbours of that sea a new importance, and the English soon saw the advantages of a position like that of A. About this time, a British vessel suffered shipwreck off the coast of A., where the passengers were plundered and in other ways ill treated by the natives. A vessel was therefore despatched from Bombay, in 1838, to compel the sultan of the country to make restitution, and also to learn on what terms the Arabs would be willing to cede A. to the English. Captain Haynes, by fair promises, succeeded in gaining a cession of the country from the sultan, a weak and covetous old man. Afterwards, fearing the displeasure of some neighbouring tribes, and partly moved by the suggestions of religious sheiks, the sultan repented of the transaction, but was held to his contract by force of arms; and on January 11, 1839, after a few hours' contest, A. fell into the hands of the British. Here they have now a strong garrison and fortifications. In its medieval prosperity, A. had had a magnificent system of cisterns for collecting the rain-water from the circle of hills that surround it. Who built them is unknown; but it is conjectured that they had been begun about the 6th or 7th century. They had been allowed to fall into disuse, and were filled with rubbish, and in ruins; but recently a considerable number have been excavated and restored by the British government. If all restored, they seem capable of containing 30 million gallons. Owing to the hard and naked character of the rocks, there is little absorption, and a few hours of rain send torrents down the ravines, which soon fill the cisterns. A. is of great importance in a mercantile and nautical point of view, having a position between Asia and Africa like that of Gibraltar between Europe and Africa. The population and resources of the place have rapidly increased since 1838. It has now a busy population of 20,000, gathered from every nation under heaven. Aden is a telegraphic station on the cable between Suez and Bombay, laid down in 1870.

A'DERSBACH ROCKS, a remarkable labyrinthine group of sandstone rocks situated near the village of Adersbach, in Bohemia. The aspect of some parts of the group has been compared to that of a city ruined by a conflagration. One of the pinnacles rises to a height of 218 feet. The structure of the rocks has been produced, not by any commotion of the earth, but by the influences of rain, frost, and other atmospheric changes, wearing down the soft sandstone into many fantastic forms. During the Thirty Years' War, the miserable people of Bohemia often found refuge in this locality.

ADHE'SION is the species of attraction that is manifested between two separate bodies when their surfaces are brought to a considerable extent into close contact. It is nearly allied to Cohesion (q. v.). Adhesion is seen in the case of two solid bodies

when their polished surfaces are laid on one another; but it acts more powerfully between solids and fluids, owing to their intimate contact. We have instances of this in the film of water adhering to any body dipped in that fluid, and in water running down the side of an inclined vessel from which it is being poured. All solids and liquids do not exhibit this mutual attraction. Thus, though bright metals are wetted by mercury, glass and wood are not; nor does water adhere to fat. Capillary attraction (q.v.) is a special manifestation of adhesion.—The adhesion of gases to the surface of solids is described by Liebig as playing an important part in many processes. A more or less condensed atmosphere of gases surrounds every body, and every particle of a powdered or porous body; and gases, such as oxygen, have in this condition an intensified chemical action. Platinum in the state of powder condenses 800 times its volume of oxygen; and when hydrogen comes in contact with the oxygen in this state, the two gases combine, though, when free, they require the application of flame before they will combine.

ADHESION, in Pathology, is when two surfaces of a living body become united. If they have been separated by the cut of a sharp instrument, and are immediately and accurately placed in apposition to each other, they may adhere at once without any apparent bond of union. But, generally, the blood-vessels of the part pour out, between the surfaces, a fluid, consisting of the watery part of the blood holding fibrine in solution. The liquid part of this is reabsorbed or escapes from the wound, leaving the fibrine, in which first cells are developed, and then blood-vessels: it is now a living tissue, and forms a uniting medium between the sides of the wound.

Serous membranes, as the pleura, pour out this fluid when inflamed; and hence the adhesions so often the result of pleurisies.—If two granulating (see GRANULATIONS) surfaces be kept in contact, the opposite granulations may fuse together, and the wound unite by secondary adhesion.

ADIA'NTUM. See MAIDENHAIR.

A'DIGÉ, after the Po, the most important river in Italy, rises in the Rhætian Alps. Various streamlets descend from these mountains, and, uniting at Glarus, form the Etsch, which is, properly speaking, the beginning of the A., and the name by which the entire river is known in Germany. From Glarus it flows east into the Tyrol, then, after a slight *détour* to the south-east, it flows due south past Trent and Roveredo, into Lombardy, and, passing Verona, takes a south-eastern sweep, discharging its waters into the Adriatic, between the mouths of the Po and the Brenta. In ancient times (when it was called the *Athesis*), it had a more northerly *embouchure*. It is very rapid, and subject to sudden swellings and overflowings, which cause great damage to the surrounding country. The two most remarkable inundations on record are those which occurred in 1721 and 1724. During the Italian wars, its banks were repeatedly the scenes of bloody engagements. Its length is about 250 miles; its breadth in the plain of Lombardy, 650 feet; its depth, from 10 to 16 feet. It is navigable as far as Trent, but the navigation is rendered extremely arduous, on account of the swiftness of the current. The A. is a transit-river for the trade of Germany and Italy.

ADIPOCE'RE (Lat. *adeps*, fat, and *cera*, wax), a substance resembling a mixture of fat and wax, and resulting from the decomposition of animal bodies in moist places or under water. Human bodies have been found, on disinterment, reduced to this state. Lean beef kept under running water for three weeks, was found reduced to a fatty substance. A piece of a liver that has suffered what is called fatty degeneration, if immersed for some time in water, is said to become exactly like A.

A'DIPOSE TISSUE is a peculiar kind of animal membrane or tissue, consisting of an aggregation of minute spherical pouches or vesicles filled with fat or oil. The tissue itself is organic and vital, the vesicles secreting the fatty matter from the capillary blood-vessels with which they are surrounded; the secreted product, or fat (q. v.), is inorganic, and devoid of vitality. The adipose tissue differs from cellular or filamentous tissue in having the vesicles closed, so that the fat does not escape even when fluid. A dropsical effusion, which infiltrates the filamentous tissues, does not affect the adipose tissue. There is a considerable layer of adipose tissue immediately under the skin; also around the large vessels and nerves, in the omentum and mesentery, around the kidneys, joints, &c.

Adipose Tissue, magnified.

A'DJECTIVE is the name of one of the classes into which grammarians have divided words. An adjective is so called, not so much from its *being added* to a substantive, as because it *adds* to the meaning, or more exactly describes the object, than the simple substantive or general name does. The effect of an adjective is also to limit the application of the name to which it is joined. Thus, when *tall* is joined to *man*, there is more meaning conveyed; there are more properties suggested to the mind by the compound name *tall man*, than by the simple name *man;* but *tall man* is not applicable to so many individuals as *man*, for all men that are not tall are excluded.—Nouns, or names of things, are often used in English as adjectives; thus, we say a *silver chain*, a *stone wall*. In such expressions as 'Income Tax Assessment Bill,' *Income* plays the part of an adjective to *Tax*, which is, in the first place, a noun; the two together then form a sort of compound adjective to *Assessment;* and the three, taken together, a still more compound adjective to *Bill*, which, syntactically, is the only noun in the expression. This usage seems peculiar to English.—Languages differ much in their way of using adjectives. In English, the usual place of the adj. is before the noun. This is also the case in German; but in French and Italian, it comes after. In these languages, again, the adj. is varied for gender, number, and, in the German, for case. In English it is invariable; and in this simplicity there is a decided superiority; for in modern languages these changes in the adj. serve no purpose. The only modification the Eng. A. is capable of is for degrees of comparison.

ADJUDICA'TION is a technical term used in the practice both of the English and Scotch law, but with a totally different meaning in the two systems. In the law of England, the term A. is commonly used to denote the judicial determination at a certain stage of the proceedings in bankruptcy. The procedure is regulated by 32 and 33 Vict. c. 71. The petition prays that the trader may be adjudicated a bankrupt, and, after proof of the petitioning creditor's debt, and of the Act of Bankruptcy (q. v.), which must have been committed within twelve months before the issuing of the fiat, an A. is made by the court that the party is bankrupt. Formerly, a trader might be adjudicated bankrupt summarily, and without previous petition for A.—namely, where, after filing a petition for arrangement with his creditors, he appeared not entitled to the benefit of the arrangement. See BANKRUPTCY. In *Insolvency*, which differs from bankruptcy in this

respect, that it is not confined in its operation to traders, or to any particular class of men, but applies to the community at large, the A. is made by the debtor delivering into the London Bankruptcy Court, if the debtor resides or carries on business within the district of that court, or in the Bankruptcy Court of the district within which he resides or carries on business, a declaration admitting his inability to pay his debts, which may be used as the ground of an A. by his creditors, if the court think it requisite; or if the creditors neglect to pass a resolution for liquidation or composition, or resolve in favour of bankruptcy; or if after the passing of a resolution for liquidation or composition, the court shall for some sufficient cause adjudge the debtor bankrupt. This A. authorises the discharge of the prisoner from custody as to all debts and sums of money due or claimed to be due to his several creditors. See INSOLVENCY.

The distinction between bankruptcy and insolvency has for some time been generally disapproved in England; and it may now be held as practically abolished. The Insolvent Debtors Court is abolished, and its jurisdiction transferred to the Bankruptcy Court. Insolvent persons can now be adjudged bankrupts in every case in which their creditors wish that, or the court think it proper.

In the law of Scotland, *A.* signifies a process by which creditors may attach heritable or real property of their debtors. It applies to real estate in its most extensive signification, including not only feudal rights, but all rights or interests affecting or connected with land, such as bonds and mortgages, as also annuities, and all rights 'having a tract of future time,' life-interests, reversions, rights of lease, offices of dignity or jurisdiction, personal rights to lands, a certain class of personal bonds, rights of patronage, stock of any chartered bank, with, where the process of arrestment (the process, in the Scotch law, for attaching personal estate; see ARRESTMENT) is excluded, the husband's right in his wife's real estate, fair, harbour, and ferry duties, entailed estates during the life of the heir, and the like.

The arrangements for the equitable administration of this law are regulated by various orders of the Scotch courts and by different statutes.

There are various other forms of the A. in the Scotch law, one of the most important and useful of which is called the A.-in-implement, a form of legal proceeding devised for the completion of defective titles to landed property.

ADJUSTMENT, in the Law of Insurance, is the ascertaining the exact amount of indemnity which the party insured is entitled to receive under the policy, and fixing the proportion of the loss to be borne by each underwriter. The nature and amount of damage being ascertained, an endorsement is made on the back of the policy, declaring the proportion of loss falling on each underwriter; and on this endorsement being signed by the latter, the loss is said to have been adjusted. After an A. has been made, it is usual for the underwriter at once to pay the loss. As a question of law, however, it does not appear to have been decided how far the A. is conclusive and binding upon the underwriters. In the opinion of some mercantile lawyers, the A. is merely presumptive evidence against an insurer, and it is, notwithstanding, open to the underwriter to shew facts which, if proved, would have the effect of relieving him from liability.

ADJUTANT, as the derivation of the word implies (*adjuvare*, to help), is the title of an officer who assists the commanding-officer of a garrison or regiment in all the details of duty. He receives orders, and promulgates them to the several companies; he inspects escorts and guards before proceeding on their duty; attends to the drill of recruits, is accountable for the keeping of the regimental books, and ought to note every infraction of established rules. An *Adjutant-general* performs analogous duties for the general of an army. He keeps an account of the strength of each regiment, distributes the orders of the day to the brigade-majors, and sees the troops drawn up for action. The *Adjutant-general of the Forces* is an officer of high rank at the Horse-Guards. To him all communications are addressed regarding leave of absence, discharging, recruiting, &c. Besides the adjutant-general at the Horse-Guards, there are deputy and assistant adjutants-general for special military districts.

ADJUTANT (*Ciconia Argala*), a bird closely allied to the Stork, made by some naturalists the type of a separate genus, *Argala*. Adjutant is the popular name given to it by the English in India—*Argala* the native name. It is a native of the warmer parts of India. It is of large size, and has

Indian Adjutant.

very long legs; in its erect attitude, it is about five feet high; its extended wings measure fourteen or fifteen feet from tip to tip; its head and neck are nearly bare; a sausage-like pouch hangs from the under part of the neck; the bill is of enormous size. It is very voracious, swallows a cat or a leg of mutton quite readily, and is of great use in devouring snakes, lizards, and all sorts of offal. It sometimes catches birds upon the wing. The beautiful Marabou feathers are obtained from the under side of the wings of this bird, and of another very similar species which inhabits Senegal.

AD LIBITUM (in Ital., *a piacere*, or *a piacimento*) is a musical term which implies that the part so marked may be performed according to the taste of the performer, and not necessarily in strict time. When there is an accompaniment to the music thus marked, it must strictly follow the ad libitum time of the principal performer. Sometimes the words, *colla parte*, meaning with the leading part, are written over the accompanying parts. Ad Libitum also frequently means, that a part for a particular instrument or instruments, in instrumental scores or pianoforte arrangements, may either be played or entirely left out; thus: 'Overture arranged for the pianoforte as a duet,

with ad libitum accompaniments for the violin, flute, or violoncello.'

ADMINISTRATION, in Politics, in its widest sense, is equivalent to the executive government of a state, as distinguished from its permanent constitution, and embraces not only the political ministry, but all the offices of judicature, &c. In a more restricted sense, as used in England, it designates the Privy Council (q. v.), and more especially that select committee of it known as the Cabinet or Ministry (q. v.).

ADMINISTRATION and ADMINISTRATOR. An administrator, in the law of England, is the person to whom, in default of an executor named in the will, the ordinary or bishop of the diocese commits the administration or distribution of the estate of a person dying intestate.

ADMINISTRATION OF CHARITIES falls in the last resort to the sovereign as *parens patriæ;* and in the case of any charity being dilapidated or abused, the attorney-general will file an information in the Court of Chancery. The A. of C. is now, however, chiefly regulated by 16 and 17 Vict. c. 137, by which the crown is empowered to appoint commissioners and inspectors for the purpose. The act contains a reservation of the rights of the Church of England; and it does not extend to the universities, or to such charities as are partially dependent on voluntary contributions. Charities for Roman Catholic purposes were also excluded from its operation for two years, and this term has been extended by subsequent enactments.

ADMINISTRATOR-IN-LAW. In the Scotch law, a father is A.-in-L. for his children, and as such, is their guardian during minority. This power in the father ceases by the child's discontinuing to reside with him, unless he continues to live at the father's expense; and in the case of daughters, it ceases on their marriage.

ADMIRAL, the title of the highest rank of naval officers. The word is generally supposed to have been derived from the Arabic *Emir* or *Amir*, a lord or chief (*Amir-al-Mumenim*, 'Commander of the Faithful;' *Amir-al-Omra*, 'Commander of the Forces'). Thus the early English form was *Amiral* or *Ammiral* (occurring once in *Par. Lost*); and so it is still preserved in French. In Spanish the word is *Admirante* or *Almirante;* in Italian, *Ammiraglio*. The term seems to have been introduced into Europe during the Crusades, and to have been first used in a definite sense by the Sicilians, and afterwards by the Genoese. About the end of the 13th c. it came into use in France and England. The first English Admiral of the Seas (*Amiral de la Mer du Roy d'Angleterre*) of whom there is record was William de Leybourne, 1286. His office, however, was not that of a commander, but embraced those general and extensive powers afterwards associated with the title of Lord High Admiral of England; that is, both the administrative functions now vested in the *Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty* (five in number), and the judicial authority belonging to the present *High Court of Admiralty*. The office of Lord High Admiral was last filled by H.R.H. the Duke of Clarence, afterwards William IV. It had previously been in commission from 1708 to 1827. On his resignation in 1828, the office was again put in commission. See ADMIRALTY, COURT OF.

In the British navy, the admirals are distinguished into three classes: Admirals, Vice-admirals, and Rear-admirals; the admiral carrying his colour at the main, the vice-admiral at the fore, and the rear-admiral at the mizzen mast-head. In former times, each grade was subdivided into three sections, known as Admirals (or Vice or Rear-admirals) of the Red, of the White, and of the Blue, respectively. The flag hoisted by the admiral (thence called a flag-officer) agreed in colour with his section; and all the ships under his command carried ensign and pendant of the same hue; but the distinction was otherwise without practical effect. *Admiral of the Fleet* is a higher rank, conferred at the will of the sovereign. The rates of full or sea pay of flag-officers are as follow: Admiral of the fleet, per day, £6; admiral, £5; vice-admiral, £4; rear-admiral, £3. An admiral commanding-in-chief receives £3 a day additional at home, and £4, 10s. abroad, as table-money, when his flag is flying within the limits of his station. By an order in council, 1870, the number of flag-officers in the British navy was reduced to 50: viz. 3 admirals of the fleet, 7 admirals, 15 vice-admirals, and 25 rear-admirals. The number of admirals on 'reserved half-pay' and 'retired' amounts (1873) to 159. The admiral of the fleet takes rank with a field-marshal, admirals with generals, vice-admirals with lieutenant-generals, and rear-admirals with major-generals.

ADMIRALTY COURT. This court, the object of which is to try and decide maritime causes, is said by Sir Henry Spelman and Lambard to have been first erected by Edward III. Till recently, the maritime courts of England were divided into the *Instance Court* and the *Prize Court;* and these courts were in reality separate tribunals. The same judge usually presided in both, but his authority to hear and decide questions as to prizes of war was under a special and separate commission, issued at the commencement of each war; and the court itself existed only during the war, or until the litigations to which it had given rise were brought to a conclusion. In this respect it differed from the Instance Court, which was a permanent institution. The jurisdiction in question of booty of war, and the distribution thereof, has now, however, been conferred on the A. C. itself, and the Prize Court has thus been virtually abolished (3 and 4 Vict. c. 65, s. 22; see also Kerr's *Blackstone*, viii. p. 77). By a later statute, jurisdiction relating to the attack and capture of pirates is vested in the A. C. in this country, and in the vice-A. courts abroad (13 and 14 Vict. c. 26, 27). Whilst there was a Lord High Admiral, the judge of the A. C. usually presided in virtue of a patent from him; but since the office has been intrusted to commissioners, the judge holds a direct commission from the crown under the great seal. By 3 and 4 Vict. c. 65, s. 1, the Dean of the Arches is authorised to sit for the judge of the A. C. in certain cases; and advocates, surrogates, and proctors of the Court of Arches are admitted to practise in the A. C. (s. 2). The proceedings of the A. C., like those in the ecclesiastical courts, were originally based on the civil law, and upon this account it is usually held at Doctors' Commons. But it is merely as the basis of the earlier mercantile codes, such as the Rhodian laws and those of Oleron, and by no means exclusively, that the civil law is of authority in these courts. Questions of the utmost nicety in the law of nations fall to be decided by maritime courts in time of war; and it was as an A. judge that many of the most remarkable of Lord Stowell's famous judgments were pronounced. The appeal from the A. C., which was originally to the king in Chancery, and afterwards to certain commissioners of appeals, consisting chiefly of the privy council, and not of judges delegated by that body, is now to the judicial committee of the privy council (3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 41). The jurisdiction of the vice-A. courts in the colonies and foreign dominions of the Queen has been extended and defined, and

their procedure regulated by statute (2 Will. IV. c. 51). Appeals from these courts formerly lay to the A. C. in England, and were also competent to the Queen in council; but, like those from the A. C. itself, they are now carried to the judicial committee (3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 41, s. 2). The civil jurisdiction of the A. Courts was greatly extended by 3 and 4 Vict. c. 26, by which their practice was much improved. It now extends generally to all marine contracts and other questions of maritime right, such as disputes between part-owners of a ship, suits for mariners' and officers' wages, suits for pilotage, suits on bottomry and respondentia bonds, and relating to salvage, wreck, collision of ships, &c. In criminal matters, the A. C. formerly took cognizance of piracy and other offences on the sea, or on the coasts beyond the limits of any county, and, concurrently with the common law courts, of certain felonies committed in the main stream of great rivers below the bridges. The criminal jurisdiction of the A. is regulated by 4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 36, and 7 and 8 Vict. c. 2. By the former statute, the judge of the A. is made one of the judges of the Central Criminal Court, and that court is empowered to try offences committed within the jurisdiction of the A. By the latter, any court of assize, oyer and terminer, or jail-delivery, may inquire of and determine such offences without special commission. Since the passing of these enactments, the criminal jurisdiction of the A. C. may be regarded as obsolete. There is a separate Court of A. in Ireland. The A. C. of Scotland has been abolished, and its ordinary jurisdiction transferred to the Court of Session, the Court of Justiciary, and the sheriffs; questions of prizes, captures, condemnations, and the like, being vested exclusively in the High Court of A. in England.

ADMIRALTY DROITS are a portion of the hereditary revenues of the crown, arising from enemies' ships detained in the prospect of a declaration of war, or coming into port in ignorance of the commencement of hostilities, or from such ships as are taken by non-commissioned captors, the proceeds of wrecks, the goods of pirates, and the like. The proceeds of the Droits of A. are now paid into the Exchequer for the public use.

ADMIRALTY ISLAND lies on the N.W. coast of N. America, between 57° 2′ and 58° 24′ lat. N., and 134° 52′ and 135° 30′ long. W. It is about 80 miles long, well wooded and watered. It is inhabited, and belongs to Russia.

ADMIRALTY ISLANDS, a group of about 40 islands, to the N.E. of New Guinea, between 2° and 3° lat. S., and 146° 18′ and 147° 46′ long. E. They were discovered by the Dutch in 1616. The largest is about 50 miles long from E. to W. They abound in cocoa-nut trees, and are inhabited by a race of tawny frizzle-headed savages.

ADO'NIS, a mythical personage, whose beauty as a child so attracted the love of Venus and Proserpine, that they quarrelled about the possession of him. Jupiter, appealed to, settled the dispute by deciding that A. should spend part of the year with Venus, and part with Proserpine, so that he lived eight months of the year in the upper world, and four in the under. A. was afterwards killed by a boar while hunting, and Venus, coming too late to his rescue, changed his blood into flowers. —A yearly festival was celebrated in honour of A., and consisted of two parts—a mourning for his departure to the under world, and a rejoicing for his return to Venus. This festival, widely spread among the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, was celebrated with peculiar pomp at Alexandria. Connected therewith were the Gardens of A., as they were called. Before the festival, wheat, fennel, and lettuce were sown in earthen, and even in silver

Adonis.

pots, and forced by heat; intended to indicate, doubtless, by their brief bloom, the transitoriness of earthly joy. The myths connected with A. belong originally to the east. They display a worship of the powers of nature conjoined with that of the heavenly bodies, and A. himself appears to be the god of the solar year. The similarity of the name to the Phœnician *Adon*, which signified 'lord,' is unmistakable; and this word Adon was specially applied to the king of heaven, the sun.—In reference to the brilliant beauty ascribed to A., a beautiful man is called 'an Adonis.'

ADONIS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Ranunculaceæ* (q. v.), in which the flower has 5 sepals and 5—10 petals without scales at the base, and the fruit consists of awnless pericarps. The species are all herbaceous—some of them annual and some perennial. Several are natives of Europe, but only one, *A. autumnalis*, sometimes called Pheasant's Eye, is a doubtful native of Britain. Its bright scarlet petals have obtained for it the name of *Flos Adonis*, their colour having been fancifully ascribed to their being stained with the blood of Adonis. It is a well-known ornament of our gardens; in which also *A. æstivalis* frequently appears, and *A. vernalis*, a perennial species common upon the lower hills of the middle and south of Germany, with early and beautiful flowers.

Adonis autumnalis.

ADO'PTIAN CONTROVERSY, The, was an echo of the Arian controversy, and originated about the end of the 8th c. in Spain, the country in which the doctrine of Arius had longest held out. Elipandus, Archbishop of Toledo, and Felix, the learned Bishop of Urgel, advanced the opinion that Christ, in respect of his divine nature, was doubtless by nature and generation the Son of God; but that as to his human nature, he must be considered as only declared and adopted, through the divine grace, to be the first-born Son of God (Rom. viii. 29), just as all holy men are to be adopted as sons of God, although in a less lofty sense. The flame of controversy thus kindled, spread into the Frankish empire, the special domain of 'Catholic' Christianity, and gave occasion to two synods, one held at Ratisbon (792), and another at Frankfort (794), in which Charlemagne took part in person, and which condemned Adoptianism as heresy. The Catholic doctrine of the unity of the two natures of

Christ in one divine person, and the consequent impossibility of there being a twofold Son—an original and an adopted—was upheld by Alcuin and the other learned men of Charlemagne's court. At a subsequent synod at Aix-la-Chapelle, Felix, yielding to compulsion, recanted his opinions, without, as it would seem, being convinced. Elipandus adhered fanatically to his views, which were, in after-times, defended by Folmar (1160), Duns Scotus (d. 1308), Durandus (d. 1322), the Jesuit Vasquez (1606), and the Protestant divine Calixtus (1643).

ADOPTION (Lat. *adoptio*). A legal institution of much importance in both of the classical nations of antiquity. A., in the stricter sense, in the Roman law, applied only to the case in which a person in the power of his father or grandfather was transferred to that of the person adopting him. Where the person adopted was already emancipated from the paternal power (*patria potestas*), and was regarded by the law as his own master (*sui juris*), the proceeding was called adrogation (*adrogatio*). A., however, was also used as a generic term comprehending the two species; and in Greece, where there was nothing corresponding to the paternal power of the Romans, this distinction did not obtain. At Athens, the adopted child was transferred from his own family and parish or tribe (*demos*), into those of the adoptive father, whose property he inherited in the absence of legitimate children, and whose sacred rights he was bound to maintain. Only Athenian citizens could be adopted, so that not only the next of kin, but the whole community were interested in preventing fraudulent adoptions. With this view, registration in the demus of the adoptive father was requisite, in order to entitle the son to the rights of citizenship as a member of it. In Rome, the adopted child assumed the name, and became bound to discharge the religious duties, of the adoptive father, which usually consisted in sacrifices to the *penates* or other divinities. These observances were for the most part connected with the *gens* or tribe to which the individual and his family belonged; and Savigny has even denied the existence of *sacra* peculiar to the family. A. was effected under the authority of a magistrate, the prætor at Rome, or the governor (*præses*) in the provinces. Adrogation originally required a vote of the people in the *Comitia Curiata;* but under the emperors, it became the practice to effect it by an imperial rescript. A patrician was sometimes adrogated into a plebeian family for political purposes. Clodius, the enemy of Cicero, was so adrogated, in order that he might be eligible to a tribuneship of the people. If a father, having children in his power, was adopted, both he and his children passed into the power of the adoptive father. It was requisite that the adoptive father should have no children at the time, and no reasonable prospect of having any. He was also required to be older than the person adopted. Females could not be adrogated, nor, from their not sharing in the paternal power, could they adopt in any form. An opposite rule has prevailed where the institution has been received in modern times. A. was unknown to the law of the Teutonic nations; and though most of the states of the continent have borrowed it from the Roman law, it has never existed as an institution either in England or Scotland. The patrimonial benefits of A. may, however, be conferred by deed; and there is no illegality in any one assuming the name, arms, and other distinguishing characteristics, and corresponding responsibilities, of a person who does not belong to his family. In France, A. is recognised only in a very modified form (*Code Civil*, art. 343, *et seq.*).

ADOU'R, a river in France, rises near Tourmalet, in the department of the Upper Pyrenees, waters in its course of 200 miles the department Gers, and the fertile part of the department Landes, and enters the Atlantic below Bayonne. It receives several tributaries, and is navigable to the extent of 80 miles. Bagnères-de-Bigorre, celebrated for its hot baths, is situated on the A.

A'DRIA, in the province of Rovigo, Northern Italy, is situated between the river Po and the Adigé, contains about 10,000 inhabitants, and is chiefly remarkable as being one of the oldest cities in Europe. According to tradition, it was founded by the Pelasgi, 1376 B.C. In the time of the Romans, A. was one of the most frequented harbours in the Adriatic Sea; but by the continual deposition of alluvium on the east coast of Italy, it has been gradually separated from the sea, from which it is now almost ten miles distant. It still retains several interesting remains of Etruscan and Roman antiquity; but its wine, formerly so celebrated, is now deplorably bad.

A'DRIAN, the name of six popes, none of them very remarkable. A. IV. was by birth an Englishman, the only one of that nation that ever sat in the papal chair. His name was Nicolas Breakspeare. He was a native of Langley, near St Albans, became first a lay-brother or servant in the monastery of St Rufus, near Avignon, and in 1137 was elected abbot. His zeal for strict discipline raised a combination to defame his character, and he had to appear before Eugenius III. at Rome. Here he not only cleared himself of all charges, but acquired the esteem of the pope, who appointed him cardinal-bishop of Albano in 1146. On the death of Anastasius in 1154, he was raised to the papal see. A. was at first on friendly terms with the Emperor Frederic I.; but his high notions of the papal supremacy, which he carried as far as even Gregory VII., led to the beginning of that long contest of the popes against the house of Hohenstaufen, which ended in the destruction of the dynasty. He was about to excommunicate Frederic, when he died at Anagni, 1159. It was in A.'s time that the doctrine of Transubstantiation (q. v.), advanced by Petrus Lombardus, was established.

A'DRIANOPLE, the second city in the Turkish empire, was founded by the Emperor Hadrian on the left bank of the navigable river Hebrus (now Maritza). Here the sultans ruled from 1366 to 1453, when Constantinople was made the capital. The city has now about 150,000 inhabitants, the half of whom are Turks. Two palaces, forty mosques, twenty-four public schools, twenty-two baths, and the numerous gardens laid out on the banks of the Maritza, may be named as the principal features of A. Its trade consists in opium, oil of roses, with silk and other manufactures.—The Russian-Turkish war was here concluded, September 19, 1829, by the Peace of A., which left the Porte in possession of Wallachia, Moldavia, and the conquests made by Russia in Bulgaria and Roumelia. On the other side, Russia got possession of the whole of the coast of the Black Sea, from the mouth of the Kuban, in lat. 45° 15', to the haven of St Nichola, lat. 42°, with the territories of the Caucasus, and the greater part of the pachalic of Akalzik. This Peace of A. served greatly to confirm the power of Russia in Eastern Europe and in Western Asia.

ADRIA'TIC SEA, a large arm of the sea, extending, in a north-westerly direction, between the east coast of Italy and the west coast of the opposite continent, being connected with the Ionian Sea by the Strait of Otranto. In the north, it forms

the Gulf of Venice, and in the north-east, the Gulf of Trieste; while, on the Italian side, it forms the bays of Ravenna and Tremiti, and the narrower and deeper Gulf of Manfredonia. On the other side, the coasts of Illyria, Croatia, Dalmatia, and Albania are steep, rocky, and barren, and begirt with a chain of almost innumerable small rocky islands. The chief bay in this side is that of Quarnero, lying south of the peninsula of Istria. The most considerable rivers flowing into the A. S. are the Adige and the Po, which are continually depositing soil on the coast, so that places once on the shore are now inland. The extreme saltness of the A. is probably owing to the comparatively small quantity of fresh water poured into it by rivers. Navigation in the A. is safe and pleasant in summer, but in winter the north-west gales are formidable, on account of the rocky and dangerous coasts on the east. Trieste, Ancona, and Sinigaglia are the chief places of commerce.

ADU'LE, an ancient town on the coast of the Red Sea, was the port of Axum, and is noticed chiefly on account of an inscription, of some importance relative to the ancient geography of those regions, the *Monumentum Adulitanum*, first published, in the 6th c., in the *Topographia Christiana* of Cosmos Indicopleustes. The modern town is called Zulla.

ADULTERATION OF FOOD, &c. The more important adulterations will be noticed under the various articles. See also FOOD.

ADU'LTERY (Lat. *adulterium*) has been well defined as 'the voluntary sexual intercourse of a married person with a person other than the offender's husband or wife.' (*Bishop on Marriage and Divorce*, § 415). By the Roman law, there was no A. unless the woman was married, and the same was the rule in Athens. It was in this limited form also that A. was recognised by the Mosaic law. By the canon law, the husband and wife were placed on the same footing; and this view has been adopted by all the nations of modern Europe. In the American state of New Jersey, it has been decided that a married man does not commit this crime in having connection with an unmarried woman. (Bishop, *ibid.*) But such has not been the prevalent doctrine even in America; and it has never been doubted that the offence necessary to found the sentence of divorce is committed by unlawful sexual intercourse equally whether the *particeps criminis* were married or single. A. was recognised as a crime even before Moses (Gen. xxxviii. 24), and it is probable that in affixing to it the punishment of death (Lev. xx. 10), he followed the prevailing custom. A very remarkable law was introduced for the trial of A., by causing the woman suspected to drink the bitter waters of jealousy (Numb. v. 26). In Rome, the Julian law, enacted in the time of Augustus (17 B.C.), revised the previous legislation on the subject, and imposed special penalties, consisting of forfeiture of goods and banishment, both on the adulteress and the paramour. The husband, in certain cases, was permitted to kill the latter, and the father might sometimes kill both. A constitution of Constantine, the authenticity of which has been doubted, made A. a capital offence on the man's part. Whatever Constantine's law was, it was confirmed by Justinian, who further condemned the wife to be whipped, and imprisoned in a convent for the rest of her days, unless relieved by her husband within two years (*Novel*, 134, c. 10). The offence was visited in Athens with punishments closely resembling those of the earlier Roman legislation. In many continental countries, A. is still treated as a criminal offence, but in none of them does the punishment now exceed imprisonment for a limited period, which is frequently accompanied with a fine. Lord Coke says, that by the law of England in early times, A. was punished by fine and imprisonment (3 *Inst.* 306). During the Commonwealth, it was made a capital offence (*Scobel's Acts*, part ii., p. 121); but this law was not confirmed at the Restoration. In Scotland, the records of the Court of Justiciary shew that capital punishment was frequently inflicted. At the present day, it is punishable in Great Britain only by ecclesiastical censure; and even this may be regarded as in desuetude. But when committed by the wife, it was regarded as a civil injury, and, till the passing of the stat. 20 and 21 Vic. c. 85 and 59, formed the ground of an action of damages for criminal conversation (commonly known as an action of *crim. con.*) by the husband against the paramour. No corresponding action was competent to the wife, either in England or America; and her only remedy consisted in obtaining a separation or divorce. In Scotland, A. forms a ground for dissolution of the marriage, at the suit of the injured party. See SEPARATION, DIVORCE.

A'DVENT, or Time of Advent (Lat. the approach, or coming), a term applied, by the Christian Church, to certain weeks before Christmas. In the Greek Church, the time of A. comprises forty days; but in the Romish Church, and those Protestant Churches in which A. is observed, only four weeks. The origin of this festival, as a Church ordinance, is not clear. The first notice of A., as an appointment of the Church, is found in the Synod of Lerida (524 A.D.), at which marriages were interdicted from the beginning of A. until Christmas. The four Sundays of A., as observed in the Romish Church and the Church of England, were probably introduced into the calendar by Gregory the Great. It was common from an early period to speak of the coming of Christ as *fourfold:* his 'first coming in the flesh;' his coming at the hour of death to receive his faithful followers (according to the expressions used by St John); his coming at the fall of Jerusalem (Matt. xxiv. 30); and at the day of judgment. According to this fourfold view of A., the 'gospels' were chosen for the four Sundays, as was settled in the Western Church by the *Homilarium* of Charlemagne. The festival of A. is intended to accord in spirit with the object celebrated. As mankind were once called upon to prepare themselves for the personal coming of Christ, so, according to the idea that the ecclesiastical year should represent the life of the founder of the Church, Christians are exhorted, during this festival, to look for a spiritual advent of Christ. The time of the year when the shortening days are hastening toward the solstice—which almost coincides with the festival of the Nativity—is thought to harmonise with the strain of sentiment proper during A. In opposition, possibly, to heathen festivals, observed by ancient Romans and Germans, which took place at the same season, the Catholic Church ordained that the four weeks of A. should be kept as a time of penitence; according to the words of Christ: 'Repent, for the kingdom of heaven is at hand.' During these weeks, therefore, public amusements, marriage-festivities, and dancing were prohibited; fasts were appointed, and sombre garments were used in religious ceremonies. The Protestant Church in Germany has also abstained from public recreations and celebrations of marriage during A. It was perhaps a natural thought to begin the ecclesiastical year with the days of preparation for the coming of Christ. This was first done by the Nestorian Church in the East in the 6th c.; the example was soon followed in

Gaul, and afterwards became general throughout the west.

ADVERB. As an adjective is joined to a noun, so is an A., for analogous purposes, to a verb, an adjective, or another A. From the frequency with which adverbs are joined to verbs, they get their name. An A. cannot be the subject, the copula, or the predicate of a proposition; and is, therefore, a secondary part of speech, logically speaking. According to their signification, adverbs may be divided into –1. Adverbs of Place, as, *where, towards;* 2. of Time, as, *ever, immediately;* 3. of Degree, as, *very, almost;* 4. of Manner, as, *thus, wisely;* 5. of Belief or Doubt, as, *perhaps, no,* &c.— It is commonly said, that 'some adverbs admit of comparison;' as if in this respect they differed from adjectives. The truth is, that adverbs admit of comparison under the same limitations, neither more nor less, that restrict the comparison of adjectives. Thus, *soon* is compared as naturally as *hard.* If *now* or *thus* cannot be compared, neither can *wooden* nor *circular;* and in both cases, for the same reason—the sense forbids it. The laws of euphony prevent alike *miserable* and *miserably* from being compared grammatically, i. e., by the addition of *er* and *est;* but both admit of logical comparison by the use of *more* and *most.*—A large class of adverbs in English are formed from adjectives by annexing the syllable *ly,* which is just the word *like.* Most languages have some such means of distinguishing the A. from the adjective, except the German, in which they are alike. Adverbs in general may be looked upon as abbreviations of phrases; thus, *here* = *in this place, then* = *at that time, wisely* = *like a wise man.* Combinations of words that can thus be represented by a single adverb, and all combinations that are analogous, though they may have no single word equivalent to them, are called adverbial expressions.

ADVERTISEMENT (Fr. *avertissement*). The public notification of a fact. This is now commonly effected either by means of the ordinary newspapers, or of newspapers, printers' lists, and other publications specially devoted to the purpose. Advertisements, both printed and written, are still posted on church-doors, and other places of public resort, in which case they are commonly called bills or placards. The most formal kind of A., and that which is employed in the case of royal proclamations and the like, is publication in the *Gazette* (q.v.); but so little is the *Gazette* read by private persons, that, as regards the customers, publication in it alone is not a sufficient notice of a dissolution of partnership to free the partners from debts afterwards contracted in name of the company. Public notifications are frequently enjoined by statute; as, for example, under Road and Bridge Acts, the Bankrupt Statutes, &c. In many other ways, their legal effects are important. Advertisements by public carriers, railway companies, and the like, are equivalent to offers whereby the advertiser will be bound to those who send goods on the faith, and in accordance with the terms of the A. By advertising a *general ship,* for a particular voyage, the master places himself on the footing of a public carrier, and is bound to receive goods for the port to which the vessel is advertised to sail. A merchant in such circumstances can insist on his goods being received, unless the ship be full, or the entire freight engaged. The contract of affreightment is completed by the A., and the shipping of the goods in conformity and with reference thereto. See CHARTER PARTY, CARRIER. In 1833, the duty on advertisements, which was 3*s.* 6*d.* in Great Britain, and 2*s.* 6*d.* in Ireland for each A., was reduced to 1*s.* 6*d.* in the former country, and 1*s.* in the latter (3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 23). In 1853, it was wholly repealed (16 and 17 Vict. c. 62). In 1832, the year previous to the reduction, the duty amounted to £170,650; in 1841 it was £131,608; and in 1853, the year of the repeal, it had increased to £180,000, thus exceeding the amount before the period of reduction. Advertisements are found in England as early as the middle of the 17th c.; but advertising was not general till the beginning of the 18th. In America, where advertising has never been taxed, it has long been practised to an enormous extent; and since the repeal of the duty, it has increased in this country at a very rapid rate. Most newspapers are rendered remunerative to their proprietors only by means of the advertisements which they contain. See NEWSPAPER.

ADVICE. See BILL OF EXCHANGE.

ADVOCATE (Lat. *advocatus*). An A. is generally defined 'the patron of a cause,' though it does not appear that the 'patrons' who, in ancient Rome, assisted their clients with advice and pleaded their causes, were ever called by that name. Even in the time of Cicero, the term *advocatus* was not applied to the patron or orator who pleaded in public, but rather, in strict accordance with the etymology of the word, to any one who in any piece of business was *called in* to assist another. There can be no doubt, however, that the forensic orators and jurisconsults of the later period of the republic, who followed law as a profession, and received fees (*honoraria*) for their services, occupied a position closely analogous to that of the A. of modern times, and thus it has been said that the profession is older than the name. The occupations of a jurisconsult and a forensic orator seem to have differed pretty much as those of a consulting and a practising counsel do with us. They might be exercised separately, but were generally combined; and thus Cicero speaks of his master, Scævola, as 'the most eloquent of the learned, and the most learned of the eloquent' (jurisperitorum eloquentissimus, eloquentium jurisperitissimus, *De Or.*, i. 39). Ulpian defined an A. to be any person who aids another in the conduct of a suit, or action (*Dig.* 50, *tit.* 13), and in other parts of the digest it is used as equivalent to an orator (see also Tacit. *Annal.*, x. 6), so that the word would seem gradually to have assumed its modern meaning. The office of the A. or barrister who conducted the cause in public, was, in Rome, as with us, altogether distinct from that of the procurator, or, as we should say, attorney or agent, who represented the person of the client in the litigation, and furnished the A. with information regarding the facts of the case. The distinction between these two occupations, however, obvious and important as it seems to us, does not everywhere prevail; and in many of the states of Germany, in Geneva, in America, and in some of our own colonies, as, for example, in Canada, they are united in the same person. In England and Ireland, advocates are called *Barristers,* under which title will be found a statement of the duties and responsibilities which the A. undertakes to his client, and of the state of the profession in these countries. In Scotland, as in France, the more ancient name has been retained. See ADVOCATES, FACULTY OF.

In France, the *avocat* and *avoué* correspond very nearly to the barrister and attorney in England. The advocates do not form a corporation, in the technical sense, but are a free society or association (*ordre*), which has the power of protecting its members, and of exercising internal surveillance and discipline over them. Neither do they exercise any ministerial functions like those which public authority has conferred, under certain conditions and responsibilities, on avoués and notaries. The French A. is

simply a free man, who has graduated in law, and possesses the privilege of addressing the tribunals. The advocates who practise in each court form a separate college, admission to which can be obtained only with the approval of those who are already members. Enrolment in the books of the college does not confer the title of A., for this title belongs to every licentiate who has taken the oaths before a court; but it gives the right of communicating (*droit de communiquer*) with the other members of the body, without which the exercise of the profession would be impossible. As a necessary consequence of this arrangement, erasure of the name of any individual from the list is equivalent to a prohibition to practise. The French A. possesses the same privileges as to irresponsibility for his advice, and for the facts contained in his instructions, which belong to members of the corresponding branch of the legal profession in this country. He is also entitled to plead covered (see BARRETTE), and as he has no action for his fees, they are, as with us, paid in advance. The French advocates have, on several occasions, resisted, as an encroachment on their privileges, the attempt to compel them to grant receipts for their fees. It further belongs to the etiquette of the bar of France that, in communicating articles of process to each other, no acknowledgment shall be exchanged; and we are told, with honest pride, that during the many centuries that this custom has existed, not one single instance of its abuse has occurred.

In Belgium, in Geneva, and also in those of the German states by which the Code Napoleon has been received, the organisation and discipline of this branch of the legal profession are similar to those which prevail in France. In the other German states, with the exception of Saxony, the formation of the advocates into a body has been perseveringly resisted by the governments. A general assembly of German advocates was attempted at Mayence in 1844, and in Hamburg in 1846; and in the latter city, it actually took place in the following year, but it led to no permanent results.

ADVOCATE, LORD. The L. A. for Scotland, called also the King's or Queen's A., is the public prosecutor of crimes, senior counsel for the crown in civil causes, and a political functionary of very great importance in the management of Scottish affairs. He may issue warrants for arrestment and imprisonment in any part of Scotland, and possesses many other discretionary and indefinite powers. Previous to the Union, the King's A. had a seat in the parliament of Scotland *ex officio;* and since that event, he has been almost invariably a member of parliament. He is appointed by the crown, and his tenure of office ceases with that of the administration of which he is a member. As first law-officer of the crown for Scotland, the L. A., when in parliament, is expected to answer all questions relating to the business of Scotland, and to take the superintendence of legislation for that portion of the United Kingdom. Notwithstanding his multifarious official duties, the L. A. accepts ordinary practice at the bar, and, indeed, is usually the most extensively employed practitioner connected with the party in power. He is assisted in the duties of public prosecutor by the solicitor-general, and by four junior barristers, called advocates-depute, appointed by himself. The L. A. and solicitor-general are alone entitled to plead within the bar, and they are the only barristers in Scotland who have the distinction of silk gowns. When the L. A. declines to prosecute, it is competent for a private party to do so; and in this case the concurrence or 'concourse,' as it is called, of the L. A., which is granted as a matter of course, must be obtained. Such a proceeding, however, is scarcely known in practice in Scotland. The best historical account of this important, and, in many respects, anomalous office, with which we are acquainted, is contained in the judgment of the late Lord Medwyn in King's A. against Lord Douglas, December 24, 1836. In England, the sovereign pursues in his own name; and such was the practice in Scotland also, till about the middle of the 16th c., when we find Queen Mary prosecuting by her advocate; probably in imitation of the French custom. For some time after the institution of the College of Justice in 1532, the A. for the crown was always one of the judges of the Court of Session, and as in France the king's advocates were also at the same time judges, this coincidence has been mentioned by Sir George Mackenzie in proof of the French origin of the office; but a combination of offices, now held to be incompatible, was not then uncommon. Lord Medwyn informs us that among the original fifteen ordinary judges, was Sir Adam Otterburne, who was King's A. from 1525 to 1538, and also provost of Edinburgh from 1524 to 1535. So late as 1686, Sir George Lockhart, when president of the court, was ordered by a letter from King James VII. to officiate as his A. in parliament. It is not certain that the King's A. was originally authorised to act as public prosecutor in crimes; but he certainly possessed that power in 1587 (c. 77), and it seems to be implied in an earlier statute (1579, c. 78). It was indeed, as Lord Medwyn remarks, less of an anomaly that a judge of the Court of Session should act as the representative of the crown in criminal than in civil causes, seeing that the former were adjudged in another court. The King's A. is first mentioned as *Lord* A. in the record of the Court of Justiciary in 1598. But although it was not till the institution of the College of Justice that this office was placed on its present footing, we have mention of its existence in 1479; but the King's A. was not then one of the officers of state, a dignity, indeed, which he does not seem to have attained till 1540. In 1582, the salary of the L. A. was only £40 Scots. His present salary is £2387, and he is entitled to perquisites which raise his emoluments greatly above that sum. The L. A.'s depute has £500 a year, and his secretary in London £350. The crown-agent, who is a Writer to the Signet (q. v.), and who performs in reference to crown causes pretty much the same duties that fall to an attorney or agent in ordinary litigation, receives £1400. As to the relation in which the L. A. stands to the public prosecutors of crimes in the inferior courts, see PROCURATOR-FISCAL. The L. A., though not a privy-councillor, is, by courtesy, addressed as the Right Honourable during his tenure of office.

ADVOCATES, FACULTY OF, in Scotland. The constitution of this body, like the name by which its members are known, was unquestionably derived from France. The profession seems to have existed in Scotland from a very early time; and in 1424 (c. 45) a statute was passed for securing the assistance of A. to the poor. The words of the statute are remarkable, and its spirit, when we consider the period, highly creditable to the humanity and enlightenment of the Scotch. 'And gif there bee onie pure creature, for faulte of cunning, or dispenses, that cannot, nor may not follow his cause, the king, for the love of God, sall ordaine the judge before quhom the cause sulde be determined, to purwey and get a leill and a wise advocate, to follow sik pure creatures causes; and gif sik causes be obteined [gained], the wranger [wrong-doer] sall assyith baith the partie akaithed, and the advocatis coastes and travel.' This institution has remained with little alteration to the present time (see POOR'S ROLL). But though existing as a profession, the A. of Scotland did not form a Faculty or society till the institution of the

College of Justice (q. v.) in 1532. At first, their number was limited to ten, but there is now no limit. The number on the rolls of the body is about 425; but the number of those who practise does not exceed 120. Even of these a very small fraction live by the practice of the profession. From the improvements which have been made in the sheriff-courts, and from other causes, the amount of litigation in the Court of Session has greatly diminished since the beginning of the present century, and the continued accession of new members to the Faculty of A. is to be accounted for only by the fact that the Bar is still regarded as the regular avenue to public and official life in Scotland. Two examinations are imposed on candidates for admission, the one in general scholarship, the other in law; the first, however, being dispensed with in case the intrant shall produce evidence that he is a Master of Arts of any British university, or that he has attained such degree in a foreign university as, in the opinion of the Dean of Faculty and his council, affords evidence of the same amount of scholarship as that afforded by the degree of Master of Arts of a Scottish university. Should no such degree be possessed, an examination takes place before a committee of the Faculty, assisted by three or more persons of learning (generally professors in the university of Edinburgh), on the following subjects: 1. Latin; 2. Greek, or (in the intrant's option) any *two* of the following languages—namely, French, German, Italian, Spanish; 3. Ethical and Metaphysical Philosophy; 4. Logic, or (in the intrant's option) Mathematics. If the intrant be found qualified in general scholarship, he may, after the expiry of a year, go in for his private examination on law. The examinators, however, cannot take him on trial if, during the year before such examination, he have been engaged in any trade, business, or profession, either on his own account, or as assistant to, or in the employment of another. Proof of attendance on the law-classes in the university of Edinburgh is also requisite. An advocate is entitled to plead in every court in Scotland, civil, ecclesiastical, or criminal, superior or inferior; and also before the House of Lords. A party may manage his own cause in the Court of Session (q. v.), so far as oral pleading is concerned, but with exception of defences, every paper in process must be signed by an advocate. There is a widow's fund belonging to the body, which is also regulated by statute. The supreme judges of Scotland, and principal sheriffs, are always, and the sheriff-substitutes generally, selected from the bar. The fees on admission to the Faculty of A. are about £336.

ADVOCATES' LIBRARY. This library, which belongs to the Faculty of Advocates in Edinburgh, was established by Sir George Mackenzie in 1682. It had at first no fixed fund; the Faculty, from time to time, set apart sums for its maintenance, and donations were made for its use, not only by advocates, but by others. By the copyright law of 1709, it obtained, along with eight other libraries, the privilege of receiving a copy of every new book. This privilege is still continued to the A. L. (5 and 6 Vict., c. 45, s. 8), although withdrawn from the other Scottish libraries; and to this is mainly owing the complete character of the collection in British books. It is comparatively deficient in foreign literature and science; for the Faculty have no other funds at their disposal than the fees derived from 'intrants,' and the sum they are able to devote to the maintenance of the library is quite inadequate. The number of volumes is estimated at about 200,000—perhaps twice as many as any other Scottish library. It is particularly rich in law; in Scottish history and antiquities; in the works of the fathers and schoolmen, and in theology generally. The Spanish department is particularly valuable. Notwithstanding the unsuitable nature of the building for library purposes, the improvements made in 1871, especially in the lower library, have added much both to its appearance and the convenience of all who have to do with it. Although the library belongs strictly to the Faculty of Advocates, yet, under their liberal management, it has in a great degree the character of a public institution. Any stranger arriving in Edinburgh is admitted to see the library; and with an introduction, any one may resort to it to consult books. Books may even be borrowed through the members of the Faculty, who are remarkably liberal in this respect. Thomas Ruddiman and David Hume both held the office of librarian or 'keeper of the A. L.'

ADVOCATION, a form of process in the law of Scotland, to remove a cause from an inferior court to the supreme court, either for the purpose of review, or that the cause might be conducted in the Court of Session. Final judgments of inferior courts were brought under review of the Court of Session by lodging a written note of A. with one of the depute-clerks of Session or his assistant (1 and 2 Vict. c. 86). A certified notice of this proceeding put a stop to all further steps in the original cause. Caution used to be found for the expenses incurred, or which might be incurred, in the Court of Session. See CAUTION and JURATORY CAUTION. As a rule, A. was competent unless debarred by statute or confirmed practice; but no cause was advocated unless exceeding the value of £25 (16 and 17 Vict. c. 80, s. 22). A. was incompetent in actions limited to particular courts by express statute, e.g., by the Small Debt Acts, Road Acts, &c. Every case in which the claim exceeds £40 may be removed into the Court of Session, so soon as an order allowing a proof has been pronounced, should either party be of opinion that it ought to be tried by jury. The process of advocation was abolished in 1868, and all similar proceedings are now called appeals from the Sheriff Court, and it is not now necessary for the appellant to find caution for expenses before taking or prosecuting his appeal. This appeal cannot be taken after six months from the date of final judgment. It may be taken within twenty days after judgment, and thereafter may be taken up to six months, provided the decree has not been in the meantime extracted or implemented (31 and 32 Vict. c. 100, s. 64).

ADVOCA'TUS DIA'BOLI, the Devil's Advocate. In the Romish Church, when it is proposed that a deceased person shall be canonised, an examination of his past life takes place. In this process, one party holds the office of accuser, or *advocatus diaboli;* and it is his duty to bring forward all possible objections against the proposed canonisation; while, on the other side, the *Advocatus Dei* (God's Advocate) undertakes the defence. Hence the term A. D. has been applied to designate any person who brings forward malicious accusations.

ADVOW'SON. The right of presentation to a church or ecclesiastical benefice in England. Advowsons are either *appendant* or *in gross.* Lords of manors were originally the only founders, and, of course, the only patrons of churches; and so long as a right of patronage continues annexed or appended to the manor, it is called an A. appendant. Such rights are conveyed with the manor as incident thereto, by a grant of the manor only, without adding any other words. But where the property of the A. has been once separated from the property of the manor by legal conveyance, it is called an *A. in gross,* or at large, and is annexed to the person of its owner, and

not to his manor or lands. Advowsons are further divided into *presentative, collative, or donative.* The first is where the patron has the right of presentation to the bishop or ordinary, and may demand of him to institute his clerk, if he find him canonically qualified. This is the most usual A. The second or collative A. is where the bishop and patron are one and the same person. In this case, the bishop cannot present to himself, but he does by the one act of collation the whole that is done in common cases by both presentation and institution. The third or donative A. is when the sovereign, or a subject by his licence, founds a church or chapel, and ordains that it shall be at the sole disposal of the patron, subject to his visitation only, and not that of the ordinary, and vested in the clerk by the patron's deed of donation, without presentation, institution, or induction. 'This is said to have been anciently the only way of conferring ecclesiastical benefices in England; the method of institution by the bishop not being established more early than the time of Archbishop à Becket, in the reign of Henry II.'—*Kerr's Blackstone*, vol. ii. p. 20.

ÆDILES, Roman magistrates, who had the care of public buildings (*ædes*), especially the temples, and also attended to the cleansing and repairing of the streets, the preparations for funerals, public games and spectacles, the inspection of weights and measures, the regulation of markets, &c.—At first there were only two Æ., who were chosen from the plebeians, and styled *Æ. plebis;* afterwards, two others, styled *Æ. curules*, were chosen from the patricians (366 B.C.), and Julius Cæsar appointed a new order of *Æ. cereales* to take charge of the public granaries.

ÆGINA, now written Egina, an island forming part of the kingdom of Greece, of about forty square miles, in area, in the ancient Saronicus Sinus, now the Gulf of Egina. It is mountainous, with deep valleys and chasms; and the coast affords only one haven on the north-west. The modern town of Egina stands on the site of the ancient town, at the north-west end of the island. The island contains about 7000 inhabitants, who are chiefly occupied in trade, navigation, and agriculture. The soil produces the best almonds in Greece, with wine, oil, corn, and various fruits. Partridges abound in such numbers that the people find it necessary to thin them by destroying their eggs. The most ancient name of the island was Œnone, and, according to tradition, the Myrmidons dwelt in its valleys and caverns. In ancient times, the people of Æ. had considerable importance in Greece; and their fleet distinguished itself for valour in the battle of Salamis. Their prosperity excited the envy of the Atheniana, who made the island tributary, and afterwards expelled altogether the original inhabitants. The language, manners, and style of art among the ancient people of Æ. were Dorian.

ÆGINETAN SCULPTURES. The small island of Ægina holds an important position in the history of Grecian art. A severely natural character belongs to its works of sculpture, of which several have been discovered in modern times. On an eminence in the eastern part of the island stand the ruins of a temple, usually called the temple of Jupiter Panhellenius, but now believed to have been a temple of Pallas or Minerva. Among these ruins a series of statues were excavated by a company of Germans, Danes, and Englishmen, which, in 1811, were purchased by Louis, then crown-prince of Bavaria, and are now the most remarkable ornaments of the Glyptothek at Munich. They are of various heights, and were evidently intended to decorate the tympana of the temple beside which they were found. The group that

Ruins of Temple of Ægina.

seems to have been designed for the hinder tympanum is superior in preservation, and represents a combat of Greeks and Trojans for the body of a

Front elevation of Temple of Ægina, restored.

fallen hero. The other group is the contest of Telamon with Laomedon. The figures are true to nature, as in the old Greek style, with the structure of bones, muscles, and even veins, distinctly marked; but the faces have that unpleasant, forced smile which is characteristic of all sculpture before the time of Phidias.

Minerva, with Ægis.
From an ancient statue.

ÆGIS, the shield of Jupiter, which had been fashioned by Hephæstus (Vulcan). When Jupiter was angry, he waved and shook the Æ., making a sound like that of a tempest, by which the nations were overawed. The Æ. was the symbol of divine protection, and became, in course of time, the exclusive attribute of Jupiter and Minerva.

ÆGLÉ, a genus of plants of the natural order *Aurantiaceæ* (q. v.), distinguished by a five-toothed calyx, linear elongate mucronate anthers, and a many-celled fruit. *Æ. Marmelos*, the tree which produces the *bhel* fruit of India, has ternate petiolate, ovato-oblong leaves, and the flowers in panicles. It is found from the south of India to the base of the Himalaya Mountains. The fruit is delicious, fragrant, and nutritious. In an imperfectly ripened state, it is an astringent of great effect in cases of diarrhœa and dysentery; and as such has lately been introduced into English medical practice. The root, bark, and leaves, are also used as medicinal. The Dutch in Ceylon prepare a perfume from the rind of the fruit: and the mucus of the seed is employed as a cement for many purposes.

ÆGOSPOTAMI or **ÆGOSPOTAMOS** (Gr. Goat-river), in the Thracian Chersonese, is famous for the defeat of the Athenian fleet by the Lacedæmonians under Lysander, which put an end to the Peloponnesian War and to the predominance of Athens in Greece, 405 B. C.

ÆLFRIC, or **A'LFRIC**, a distinguished Saxon ecclesiastic of the 10th c., regarding whose age, writings, and personality even, there has been a great difference of opinion amongst antiquaries. He appears to have been the son of the Ealdorman or Earl of Kent; but early manifesting a devotional spirit, he entered the monastery of Abingdon, the members of which belonged to the Benedictine order. Towards the close of the 10th c., he became a priest in the cathedral of Winchester. He was next appointed Abbot of St Albans, then Bishop of Wilton, and finally Archbishop of York, although others appear to think him that *Æ.* who was Archbishop of Canterbury. *Æ.*, Archbishop of York, died in 1050; *Æ.*, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1005. The writer *Æ.*, whether of York or of Canterbury, was a man of superior attainments for his time, of excellent character, and one whose religious convictions were less disfigured by superstition than those of his contemporaries. The principal works ascribed to *Æ.* are – 1. A Latin and Saxon glossary, printed at Oxford in 1659; 2. A Saxon version of most of the historical books of the Old Testament; 3. A charge to his clergy; 4. Two volumes of Saxon homilies; 5. A Saxon grammar in Latin.

ÆMILIAN PROVINCES. See EMILIAN PROVINCES.

ÆMI'LIUS PAULUS. The most remarkable of this name was the son of the consul *Æ.* P., who fell in the battle of Cannæ, 216 B.C. Young Æmilius inherited his father's valour, and enjoyed an unwonted degree of public esteem and confidence. In 168 B.C. he was elected consul for the second time, and intrusted with the war against Perseus, king of Macedon, whom he defeated in the battle of Pydna. During the war, his two younger sons died; and *Æ.* is said to have thanked the gods that they had been chosen as victims to avert calamity from the Roman people.

ÆNEAS, the hero of Virgil's *Æneid*, was, according to Homer, the son of Anchises and Venus, and was ranked next to Hector among the Trojan heroes. The traditions of his adventures before and after the fall of Troy are various and discordant. Virgil gives the following version: Æneas, though warned by Priam in the night when the Greeks entered Troy, to take his household gods, and flee from the city, remained in the contest until Priam fell, when, taking with him his family, he escaped from the Greeks, but, in the confusion of his hasty flight, lost his wife Creusa. Having collected a fleet of twenty vessels, he sailed to Thrace, where he began building the city of Ænos, but was terrified by an unfavourable omen, and abandoned his plan of a settlement here. A mistaken interpretation of the oracle of Delphi now led him to Crete; but from this place he was driven by a pestilence. Passing the promontory of Actium, he came to Epirus, and then continued his voyage to Italy and round Sicily to the promontory of Drepanum on the west, where his father, Anchises, died. A storm afterwards drove him to the coast of Africa, and landing near Carthage, he was hospitably received and entertained by Queen Dido. His marriage with Dido was prevented by Jupiter, who sent Mercury with a command that Æneas must return to Italy. Accordingly, he sailed away, leaving the disappointed queen, who committed suicide. During his stay in Sicily, where he celebrated the funeral of his father, the wives of his companions and seamen, weary of long voyages without certainty of finding a home, set fire to his fleet. After building the city Acesta, he sailed for Italy, leaving behind him the women, and some of the men belonging to his fleet. On landing in Italy, he visited the Sibyl at Cumæ, and received intimations of his future destiny. Then, sailing along the Tiber, and landing on the east side of the river, he found himself in the country of Latinus, king of the Aborigines. Lavinia, the daughter of Latinus, had been destined to marry a stranger; but her mother had promised to give her in marriage to Turnus, king of the Rutuli. A war ensued, which terminated in the marriage of Æneas with Lavinia. Their son, ÆNEAS SYLVIUS, as the ancestor of the kings of Alba Longa, and also of Romulus and Remus, was regarded as the founder of the Roman empire. It is hardly necessary to add that all these statements are merely mythical, having no historical basis.

ÆO'LIAN HARP, a very simple musical instrument which produces harmonic sounds when placed in a current of wind. It is formed by stretching eight or ten strings of catgut, all tuned in unison, over a wooden shell or box, made generally in a form sloping like a desk. The sounds produced by the rising and falling wind, in passing over the strings, are of a drowsy and lulling character, and have been beautifully described by the poet Thomson, as supplying the most suitable kind of music for the *Castle of Indolence*.

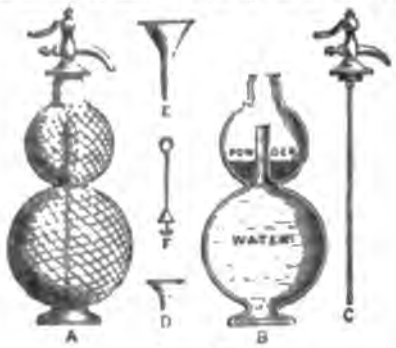
ÆO'LIANS, one of the principal races of the Greek people, who were originally settled in Thessaly, from which they spread and formed numerous settlements in the northern parts of Greece and in the west of Peloponnesus. In the 11th c. B.C., some part of them emigrated to Asia Minor, where they founded, on the N. W. coast, in Mysia, and the adjacent isles, more than thirty cities; among them, Smyrna, and Mitylene in the island of Lesbos, where the Æolian dialect of the Greek language chiefly developed itself in the forms employed in the poetry of Alcæus and Sappho. The Æolian shared the fate of the other Grecian colonies in Asia Minor. First oppressed by the Lydian kings, then deprived of their independence by the Persians, they became a portion of the great empire founded by Alexander, and, passing through a stage of subjection to the dynasty of the Seleucidæ, were ultimately absorbed in the Roman empire.

ÆON, a Greek word signifying an age, and also eternity. The Gnostics spoke of Æons, in a peculiar sense, as powers that had emanated from God before the beginning of time, and existed as distinct entities or spirits. They were called Æons either as partaking of the eternal existence of God, or because they were thought to preside over the various ages and transformations of the world. See GNOSTICISM.

A'ERATED BREAD is prepared by a process patented about ten years ago, and is now coming

into use in large cities. In ordinary bread-making, wheat-flour is moistened with water and worked into dough, to which common salt and yeast are added. The latter causes the flour to ferment or decompose, when carbonic acid is given off at every part; and when the fermented dough is placed in an oven, the bubbles of carbonic acid gas expand, and cause the formation of the spongy mass characteristic of good loaf-bread. The process of preparing A. B. consists in placing the flour in a strong enclosed iron box, and moistening it with carbonic acid water, prepared as stated under A. WATERS. The dough is then worked up by machinery for ten minutes or so inside the box, from which it is dropped into moulds, which form it into loaves. It is then placed in an oven, when the carbonic acid, previously introduced with the water within the dough, expands, and forms a light palatable bread. The advantages which this method of working bread possesses are—1. There is a saving of the whole of the waste caused by fermentation, which admits of more bread being made out of a sack of flour than by the old process. 2. The process, instead of occupying eight or ten hours, is completed in half an hour. 3. The cost of machinery and gas is less than that of yeast used in the old process. 4. The dough requires no handling to knead it, and form it into loaves. 5. The bread is absolutely pure—it is simply flour, water, and salt. Finally, should the whole of the bread in the kingdom be thus made, a very considerable saving would be effected in the consumption of flour.

AERATED WATERS are employed largely as refreshing, refrigerant beverages to allay thirst during warm weather, and during feverish conditions of the animal frame. The most common A. beverage is *Carbonic acid water*, generally spoken of as Soda-water, though it seldom contains any soda. It is prepared on the large scale by placing whiting, chalk, or carbonate of lime (CaO,CO_2) in a lead vessel



Gazogène.

with water and sulphuric acid (SO_3), when the sulphuric acid combines with the lime to form stucco or sulphate of lime (CaO,SO_3), and carbonic acid (CO_2) is evolved as gas. The latter is received in a reservoir, and is thereafter forced into water, so that the latter dissolves about five times its own volume of the gas. The water then constitutes a brisk sparkling liquid, with a pungent, but pleasant acidulous taste. On the small scale, and for family use, carbonic acid water may be conveniently prepared in the apparatus known as the *gazogène* or *seltzogène*. The complete apparatus is seen at A, and dissected at B and C. In proceeding to use the vessel, the lower globe at B is filled with water by means of the long funnel E, taking care that no water runs into the smaller and upper division. The powders, consisting of bicarbonate of soda ($NaO,HO,2CO_2$) and tartaric acid ($\overline{T}$), are then placed in the upper globe by means of the small funnel D, and care is taken, by plugging up the tube communicating with the lower part by the stopper F, that no powder passes into the larger globe. The long tube, C, is then inserted into the globes, and screwed well in. The apparatus is inclined till water from the lower globe enters and fills the upper globe about one-third; then it is placed erect, and allowed to be at rest for two hours, when, if the screw stop-cock at the upper part be opened, the carbonated water will flow out readily into any vessel placed to receive it. The explanation of the action which goes on in the vessel is, that tartaric acid and bicarbonate of soda have no action on each other so long as they are dry; but whenever water is admitted, the tartaric acid combines with the soda and water to form tartrate of soda and water ($NaO,HO,\overline{T}$), and at the same time, carbonic acid (CO_2) is given off, and descending the tube into the lower globe, dissolves in the water contained therein. Occasionally, bisulphate of potash is used instead of the tartaric acid, to save the greater expense of the latter.—The gazogènes can likewise be used in the preparation of true soda-water, or *Eau de Vichy*, by adding a little carbonate of soda to the water in the lower globe before charging with carbonic acid. *A. wine* may be obtained by placing white wine with a little sugar-candy in the lower globe instead of water. *Sparkling lemonade* is procured when the carbonic acid water is run into a tumbler containing a little sirup of sugar; and *A. fruit-beverages*, when the water charged with carbonic acid is received in a glass containing about a table-spoonful of either of the fruit-sirups.

The less common A. W., prepared on the large scale, are—1. *A. soda-water* (true soda-water), obtained by adding 15 grains of crystallised carbonate of soda to each bottle before it is charged with the carbonic acid water; 2. *A. potash-water*, by employing in a similar way 20 grains of bicarbonate of potash; 3. *A. Selters-water*, when carbonate of soda and chloride of sodium (common salt) are dissolved in carbonic acid water; 4. *A. Carrara-water*, when finely divided Carrara marble is dissolved in the acid-charged water; 5. *A. lime-water*, when other forms of lime than the Carrara marble are used; 6. *A. magnesian-water*, when magnesia, or the carbonate of magnesia, is used; and *A. chalybeate-water*, when a compound of iron is dissolved in the carbonic acid water. The latter beverage has lately been employed in medicine, as an easy means of introducing iron into the blood, and with good effect. A. Carrara and lime waters are now administered in cases where the bony structure requires to be strengthened; and A. magnesia-water is a very agreeable mode of giving a patient a dose of magnesia. The well-known effervescing draughts called *soda-powders*, and *seidlitz-powders*, are two other kinds of A. drinks. In the former, bicarbonate of soda and tartaric acid are added to water in a tumbler, and a refreshing draught instantaneously prepared. *Seidlitz-powders* contain tartrate of soda and bicarbonate of soda in one paper, and tartaric acid in the other; and when both are added to water, effervescence ensues, and the liquid is then partaken of.

A. W. likewise occur naturally. Water, as it is drawn from a spring, tastes differently from the same water after being boiled and cooled; and this is due to the unboiled water containing the gases oxygen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid—especially the latter—dissolved in it. Spring-water is therefore a natural A. beverage. Rain-water has a mawkish,

insipid taste, mainly because of the minute quantity of gas therein dissolved; but when that rain-water trickles down the mountain-side, and is dashed from ledge to ledge of rock, it absorbs and dissolves the gases from the air, and is thus naturally aërated. Many waters are aërated in a natural but peculiar way, which confers upon them important medicinal properties; and these will come before us under their more popular title of *Mineral Springs*.

AËRIAL POISONS. See MIASMA.

AËRODYNA'MICS is that branch of science which treats of air and other gases in motion. It examines first the phenomena of air issuing from a vessel, which correspond in many respects with those of water. See HYDRODYNAMICS. Much depends, as in the case of water, upon the nature of the orifice, whether a mere hole in the side of the vessel, or a tube or adjutage. Another subject of A. is the motion of air in long tubes, where the resistance of friction, &c., has to be ascertained. That resistance is found to be nearly in proportion to the square of the velocity, to the length of the tube, and inversely to its width. A. examines also the velocity of air rushing into a vacuum, of wind, &c. The instrument used for the latter purpose is called an anemometer. See WINDS. Air is found to rush into a void space at the rate of from 1300 to 1400 feet per second. One of the most important inquiries in A. is the resistance offered to a body moving in air, or—which is the same thing—the pressure exerted by air in motion upon a body at rest. The law may be stated, with sufficient accuracy for practical purposes, as follows: *The resistance or pressure is proportional to the square of the velocity.* We might conclude from reason, without experiment, that such would be the case; for if one body is moving through the air four times faster than another of the same size, not only will it encounter four times as many particles of air, but it will give each of them four times as great an impulse or shock, and thus encounter 4×4, or sixteen times as much resistance.

This resistance is greatly increased by another circumstance, especially with great velocities. The air in front of the moving body becomes accumulated or condensed, and a partial or even entire vacuum is formed behind it. With a velocity of 1700 feet per second, for instance, the resistance is found to be about three times as great as the simple law of the square of the velocity would give. By the operation of these laws of resistance, a heavy body let fall with a parachute attached to it, comes, after a certain time, to move with a velocity approaching more and more nearly to a uniform motion.

AËROLITES (Gr. *aer*, air, and *lithos*, stone), or METEORIC STONES, FIREBALLS, and SHOOTING-STARS, are now classed together as being merely varieties of the same phenomenon. Aërolites that fall during the day, are observed to be projected from a small dark cloud, accompanied by a noise like thunder, or the firing of cannon; at night, they proceed from a fireball, which splits into fragments with a similar sound. It is believed that the dark cloud that accompanies the fall of aërolites by day, would be luminous at night; and smoking, exploding fireballs have sometimes been seen luminous even in the brightness of tropical daylight. The connection between aërolites and fireballs is thus established. Fireballs, again, cannot be separated from shooting-stars, the two phenomena being sometimes blended, and also being found to merge into one another, both with respect to the size of their disks, the emanation of sparks, and the velocities of their motion.

There are numerous records and stories in all ages and countries of the fall of stones from the sky; but until recent times, they were treated by philosophers as instances of popular credulity and superstition. It was not till the beginning of the 19th c. that the fact was established beyond a doubt.—According to Livy, a shower of stones fell on the Alban Mount, not far from Rome, about 654 B.C. The fall of a great stone at Ægospotami, on the Hellespont, about 467 B.C., is recorded in the Parian Chronicle (q. v.), and mentioned by Plutarch and Pliny. It was still shewn in the days of Pliny (d. 79 A.D.), who describes it as of the size of a wagon, and of a burned colour. In the year 1492 A.D., a ponderous stone, weighing 260 lbs., fell from the sky near the village of Ensisheim, in Alsace; part of it is still to be seen in the village church. An extraordinary shower of stones fell near L'Aigle, in Normandy, on the 26th April 1803. The celebrated French philosopher, M. Biot, was deputed by government to repair to the spot and collect the authentic facts; and since the date of his report, the reality of such occurrences has no longer been questioned. Nearly all the inhabitants of a large district had seen the cloud, heard the noises, and observed the stones fall. Within an elliptical area of seven miles by three, the number of stones that had fallen could not be less than two or three thousand; the largest were 17 lbs. in weight. These are only a few out of hundreds of instances on record.

As was natural with objects of such mysterious origin, meteoric stones have always been regarded with religious veneration. At Emesa, in Syria, the sun was worshipped under the form of a black stone, reported to have fallen from heaven. The holy Kaaba of Mecca, and the great stone of the pyramid of Cholula, in Mexico, have all the same history.

The existence of such bodies once admitted, led to assigning a meteoric character to strange ferruginous masses found in different countries, and which had no history, or were only adverted to in vague tradition. Of this kind is the immense mass seen by Pallas in Siberia, now in the Imperial Museum at St Petersburg. The largest known is one in Brazil, estimated at 14,000 lbs.

One constant characteristic of meteoric stones is the fused black crust, like varnish, with which the surface is coated. From the circumstance of this coat being very thin, and separated from the inner mass by a sharply defined line, it is thought to indicate some rapid action of heat, which has not had time to penetrate into the substance of the stone. This view is favoured by the fact that the stones are found in a strongly heated, but not incandescent state, when they fall. Their specific gravity ranges from two to seven or even eight times that of water.—As to their chemical composition, the predominating element is iron, in a native or metallic state, generally combined with a small proportion of nickel. According to Humboldt, the aërolites that fell in the neighbourhood of Agram, in Croatia, in 1751, the Siberian stone, and specimens brought by that philosopher from Mexico, contain 96 per cent. of iron; while in those of Sienna the iron scarcely amounts to 2 per cent., and, in some rare instances, metallic iron is altogether wanting. A writer in the *Quarterly Review*, No. CLXXXIII., thus sums up the result of all the chemical analyses hitherto made: 'We find the actual number of recognised elements discovered in aërolites to be nineteen or twenty—that is, about one third of the whole number of elementary substances (or what we are yet forced to regard as such) discovered on the earth. Further, all these aërolitic elements actually exist in the earth, though never similarly combined there. No new substance has hitherto come to us from without; and the most abundant of our terrestrial metals, iron, is that which is largely predominant in aërolites, forming frequently, as in some of the instances just

mentioned, upwards of 90 parts in 100 of the mass. Seven other metals—copper, tin, nickel, cobalt, chrome, manganese, and molybdena—enter variously into the composition of these stones. Cobalt and nickel are the most invariably present; but the proportion of all is trifling compared with that of iron. Further, there have been found in different aërolites, six alkalies and earths - namely, soda, potash, magnesia, lime, silica, and alumina; and, in addition to these, carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, and hydrogen. Finally, oxygen must also be named as a constituent of many aërolites, entering into the composition of several of the substances just mentioned. As respects the manner of conjunction of these elements, it is exceedingly various in different aërolites. A few there are, especially examined by Berzelius and Rose, containing olivine, augite, hornblende, and other earthy minerals; and closely resembling certain crystalline compounds which we find on the surface of the earth.'

Besides those solid masses of considerable size, numerous instances are on record of showers of dust over large tracts of land; and it is remarkable that such dust has generally been found to contain small hard angular grains resembling augite. Stories of the fall of gelatinous masses from the sky are ranked by Humboldt among the mythical fables of meteorology. It has been supposed that such fables may have originated in the very rapid growth of gelatinous algæ, as *Nostoc* (q. v.).

Shower of Shooting-stars witnessed in North America.

Fireballs and Shooting-stars.—From the height and apparent diameter, the actual diameter of the largest fireballs is estimated by Humboldt to vary from 500 to 2800 feet; others allow a diameter of about a mile. Shooting-stars are thought to have diameters varying from 80 to 120 feet. In most cases of luminous meteors, a train of light many miles in length is left behind. One or two instances are on record where the train of the fireball continued shining for an hour after the body disappeared. The *heights* of shooting-stars are found to range from 15 to 150 miles, at the points at which they begin and cease to be visible. Their *velocities* vary from 18 to 36 miles in a second. When it is remembered that the velocity of Mercury in its orbit is 26·4 miles in a second, of Venus 19·2, and of the Earth 16·4, we have in this fact a strong confirmation of the planetary nature of meteorites.

One of the most remarkable facts connected with shooting-stars is, that certain appearances of them are *periodic*. On most occasions they are *sporadic*—that is, they appear singly, and traverse the sky in all directions. At other times, they appear in swarms of thousands, moving parallel; and these swarms are periodic, or recur on the same days of the year. Attention was first directed to this fact on occasion of the prodigious swarm which appeared in North America between the 12th and 13th of November 1833, described by Professor Olmsted of Newhaven. The stars fell on this occasion like flakes of snow, to the number, as was estimated, of 240,000 in the space of nine hours, and varying in size from a moving point or phosphorescent line to globes of the moon's diameter. The most important observation made was, that they all appeared to proceed from the same quarter of the heavens—the vicinity, namely, of the star γ, in the constellation Leo; and although that star had changed greatly its height and azimuth during the time that the phenomenon lasted, they continued to issue from the same point. It was afterwards computed by Encke, that this point was the very direction in which the earth was moving in her orbit at the time. Attention being directed to recorded appearances of the same kind, it was observed with surprise that several of the most remarkable had occurred on the same day of November, especially that seen by Humboldt at Cumana in 1799, and by other observers over a

great extent of the earth. The November stream was again observed in the United States in 1834, between the 13th and 14th, though less intense. Though often vague, and in some years altogether absent, this phenomenon has recurred with such regularity, both in America and Europe, as to establish its periodic character.

Another periodic swarm of considerable regularity is that appearing between the 9th and the 14th of August, and noticed in ancient legends as the 'fiery tears' of St Lawrence, whose festival is on the 10th of that month. There are other periodic appearances; and Humboldt gives the following epochs as especially worthy of remark: 22d to 25th of April; 17th of July; 10th of August; 12th to 14th of November; 27th to 29th of November; 6th to 12th of December.

It remains to notice briefly the various opinions that have been advanced as to the origin of aërolites, and the theory of meteors in general. The hypotheses that have been formed in answer to the question—Whence come those solid masses that fall upon the earth?—are of two kinds; some ascribing to them a telluric origin, and others making them alien to the earth. Of the first kind, is the conjecture that they may be stones ejected from terrestrial volcanoes, revolving for a time along with the earth, and at last returning to it. Another theory, which at one time found considerable favour, supposed that the matter of which aërolites are composed existed in the atmosphere in the form of vapour, and was by some unknown cause suddenly aggregated and precipitated to the earth. These conjectures are untenable in the face of the facts of the phenomena stated above, and are now completely given up.

In seeking a source beyond the earth, the moon readily presented itself. Olbers was the first to investigate, 1795, the initial velocity necessary to bring to the earth masses projected from the moon. This 'ballistic problem,' as Humboldt calls it, occupied during ten or twelve years the geometricians Laplace, Biot, Brandes, and Poisson. It was calculated that, setting aside the resistance of air, an initial velocity of about 8000 feet in a second, which is about five or six times that of a cannon-ball, would suffice to bring the stones to the earth with a velocity of 35,000 feet. But Olbers has shewn, that to account for the actual measured velocity of meteoric stones, the original velocity of projection must be fourteen times greater than the above. It is against this lunar theory, that we have no proof of active volcanoes now existing in the moon; and with the improvement of the telescope, the probability of the contrary is increasing. It is, accordingly, giving place to the planetary theory, which we noticed at the outset—a theory which harmonises better with the tendency of physical research and of speculation generally.

The discussion of hypotheses as to the genesis of the recognised planets out of portions of the gradually contracting vaporous mass of the sun; the continued discovery of hitherto unobserved planets between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter; the countless multitudes of comets that are observed traversing our system in all directions, and undergoing appreciable alteration both of consistency and orbit; —all prepare us for the idea, that matter may exist in the inter-planetary spaces, in every variety of form and condition. To account for the phenomena of meteors as above described, we must suppose that there are both detached masses, each revolving in an independent orbit, and giving rise to *sporadic* meteors; and also connected systems, forming rings or zones round the sun. The intersection of the earth's orbit by such zones or streams, would account for the periodic swarms of meteors; and if we suppose the asteroids composing it to be irregularly grouped, we see a reason why the same stream should not be always of equal intensity. There may even be periodicity in this respect too. Between 1799 and 1833—two of the most brilliant manifestations of the November stream on record—there elapsed 34 years; and the next brilliant appearances were in 1866 and 1867, as Olbers had predicted.

We have not space to enter upon such questions as: What causes the luminous and ignited condition of aërolites? The height at which many meteors are seen, puts the action of the atmosphere in causing ignition out of the question, and the terrestrial magnetism has been suggested as the exciting cause. As to those meteors that are unattended by aërolites, we may suppose that they are merely deflected from their path by the proximity of the earth, are rendered luminous through a short arc, and continue their course with altered orbit. But we are not to assume, that where no precipitation of matter is visible, none takes place; it may escape observation, or be dissipated in powder. See METEORS in SUPP.

AERONAUTICS, the art of navigating the air. See BALLOON.

AËROSTATICS. This branch of science treats of the equilibrium and pressure of air and other gases, and of the methods of measuring it by the barometer and other instruments. The expansive force or pressure of atmospheric air varies with time and place. In a medium condition of the atmosphere, and near the sea-level, barometrical observations give the pressure or weight equal to that of a column of mercury, 30 inches high, or of a column of water about 34 feet high. This makes the mean pressure of the atmosphere nearly 15 lbs. on every square inch. This mean pressure of the atmosphere is generally taken as the unit or measure of expansive or elastic forces generally; any particular pressure is said to be equal to so many atmospheres. Aërostatics also investigates the phenomena of the compression of gases; in other words, the relation between the elasticity and the density or volume of a gas. According to the law of Mariotte, the expansive force of one and the same body of gas is proportional to its density; or, which is the same thing, the expansive force of a body of gas under different degrees of compression, varies inversely as the space which it occupies. If its elastic force, at one stage, be measured by 50 lbs., when compressed into half the space, that force will be 100 lbs. Connected with this is the investigation of the variation of density and pressure in the several vertical strata of the atmosphere. It is obvious that the weight of the atmosphere must diminish as we ascend, as part of it is left below; and it results from Mariotte's law, that, at different distances from the earth's surface, increasing in arithmetical progression, the atmospheric pressure diminishes in geometrical progression. This principle furnishes the means of measuring heights by the Barometer (q. v.).

The elastic force of air and other gases is very much increased by heat; and consequently, when allowed, they expand. It is found that a rise of temperature of 1° of Fahrenheit, causes any gas to expand $\frac{1}{480}$ of its own bulk; and this expansion is uniform. If adding 10° to the temperature of a body of gas increases its bulk 3 cubic inches, an addition of 20° will give an increase of 6 inches; of 50°, 15 inches, and so on. This law was discovered by Gay-Lussac, and has been verified by subsequent investigators. Both it, however, and that of Mariotte, can be looked upon as only nearly true, and that within certain limits.

AËROSTATIC PRESS. This is a machine used for extracting the colouring-matter from dye-woods

and such like. A vessel is divided by a horizontal partition pierced with small holes. Upon this the substance containing the colour is laid, and a cover, also perforated, is placed upon it. The extracting liquid is then poured on the top, and the air being drawn from the under part of the vessel by a pump, the liquid is forced through the substance by the pressure of the atmosphere.

ÆSCHINES, an Athenian orator, second only to Demosthenes, whose contemporary and rival he was. Philip of Macedon was then pursuing his designs for the subjugation of the several Greek states to his own sway; and while Demosthenes advocated the policy of opposing him before it was too late, Æ. was the head of the peace-party. Æ. was a member of more than one embassy sent by the Athenians to deal with Philip; and Demosthenes accused him of receiving bribes from the Macedonian monarch, and of betraying the cause of Athens and of her allies. There is no proof that this was the case; and perhaps Æ. was deceived by the wily Philip into believing that he meant no harm to the liberties of Athens, and that peace was the best policy for his countrymen. The result justified the sagacious fears of Demosthenes, and condemned the selfish, isolating policy of Æ. When it was proposed to reward Demosthenes with a golden crown, for his patriotic exertions in defence of his country, Æ. brought an accusation of illegality against the proposer, Ctesiphon. Demosthenes replied, and Æschines being vanquished, and having thus incurred the penalty attached to an unfounded accusation, was obliged to retire from Athens. He finally established a school of eloquence in Rhodes, which enjoyed a high reputation. On one occasion, he read to his audience in Rhodes his oration against Ctesiphon; and some of them expressing their astonishment that he should have been defeated in spite of such a powerful display, he replied: 'You would cease to be astonished if you had heard Demosthenes.' The oration against Ctesiphon and two others are the only authentic productions of Æ. that have come down to us. He was born 389 B.C., and died at Samos 314 B.C.

ÆSCHYLUS, the father of Greek tragedy, was born at Eleusis, in Attica, 525 B.C. We have but scanty notices of his life. He fought in the battles of Marathon, Salamis, and Platæa, witnessed the fall of Darius and Xerxes, and shared in the exulting sentiments which afterwards pervaded liberated Greece. Of the seventy or ninety tragedies ascribed to Æ., only seven have been preserved—*Prometheus Bound*, the *Seven against Thebes*, the *Persians*, *Agamemnon*, the *Choëphori*, *Eumenides*, and the *Suppliants*. These are sufficient to prove that Æ. was the creator of the Greek drama in its higher form. He introduced action in place of the perpetual chorus, and dramatic dialogue to supersede the long narrations of his predecessors Thespis and Chœrilus. Scenic effects, masks, and dresses, were other improvements introduced in the plays of Æ. The plots of his pieces are very simple, and display no ingenuity of construction or solution. His general tone is elevated and earnest, and shews a preference of strong to gentle emotions. Destiny is represented in its sternest aspect; gigantic heroes, Titans, and gods, rather than men, appear on the scene, and the lofty grandiloquence of the language is in accordance with the characters. In the choruses, the language is often turgid and obscure. For some reason, not well known, Æ. left his native city, and went to Sicily, where he was honourably received by King Hiero. Here he died at Gela, 456 B.C., and the inhabitants of the city raised a monument to his memory. In the poetical translation by Blackie, the non-classical reader may get a very tolerable notion of the grandeur and fire of this greatest of all ancient dramatists.

ÆSCULA'PIUS appears in Homer as an excellent physician, of human origin; in the later legends, he becomes the god of the healing art. The accounts given of his genealogy are various. According to one story, he was the son of Coronis and the Arcadian Ischys. Apollo, enraged by the infidelity of Coronis, caused her to be put to death by Diana, but spared the boy, who was afterwards educated by Chiron. In the healing art, Æ. soon surpassed his teacher, and succeeded so far as to restore the dead to life. This offended Pluto, who began to fear that his realm would not be sufficiently peopled; he therefore complained to Jove of the innovation, and Jove slew Æ. by a flash of lightning. After this he was raised to the rank of the gods by the gratitude of mankind, and was especially worshipped at Epidaurus, on the coast of Laconica, where a temple and grove were consecrated to him. Here oriental elements, especially serpent-worship, seem to have been mingled with the rites and ceremonies. From Epidaurus the worship of the healing god extended itself over the whole of Greece, and even to Rome. According to Homer, Æ. left two sons, Machaon and Podalirios, who, as physicians, attended the Greek army. From them the race of the Asclepiades descended. Hygieia, Panaceia, and Ægle are represented as his daughters. His temples usually stood without the cities in healthy situations, on hillsides, and near fountains. Patients that were cured of their ailments, offered a cock or a goat to the god, and hung up a tablet in his temple, recording the name, the disease, and the manner of cure. Many of those votive tablets are still extant. The statue of the god at Epidaurus, formed of gold and ivory by Thrasymedes, represented Æ. as seated on a throne, and holding in one hand a staff with a snake coiled round it, the other hand resting on the head of a snake; a dog, as emblem of watchfulness, at the foot of the deity. Praxiteles and other sculptors represented the god as an ideal of manly beauty, and closely resembling Jupiter; with hair thrown up from the brow, and falling in curls on each side. The upper part of the body was naked, and the lower was covered by a mantle falling in folds from the shoulders. He had sometimes a laurel-wreath on his head, and a cock or owl at his feet; or was attended by a dwarf-figure named Telesphorus.—ASCLEPIADES, the followers of Æ., who inherited and kept the secrets of the healing art; or, assuming that Æ. was merely a divine symbol, the Asclepiades must be regarded as a medical, priestly caste who preserved as mysteries the doctrines of medicine. The members of the caste, or medical order, were bound by an oath—the *Hippocratis jusjurandum*—not to divulge the secrets of their profession. In Rome, 292 B.C., when a fatal pestilence prevailed, the Sibylline books commanded that Æsculapius must be brought from Epidaurus. Accordingly, an embassy was sent to this place, and, when they had made their request, a snake crept out of the temple into their ship. Regarding this as the god Æ., they sailed to Italy, and, as they entered the Tiber, the snake sprang out upon an island, where, afterwards, a temple was erected to Æ., and a company of priests appointed to take charge of the service and practise the art of medicine. Hippocrates is said to have descended from the Asclepiades of Cos, who traced their descent, on the mother's side, from Hercules.

ÆSOP, an ancient Greek writer, whose name is attached to the most popular of the existing collections of Fables. His history is very uncertain, and some critics have even denied his existence. First among these is Luther, in his preface to the *German Æsop*,

1530. We are told, however, on the authority of Herodotus (ii. 134.), Diog. Laertius (i. 72), and Plutarch (*Sept. Sap. Convir.*, and *De Sera Num. Vind.*), that Æsop lived in the latter half of the 6th century B.C.; that he was a slave at Samos; that, on receiving his freedom, he visited Crœsus and Pisistratus, by the former of whom he was commissioned to distribute some money among the citizens of Delphi, and that, on his refusal to pay it, in consequence of a dispute, he was thrown over a precipice by the infuriated mob. We are further informed that the Athenians erected a statue to him from the chisel of Lysippus. Whether this person was the author of the existing Æsopean collection or not, we know, from Aristophanes, and other authorities, that fables bearing his name were popular in the most brilliant period of Athenian literature. The conjecture of Bentley, however, seems well founded, that these fables were transmitted entirely through oral tradition. Socrates (*Phædo*, p. 61) turned such of them as he could remember into verse, of which Diog. Laertius has preserved a specimen; and the same was done by Demetrius Phalereus, 320 B.C. The only Greek version, however, of which any entire fables remain, and which, as shewn by Bentley, has furnished materials to subsequent collections, is that of Babrius (q. v.), a writer of some mark, who is supposed to have lived in the age before Augustus. Of the fables now bearing the name of Æsop, there are three sets, the first from a MS. of the 13th c., published at Florence in 1809; the second, a collection by Maximus Planudes, a monk of the 14th c., containing a life (supposed to have been the work of Planudes, till it was found in the earlier MS.) of Æsop, full of fabulous particulars; and the third a collection published in 1610, from MSS. found at Heidelberg. All these are contained in the edition of Schneider, Breslau, 1810. The resemblance between some of the fables, and the personal peculiarities attributed in common to Æsop and to the Arabian fabulist Lokman, have led some persons to conclude that the two men were identical; and others, that the fables attributed to them in common belong to the same eastern source. See PHÆDRUS. —A Roman actor of this name, CLAUDIUS ÆSOPUS, a contemporary and friend of Cicero, was as eminent in tragedy as Roscius was in comedy.

ÆSTHETICS, a term invented about the middle of last century by Baumgarten, a professor of philosophy in the university of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, to denote the science of the Beautiful, particularly of Art, as the most perfect manifestation of the Beautiful. It has the merit of being at once comprehensive and clear, and has therefore been pretty widely adopted, of late years, by critics both in France and England.

The Beautiful (Gr. *to kalon*) was a favourite subject of contemplation amongst the ancients. The name of Plato is inseparably associated with it, but in his philosophisings, he nowhere separated the Beautiful from the Good. Aristotle, again, from the immense acquaintance which he possessed with objects of art, deduced the most admirable laws and rules (canons of Criticism), so that his *Poetics*, according to Schiller, constitute a true Rhadamanthine tribunal for poets. But the results he arrived at are regarded by the *a priori* school of æstheticians as empiricism rather than science. Baumgarten they hold to be the first who considered the subject from the true scientific point of view, and therefore entitled to be called the founder of the philosophy of art. All sensuous apprehension, not in one form or manifestation only, but in every possible form or manifestation, was included in his view of the subject, and this conception he expressed by the word Æsthetics, from the Greek *aisthanomai*, I feel, indicating not absolute or objective knowledge of things, but such as is conditioned subjectively by the play of our sensibilities. The term is thus not confined to the limits of the Beautiful, though in point of fact we employ it in this partial signification. Beauty was, with Baumgarten, the result of the highest and purest æsthetic perception, to the realisation of which the finer portion of our nature aspires; and to trace which through the whole sphere of art, was the work of æsthetic philosophy (*Sinnenerkenntniss*). Kant subsequently, from his point of view, carried out this theory of the æsthetic faculty in his critical treatise on the power of the Judgment. Everything he conceived may be regarded æsthetically as well as absolutely, in reference to ourselves as well as in reference to nature. An object may be in harmony with our sensibilities, as well as in harmony with the totality of material phenomena; or it may not be in harmony with the former, and yet truly accord with the latter. So, too, with the judgment. It may choose to apprehend things in their adaptation to man, or in what is called the teleological point of view—that is, their final end or objective adaptation to each other. Hence the æsthetical judgment considers objects as beautiful, agreeable, or useful; while the teleological judgment strives to reach their absolute design, and remains indifferent to personal predilections. Why certain objects excite in us a purely selfish interest, and others a purely unselfish pleasure, Kant does not venture to determine, for he never investigates the objective quality of the Beautiful, but confines himself strictly to its influence upon the feelings and desires. Schelling was the first to undertake this inquiry after Schiller had paved the way for him in his treatise on Æsthetics. The latter, perhaps the most lucid and intelligible of German æstheticians, in a note to his twentieth letter on Æsthetic Culture, explains his conception of the new science as follows: All things that can ever be objects of perception may be considered under four different relationships. A fact can relate directly to our sensuous condition —that is its physical quality; or to the understanding—that is its logical quality; or to the will—that is its moral quality; or to the entirety of our different powers, rather than to any particular manifestation of these—that is its æsthetic quality. There is a culture for the health, for the understanding, for morality, and for taste or beauty; the last of which has for its design to bring out the totality of our sensuous and spiritual powers in their greatest possible harmony. Schiller's idea of the Beautiful is necessarily as comprehensive as his conception of the sphere of Æsthetics. He will not admit that it is the result of a mere limited experience, taught us through the operation of phenomena, animate and inanimate, on our senses, but of pure abstract reflection. It is, therefore, a transcendental idea. It originates in the perfect union of matter and spirit. From this it follows, that 'Beauty can be exclusively neither mere *life*, as some ingenious observers have maintained, nor mere *form*, as has been decided by some speculative philosophers and philosophising artists' (for instance, Burke and Raphael Mengs).

Passing over Schelling's transcendental speculations, which are couched in a style not very intelligible to the English mind, we come to the theory of Hegel. Like that of Schelling, it also proceeds from the so-called metaphysics of the Beautiful. It is the absolute ideal realising itself. Nothing is truly beautiful except this. Nothing, therefore, which exists can be termed such. Out of the sphere of the pure reason we have only an eternal aspiration. In the finite mind, the absolute ideal is always striving to realise itself, but never completely succeeds. There is only a ceaseless approximation. Hegel then traces the

growth and development of the Beautiful, the first form of whose existence is *natural* Beauty, and, as Vischer justly adds, the Beauty unfolded in history. But this Beauty, whether of nature or history, is rare, accidental, fugitive, and tarnished by intermixture with the not-beautiful. This deficiency or limitation arises from its being unconscious of itself. The Beautiful is, so to speak, as yet in its infancy. It does not know either that it is or what it is. It first passes into self-recognition in the dawn of human intelligence, and its conscious realisation of itself increases in proportion to the culture of the race or the individual. The highest finite realisation of it is Art; for though the form of art be material, it is matter shaped according to an idea. The artist looks on the form simply as the objective embodiment of the idea every remnant of rude nature being stripped off. Form, though springing out of matter, is thus a deliverance from matter, and the particular Arts may consequently be regarded as the gradual working of the mind out of materialism. The formative Arts—Architecture, Sculpture, Painting—are silent, heavy, still partly material. Music is an advance on these. It breathes in a higher region. The materialism of Sound becomes all but ideal. Poetry is a further advance. It is the pathway of the intellect to pure thought. Æsthetics, in this point of view, is a science, based on a knowledge of the historic development of the Beautiful. It wanders through its whole kingdom, of which Art is only a province, though, as has been seen, the richest and most valuable.

Such was the aspect in which Hegel regarded the new science. He fused it into his historico-transcendental metaphysic, and so stirred up regarding it the old quarrel which had agitated the latter. Realists made their appearance, who vigorously assailed the principles of Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, in their various applications to Philosophy, Theology, and Æsthetics. The reaction was and is most conspicuous in the second of these, but has as certainly manifested itself in the others also. It is denied that the Ideal conceived by man is superior to the Real, as it is in itself. It is man who lowers it by his inadequate apprehension of its harmony and perfection. The greatest artist does not strive to outshine or even to reach the beauty of nature, but to surpass himself in it. The whole historic theory of Hegel is likewise rejected, after severe and searching criticism, from a rationalistic point of view. Hegel conceives the first effort of art to have arisen from a longing on the part of the human spirit to emancipate itself from the thraldom of matter. This is the idealistic view of its beginning. Kugler, on the other hand, affirms that it arises from 'the necessity which man is under to bind his thoughts to one firm spot, and to give to this memorial a form which may be expressive of the thought.' The origin of Art is thus made retrospective, not prospective. This may be considered the realistic view of its beginning. So the question stands at present in Germany.

In France, the founder of the Eclectic School of Philosophy, Victor Cousin, has eloquently expounded the Platonic view of Æ. In the second part of his treatise *Du Vrai, du Beau, et du Bien* (On the True, the Beautiful, and the Good), he has a chapter on 'the Beautiful in Objects,' in which, after discussing the principal theories of the materialists and geometricians, and pointing out what he conceives to be the errors and limitations of such theories, he proceeds to a consideration of physical, intellectual, and moral beauty, endeavours to discover the quality or qualities in which they agree, from this rises to the apprehension of an ideal beauty whose realisation he finds in God. 'God,' says Cousin, 'in whom is combined absolute unity with infinite variety, is necessarily the realised ideal of all beauty.'

Speculations on this subject in Britain have been mostly limited to the Beautiful in form and colour. We have not in general sought, like the Germans, to discover the *idea* of the Beautiful, but the Beautiful itself. Our criticism may, and indeed does seem meagre and unphilosophical to them, but it is at least clear, and its purpose obvious. We have put to ourselves this question: Are there, or are there not, constant qualities in certain objects which make them what we call Beautiful? Does Beauty arise from anything inherent in these, or does it depend upon accidents in us, such, for instance, as the complex and numberless phenomena of Association? Is it objective or subjective?

The first publication on this subject of any consequence—if we except Lord Shaftesbury's *Characteristics*, in which there is set forth a 'rapturous Platonic doctrine' impossible to criticise, because unintelligible—was Dr Hutcheson's *Inquiry* (1725). In this work, the existence of an 'internal sense,' through which we either obtain a perception of the Beautiful or are made in some way conscious of its presence, was maintained. The notion of a sixth sense has been very severely criticised by Jeffrey in his celebrated article on Beauty.

Certain explanations and modifications of this theory were made by the followers of Hutcheson, but nothing really new was brought out till Edmund Burke published his *Treatise on the Sublime and the Beautiful* (1756). There is no work upon the subject so popular or so worthless. Every one has heard of it, large numbers have read it, and yet the fundamental principle is weak and absurd. He confounds the beautiful with the luxurious. 'All objects appear beautiful which have the power of producing a peculiar relaxation of our nerves and fibres, and thus inducing a certain degree of bodily languor and sinking!'

Sir Joshua Reynolds, a contemporary of Burke, maintained a very remarkable theory of the Beautiful, which he borrowed from the celebrated Père Buffier, and illustrated at great length. Beauty was conceived to be the mean between two extremes. This doctrine is open to the fatal objection that the most ordinary is therefore the most beautiful, and that, consequently, the greatest poem or the finest landscape must be that which is the most commonplace. Nevertheless, Sir Joshua does not hesitate to push his theory to extremities, declaring that if what we term the deformed or monstrous were only more common than what we call the beautiful, they would exchange names and sensations—a statement which may safely be left to refute itself.

The next work on this subject that excited any measure of popular attention was Alison's *Essays on the Nature and Principles of Taste* (1790). The theory propounded by this writer is generally known as the theory of Association. The most powerful exposition of the Association theory is that given by Jeffrey, in his famous article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and in his critique on Alison in the *Edinburgh Review* (1811). According to Jeffrey: 'These emotions (that is, those excited by the contemplation of certain objects) are not original emotions, nor produced directly by any qualities in the objects which excite them; but are reflections or images of the more radical and familiar emotions to which we have already alluded, and are occasioned not by any inherent virtue in the objects before us, but by the accidents, if we may so express ourselves, by which these may have been enabled to suggest or recall to us our own past sensations or sympathies.' In his defence of this theory, Jeffrey is obliged to consider those of

Stewart and Payne Knight, the former of which is partly, and the latter entirely, opposed to his own. So long as he confines his argument to association in connection with *landscapes*, it seems very conclusive; but when he comes to combat Payne Knight's doctrine as to the intrinsic beauty of colours, it ceases to be satisfactory. This writer maintains that colours possess a primitive and original beauty, which may be enriched by association, but which does not depend upon it. Jeffrey denies this, and attempts to prove that our perception of the beauty of colour, instead of being a 'mere organic sensation,' arises from association alone. In the same way, he refuses to believe that there is any independent or intrinsic beauty in form; and conceives that architecture owes its beauty not to the essential harmony of its proportions, but to a variety of curious considerations on our part. He considers Alison's analysis of this beauty, with special reference to Greek architecture, 'perfectly satisfactory.' It arises, 1st, from the association of utility; 2d, of security; 3d, of the skill of the architect; 4th, of magnificence; 5th, of antiquity; 6th, of Grecian greatness! To this it may be replied, that such associations *increase*, but do not *create*, our perception of the beauty of Greek architecture.

The theory of Association in this its primitive nakedness cannot be said to be held now by any who think on the subject. It is felt to be more plausible and ingenious than sound or adequate. Ruskin, Professor Blackie, and others, have nearly destroyed its popularity. Professor Blackie's three essays on Beauty, which are remarkable for the brisk and biting humour with which they assail the Association theory, as well as for the passages of fine eloquence which they contain, make a vigorous effort to indoctrinate the Saxon brain with the ideal speculations of Plato. Professor Blackie is a Platonist in theory, but the elaboration of that theory is entirely modern and original. 'Beauty,' he says, 'does not consist in one element, or in one power, or in one proportion, but in many elements, powers, and proportions;' the principal of these are order, congruity (or harmony), actuality, perfection (in the Platonic sense—viz., the full result of a creative energy), expressiveness, smoothness, delicacy, and curvature. With reference to this last principle, Professor Blackie points to the fact that nature everywhere avoids angular lines, especially in the human figure, and most of all in the sex which has ever been considered the highest symbol of the beautiful. In the second volume of his *Lectures on Metaphysics*, the late Sir William Hamilton (Lecture 46th) distinguishes Beauty into Absolute and Relative. 'In the former case,' he says, 'it is not necessary to have a notion of what the object ought to be before we pronounce it beautiful or not; in the latter case, such a previous notion is required. Flowers, shells, arabesques, &c., are freely or absolutely beautiful. We judge, for example, a flower to be beautiful, though unaware of its destination, and that it contains a complex apparatus of organs all admirably adapted to the propagation of the plant. When we are made cognizant of this, we obtain, indeed, an additional gratification, but one wholly different from that which we experience in the contemplation of the flower itself apart from all consideration of its adaptations.' Sir William thus states his theory of Free or Absolute Beauty: 'In the case of beauty free beauty both the imagination and the understanding find occupation; and the pleasure we experience from such an object is in proportion as it affords to these faculties the opportunity of exerting fully and freely their respective energies. Now, it is the principal function of the understanding, *out of the multifarious presented to it, to form a whole.* Its entire activity is, in fact, a tendency towards unity; and it is only satisfied when this object is so constituted as to afford the opportunity of an easy and perfect performance of this its function. In this case, the object is judged beautiful or pleasing.' Sir William concludes by defining the beautiful to be that 'whose form occupies the imagination and the understanding in a free, full, and consequently an agreeable activity.'

There would seem, on the whole, to be a tendency at present towards an amalgamation of what have hitherto been considered irreconcilable doctrines—towards the belief that there is an essential beauty in the harmony of forms and in the combination of colours, and that the keen delight which we experience in beholding them is incapable of being explained by any number of associations; while it is admitted, on the other hand, that many things are made beautiful by association, that all things have their beauty enriched by it, and that some things even have their intrinsic beauty called forth by it operating in the form of *suggestion*.

ÆSTIVA'TION, in Botany (from the Latin *æstivus*, belonging to summer), a term employed to denote the manner in which the parts of the flower are disposed in the flower-bud prior to its opening. Sometimes the Æ. is *valvate* or *valvular*, when the parts of the same verticil exactly meet together by their edges, like valves. But if the edges are turned in, the Æ. is *induplicate;* if they are turned out, it is *reduplicate*. In many flowers, the Æ. is *contorted* or *twisted;* sometimes it is spirally *imbricated*. In pentamerous flowers, it is very generally *quincuncial*, two of the parts being external, two internal, and one intermediate. In Papilionaceous Flowers (q. v.), the other parts of the corolla are generally included in the standard or vexillum, and this is sometimes called *vexillary* Æ. In poppies, the petals are generally crumpled together before flowering. The Æ. of the calyx is frequently of a different kind from that of the corolla. Thus, in *Geraniaceæ*, the Æ. of the calyx is imbricated, that of the corolla twisted. The manner in which the stamens and pistils are disposed in the bud is not so much taken into account in the characters of orders and genera, but is sometimes also noticed; thus, it is a character of *Rosaceæ* that the stamens are curved inwards in Æ.

ÆTO'LIA, a district of ancient Greece, lying on the north coast of the Gulf of Corinth. The ancient Æ. was divided from Acarnania by the river Achelous, and extended as far as the river Euenos. On the E. it was bounded by Locris and Doris; on the N., by Thessaly and Epirus; on the W., by Acarnania; and on the S., by the Bay of Corinth. In later times, these boundaries were considerably extended to the N. and E. The country had few cities, was generally wild and barren, and, according to Herodotus and Aristotle, was infested by lions on the banks of the Achelous and in other places. Here, according to the legend, Meleager slew the Calydonian boar (q. v.). The Ætolians make a great figure in the heroic age of Greece; but at the time of the Peloponnesian war, they were rude and barbarous. The Ætolian Confederacy, first called into existence by the Lamian war (323 B.C.), became more important in the time of the Achæan League (q. v.). The several states assembled annually in autumn at Thermum. This assemblage was styled the *Panætolicon*. At first, they called in the aid of the Romans against the Achæan League; but as they saw that the Romans had designs against the independence of Æ., they next allied themselves with Antiochus of Syria, afterwards with Perseus of

Macedonia. In 189 B.C., they were compelled to share the fate of Macedon, and were subjugated by the Romans.—Æ. now forms a governmental department, or nome, of the modern kingdom of Greece. The mountains in the N.E.—now styled Vieno—form a wild offset of the Pindus chain, and slope steeply on the S.W. down to the central plains, partly covered with morasses and partly cultivated. S. of the lakes Apokuro (anciently, Trichonis) and Zygos (Hyria) rise a range of mountains the *Aracynthus* mountain of the ancients—which fall on the S.W. to a broad coast-level, occupied by morasses and lagoons; but on the S.E. side extend to the gulf, where the promontory of Antirrhion reaches to within 2400 yards of the opposite cape Rhion, thus forming the Strait of Lepanto (Naupactos). The chief rivers of Æ. are the Aspropotamo (Achelous), in the W., and the Fidaris (Euenos), in the E. The people in the plains are employed in agriculture and fishing; while in the mountain-districts some traces of the rude and martial character of ancient Æ. may still be found. The chief towns are Missolonghi and Lepanto (q.v.).

AFFIDAVIT, an oath in writing, or a written declaration made before a magistrate, or other person legally authorised to administer an oath, the truth of which is confirmed either by an oath sworn, or a solemn affirmation emitted in terms of 18 Vict. c. 25, and the other statutes referred to under AFFIRMATION. Where evidence is required in England to be laid before a court or a judge, it is usually reduced to the form of an A., in place of being delivered orally, as in jury trial. An A. ought to set forth the matter of fact only, and not to declare the merits of the cause, of which the court is to judge (21 Car. I. B. R.). The name and designation of the party making the A. are written at length, and he signs it at the foot. When the paper is shown to him, he is required to swear or affirm that its contents are true, and that the name and handwriting are his. Affidavits in all the English courts must be taken and expressed in the first person of the deponent. The *Jurat*, with which the A. closes, specifies the officer before whom, the place where, and the time when it was sworn, and this is signed by the officer or magistrate. When an A. is sworn in open court, that circumstance is mentioned, and no officer is named. In Scotland, voluntary affidavits are not generally received as evidence, because they are *ex parte* statements, no opportunity being afforded for cross-examination. To this rule, however, there are exceptions. Claimants are required by the Bankrupt Statute to lodge their claims with A. or oaths of verity; and there are other similar statutory provisions. An A. is sometimes required also at common law, as in applications for warrants *in meditatione fugæ*. By 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 62, various unnecessary oaths and affirmations were abolished, and declarations substituted in lieu thereof, and voluntary and extra-judicial oaths and affidavits were suppressed. The oath of allegiance, and all oaths in courts of justice, were expressly exempted from the operation of the statute; and by 6 and 7 Vict. c. 43, this exemption was extended to ratifications by married women. The Lord Chancellor of England is empowered by 6 and 7 Vict. c. 82, to grant commissions for taking affidavits, affirmations, and declarations in Scotland.

AFFI'NITY (Lat. *affinitas*), the relationship created by marriage between the husband and the blood-relations of the wife, and between the wife and the blood-relations of the husband. The relations of the wife stand to the husband in the same degree of A. in which they stand to the wife by blood or consanguinity, and *vice versâ*. But between the relations of the two parties by A. there is no A. Thus, there is no A. between the husband's brother and the wife's sister; and by our law, there is no impediment to their marriage. The question as to whether those who are related by A. stand in all respects in the same position as regards marriage with those connected by blood, is one on which much difference of opinion at present prevails. Marriage between a man and the sister of his deceased wife is at present forbidden by statute (5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 64); but an attempt is annually made in parliament to obtain its repeal. See MARRIAGE.

AFFINITY. Chemical A., or chemical attraction, is the force which produces all chemical phenomena. It differs from the attraction of gravitation in acting, not between masses, but between atoms, and only when the atoms are at insensible distances. It differs also from cohesion, which unites the particles of the same substance, while A. unites atoms of different substances. The compounds thus formed are new bodies, often bearing no resemblance in appearance or other properties to the elements which combine to produce them. Thus, water results from the combination of two gases.

The strength of chemical A. is different between different substances. Sulphuric acid combines with lime, and forms gypsum; but if potash is added, the sulphuric acid leaves the lime, and combines with the potash. As a sort of choice is here manifested, it is called a case of *elective* A. These elective affinities, however, are often altered by a change of temperature, or other accompanying circumstance.

AFFIRMA'TION, a solemn declaration, which, in the case of members of certain religious persuasions, is admitted in lieu of an oath. By 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 49, 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 82, and 1 and 2 Vict. c. 77, it is provided that Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists (q. v.) who, from conscientious scruples, refuse to take an oath in courts of justice, may, both in civil and criminal cases, make a solemn A., according to a prescribed formula. For Quakers and Moravians the formula is: 'I do solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare and affirm.' In the case of Separatists, this A. further bears to be emitted 'in the presence of Almighty God.' The penalties of perjury are imposed on those who shall be proved to have affirmed falsely. A later statute (18 Vict. c. 25) has extended the privilege of substituting an A. for an oath to all persons who refuse to be sworn from conscientious motives—*the judge being satisfied that the motives are conscientious.* See OATH.

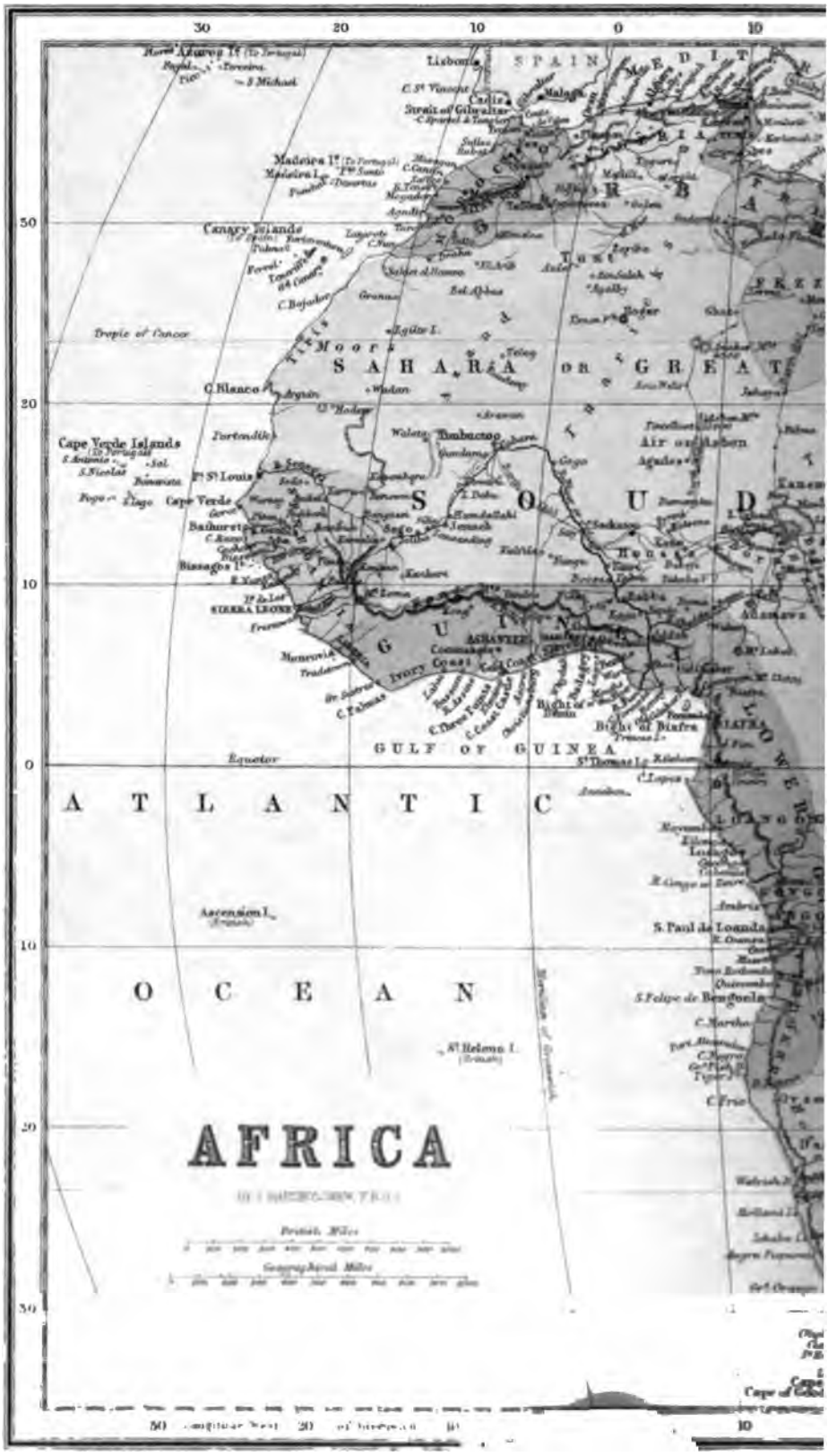
AFFRE, DENIS AUGUSTUS, Archbishop of Paris, who fell in the insurrection of June 1848 (b. 1793). At the time of the Restoration, he was professor of theology at the seminary of St Sulpice; and on account of his prudent and temperate character, was made Archbishop of Paris by the government of Louis Philippe in 1840. Though not yielding a blind submission to all the measures of the government, he abstained from all offensive opposition. When Louis Philippe became an exile, and a republic was proclaimed, the archbishop kept aloof from political strife, but displayed earnest care for the public welfare. During the insurrection in Paris, 1848, he climbed upon a barricade in the Place de Bastille, carrying a green bough in his hand, as a messenger of peace, and wished to persuade the insurgents to lay down their arms. He had scarcely uttered a few words, when the insurgents and the troops commenced firing again, and he fell, mortally wounded by a musket-ball, coming apparently from a window above. He was carried by the insurgents into the

house of a priest, and the next day was removed to his palace, where he died, June 27, 1848. He was the author of several theological writings, and of a work on Egyptian hieroglyphics.

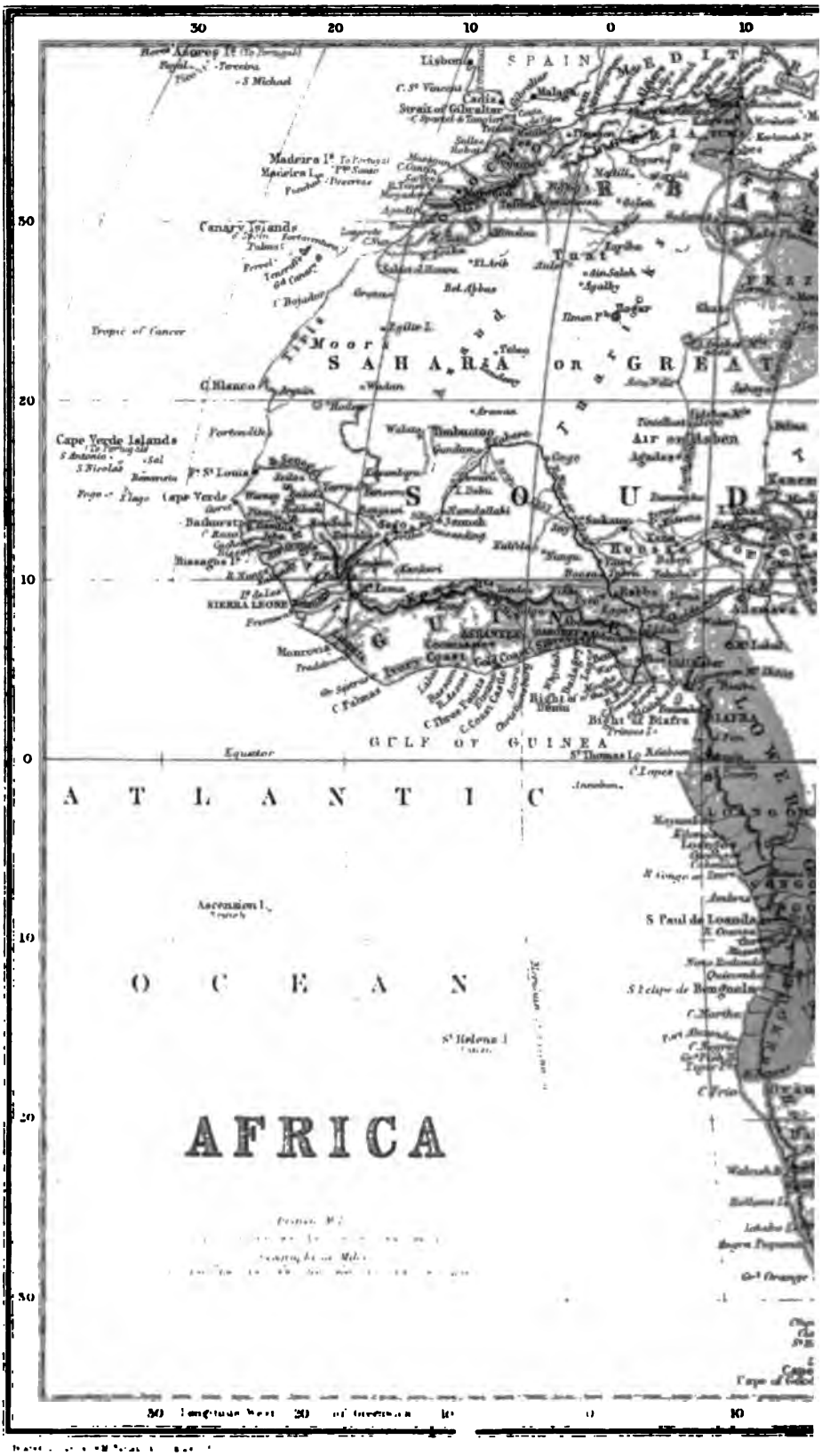
AFGHANISTA'N, the land of the Afghans, formerly known by the names of Drangiana and Ariana, lies between lat. 28° and 38° N., and in long. from 62° to 73° E. Afghan is a Persian name; the inhabitants style themselves *Pushtanch* (plural of *Pushtu*). Their country is bounded on the N. by Turkestan; on the E. by Peshawur and Sinde; on the S., by Beloochistan; and on the W., by the Persian highlands of Khorassan. The population is variously estimated at from four to nine millions. In the N.E., the alpine region of the Hindu Kush, a wild mountain isthmus cleft by numerous ravines, and towering up into the clime of perpetual ice, unites the high masses of land in Eastern with those in Western Asia, and presents formidable obstructions to communication between the territory of the Oxus and that of the Indus. In the E., the Soliman Mountains abruptly divide the country from the flat regions of the Punjab, and the plains of the Lower Indus. There are only two passes leading through the highlands of A. to the Indus: that in the north, formed by the deep valley of the Cabul River, has strong positions of defence at Jelalabad and Peshawur, not far from the Khyber Pass; while that in the south, the Bolan Pass, forms a way of communication with Sinde. The Hindu Kush and Ghor Mountains, which continue the range westward, forming the Paropamisus of the Greeks, have been little explored. The elevated terraces of Cabul and Ghiznee slope gently down towards the south-west. Though the climate has generally a continental character, yet the differences of elevation, and unequal distribution of water, render it various. The date-palm ornaments the oases in the sandy desert to the south-west, and in the deep sheltered valleys of the east the cultivation of cotton and sugar succeeds; but the high terraces of Cabul and Ghiznee (8000—9000 feet above the level of the sea) are exposed to a severe winter, with heavy falls of snow. The vine flourishes here in company with apricots, apples, pears, plums, cherries, and fields of European corn. Tulips, aromatic herbs, rhubarb, tobacco, and asafœtida are extensively grown; and in the well-watered valleys, pomegranates and oranges, with a profusion of roses, display the luxury and splendour of an Indian clime. A. is rich in minerals; iron and copper especially are abundant.

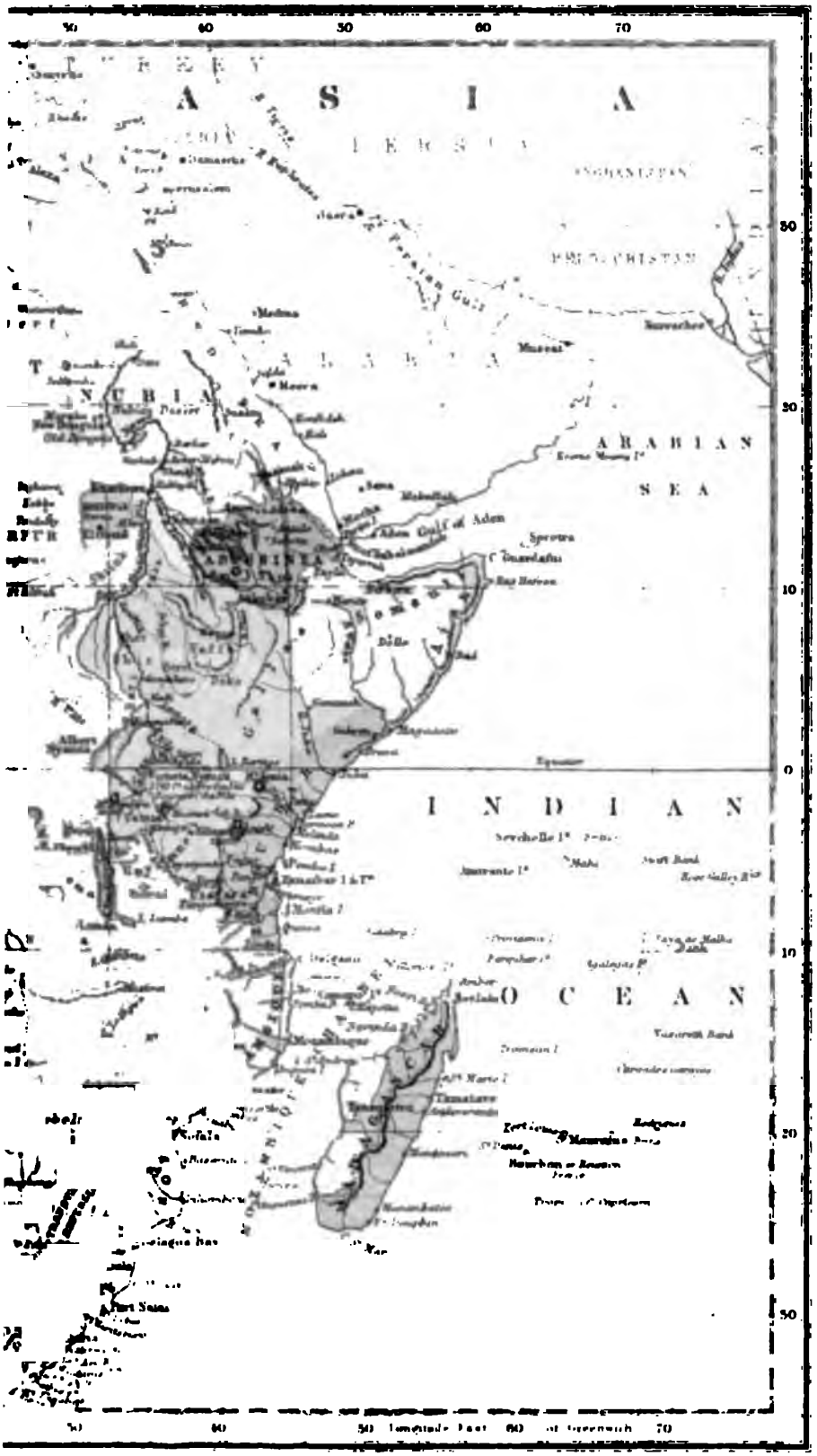
The Afghans are generally powerfully made; and though the features of the men may be styled harsh, the cheek-bones being high, and the nose very large, they are often expressive of candour, earnestness, and deliberation. The position of the Afghan language among those of the Indo-germanic branch has been much discussed. A recent writer on the subject, Dr E. Trump, says it is Indian rather than Iranian. The only authors in the Pushtu language are lyrists and ballad-writers, but the Persian is employed in prose composition, and the Persian authors are familiar to the educated Afghans. In religion they are Mohammedans according to the version of the Sunnites, and are strongly opposed to the Persians and the Sikhs, who belong to other sects.

The Afghans have been identified with the inhabitants of a hilly country on the western slope of the Soliman Mountains, mentioned by Herodotus. In the 11th century, they are referred to as a small clan in the same district, who, since that period, seem to have assimilated and absorbed populations surrounding them. They first appeared as an independent power during the internal discords of Persia after the death of Nadir Shah. Ahmed Khan, of the race of Abdalli (1747—1773), took advantage of these feuds, and liberated A. from Persian rule. His success founded the Dourance dynasty. When his son Timur died, in 1793, a contest for the throne took place between the brothers Zemaun, Mahmud, and Shah Sujah, which ended in the success of Mahmud, who, however, was compelled to abdicate the throne in 1823, and died in 1829. The empire now fell into the hands of three brothers, of whom the oldest, Dost Mohammed, ruled at Cabul, the most important of the three divisions of the country, where he had a revenue of 1,400,000 dollars, and an army of 18,000 men. Still, the country was in an unsettled state; for Dost Mohammed was at war with Lahore in the east, and in the west the Persians had invaded Herat. On the 1st of October 1838, the governor-general of India (Lord Auckland) declared war against A., on the grounds, that Dost Mohammed had unlawfully attacked the British ally, Runjeet Singh; that the military operations of the Afghans had betrayed a hostile purpose towards India; and that Shah Sujah, as the rightful heir to the Afghan throne, had placed himself under British protection. The British forces advanced through the Bolan Pass to Candahar, where Shah Sujah formally claimed possession of the country. On the 21st of July, the army encamped before Ghiznee, and after some hard fighting, that fortress was taken. On the 7th of August, Shah Sujah, with the British forces, entered Cabul, and the conquest was regarded as complete. It was a gross mistake of the nature of the country and the character of the people. The land had been invaded, but was by no means conquered. Dost Mohammed had surrendered to the English; but his son, Akbar Khan, was actively engaged in a conspiracy, of which Sir Alexander Burnes and the envoy Macnaghten were not aware until it was too late. At the beginning of winter, when help from India was impossible, the outbreak took place at Cabul, when Burnes, Macnaghten, and several British officers were slain. It was then agreed that the invaders should leave the country; while, on the other hand, Akbar Khan and his confederates stipulated to provide an escort, and make other necessary arrangements for the retreat. Depending on these promises, the British army left Cabul on the 6th of January 1842, in order to return by the Khyber Pass into India; but neither escort nor provisions were supplied by the Afghan leaders, and the severity of the season increased the misery of the retreat. The fanatical tribes of the districts harassed the flanks and rear of the army, and slew women and children as well as men. Out of a host of 16,000—or, if we include women and children, about 26,000—only one man (Dr Brydon) escaped to carry the dismal tidings to General Sale, who still held his position at Jelalabad. Almost against his own will, the new governor-general, Lord Ellenborough, sent other forces into Afghanistan. General Nott marched from Candahar to Ghiznee, which was again taken after a slight resistance, and then proceeded to meet the army which, under General Pollock, had marched through the Khyber Pass to Cabul. Here the force of Akbar Khan was defeated and routed, and the place was as far as possible desolated. The English officers and their ladies who had surrendered themselves as prisoners to Akbar Khan, were restored to liberty; and soon afterwards, the troops marched back to India. It was believed now that the Afghans were deprived of all power to confederate against the government of India; but this conclusion was too hasty, for in 1846 they formed an alliance with the Sikhs against the British; and the disturbances in the Punjab


AFRICA
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
GULF OF GUINEA
SAHARA OR GREAT
SOUDAN
Lisbon
SPAIN
Madeira Is. (To Portugal)
Canary Islands
Cape Verde Islands
Tombuctoo
Air or Asben
Bight of Biafra
S. Paul de Loanda
S. Felipe de Benguela
Ascension I.
St Helena I.
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
C. Blanco
C. Bojador
Cape Verde
Bissagos Is.
Timbuctoo
Ivory Coast
Liberia
Monrovia
Fernando Po
Prime Meridian of Greenwich

A S I A
PERSIA
ARABIA
ARABIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
Persian Gulf
Gulf of Aden
Equator
30
20
10
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
70
Longitude East of Greenwich


AFRICA
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
SAHARA or GREAT
Soudan
Barbary
Guinea
Cape Verde Islands
Canary Islands
Madeira I.
Azores
Lisbon
SPAIN
Tripoli
Timbuctoo
Air or Asben
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
GULF OF GUINEA
Ascension I.
St Helena I.
S Paul de Loanda
Benguela
Cape of Good Hope
Longitude West
Longitude East


A S I A
ARABIAN SEA
I N D I A N
O C E A N
NUBIA
ABYSSINIA
Persian Gulf
Gulf of Aden
Socotra
C. Guardafui
Seychelle I.s
Amirante I.s
Mauritius
Madagascar
Comoro I.s
Zanzibar
Mozambique
Natal
Port Natal
Delagoa B.
Cape of Good Hope
Table Bay
St. Helena
Ascension
Tristan da Cunha
Fernando Noronha
Trinidad
Martin Vaz
Rocas
St. Paul's Rocks
Sierra Leone
Cape Palmas
Fernando Po
Prince's I.
Annobon
Gaboon R.
Congo R.
Benguela
Mossamedes
Walfish Bay
Angra Pequena
Port Nolloth
Orange R.
Cape Agulhas
Algoa B.
Kaffraria
Natalia
Delagoa Bay
Sofala
Quilimane
Mozambique
Zanzibar
Pemba I.
Mombas
Melinda
Socotra
Aden
Mocha
Hodeida
Loheia
Jidda
Mecca
Medina
Massowah
Suakim
Sennaar
Dongola
Berber
Shendy
Abyssinia
Gondar
Adowa
Axum
Dixan
Tigre
Amhara
Shoa
Ankober
Efat
Gingiro
Enarea
Kaffa
Narea
Gallas
Zanguebar
Ajan
Magadoxo
Brava
Melinda
Quiloa
Mombas
Pemba I.
Zanzibar
Mozambique
Sofala
Inhambane
Delagoa Bay
Natalia
Kaffraria
Algoa B.
Cape Agulhas
Cape of Good Hope
Table Bay
Orange R.
Port Nolloth
Angra Pequena
Walfish Bay
Mossamedes
Benguela
Congo R.
Gaboon R.
Annobon
Fernando Po
Prince's I.
Cape Palmas
Sierra Leone
Fernando Noronha
Trinidad
Martin Vaz
Rocas
St. Paul's Rocks
St. Helena
Ascension
Tristan da Cunha
Amirante I.s
Seychelle I.s
Comoro I.s
Madagascar
Mauritius
Rodriguez
Bourbon or Reunion
Walfish Bay

were not quelled without several sanguinary engagements. After the decisive battle of Gujerat (February 21, 1849), the Sikhs were forsaken by the Afghans; and Dost Mohammed, with about 16,000 men, fled over the Indus. After this period, Dost Mohammed devoted his attention almost exclusively to the consolidation of his dominions. He died in 1863, appointing Shere Ali, one of his younger sons, as his heir. At first, the choice was acquiesced in by the sixteen sons of Dost Mohammed, a large number of whom were governors of provinces; but disputes followed, which for many years kept A. in a state of anarchy. See CABUL. The British government of India had recognised Shere Ali at his accession, and when in 1868, after his long struggle with his brothers, he obtained possession of Cabul, and became *de facto* ruler of the greater part of Afghanistan, direct assistance was given him to secure the position for which he had fought so hard. Sir John Lawrence, then Indian viceroy, sent him first two, and afterwards four lakhs of rupees with 3500 stand of arms. The next viceroy of India, Lord Mayo, met the Ameer in state at Umballa, in March 1869. It was then explained to him that Her Majesty's government had no desire to interfere with the affairs of A., except to check civil war, and by so doing, to secure the peace and prosperity of the country. This intimation was accompanied by another large present. In the same year, the Ameer conceived the idea of invading Bokhara (q. v.) and attacking the Russians, but was restrained by English advice. After 1869, Shere Ali endeavoured to secure tranquillity in Afghanistan. He was alive to the strife that had been occasioned by intrusting power to relatives, and he endeavoured to replace the members of his family as much as possible by strangers. He also indicated very distinctly that he did not intend to select as his heir his son Yakoob—who, at an early age, had shewn great ability as governor of Herat, and had, on many occasions, given his father most valuable assistance—but a younger son, Abdullah. The claims of Yakoob to share in the government of A. were ignored, and the result was that, in 1870, he headed a rebellion against his father; but in the following year a reconciliation was effected through the intervention of England. Yakoob has now great power in A., and it is thought that any attempt to place Abdullah on the throne on the death of Shere Ali, will lead once more to anarchy. After the threatened invasion of Bokhara in 1869, negotiations were entered into between England and Russia, the nature of which was explained in a long debate in the House of Commons, on 23d April 1873. The understanding come to, seems to have been that Balkh, Badakshan, and Wakhan, all the provinces between the Oxus and the Hindu Kush, should be considered to form part of Afghanistan.

The countries included within the present boundaries of Afghanistan are the following, to articles on which reference is made: (1) Cabul; (2) Candahar; (3) Herat; (4) Afghan Turkestan, or Bactria, including Balkh, Badakshan, and Wakhan; (5) Kafiristan.

See *A Journal of the Disasters in Afghanistan*, by Lady Sale (Lond. 1843); a *History of the War in Afghanistan*, by J. W. Kaye (2 vols. Lond. 1851); and an article on the 'Recent History of Afghanistan,' in the *Edinburgh Review* for July 1873.

A'FRICA, one of the great divisions of the globe—the second in point of size, but by far the least important as regards the civilisation and progress of the human species. This continent, so long a land of mystery, has, in modern times, been partly opened for us by the enterprise of explorers, the zeal of missionaries, the perseverance of commercial speculation, and the military aggressions of Europeans. The extreme N. and N.E. borders, which in ancient times were the seats of civilisation, while all the other parts lay hid in darkness, had fallen back into a state of barbarism, but are now partially restored to a position of importance in connection with the political and commercial interests of Europe. Great progress has also been made, from the south or Cape Colony, in exploring the elevated land of the interior, and introducing commerce among the natives. The efforts of England to suppress the slave-trade, and to open new channels for manufacturing industry, also seem likely, in the course of time, to make great alterations in the condition of the countries and tribes of people on the western coast. The chief hindrances are found in the comparatively few accessible points on the coast, the pestilential climate of the marshy lowland bordering on the sea, the barrenness of vast tracts like the desert of Sahara, over which one must travel rapidly, and only by certain routes; and lastly, the barbarism and sanguinary character of the natives. On the other hand, the position of A. is favourable to its exploration by Europeans. Its most remote harbours are almost as near as North America—nearer than Brazil, and much nearer than British India. A sailing-vessel from Bristol can reach the river Senegal in about 20 days, Sierra Leone in 30, Cape Coast in 35, and the Congo in 50. Of course, steam communication is far more rapid.

The valley of the Nile was known in the earliest period of history as the nursery of commerce, arts, and sciences; but while Egypt was flourishing, the rest of A. was almost totally unknown, and was vaguely spoken of as Libya. The Greeks and the Romans penetrated into A., probably as far as the Niger; but they had scarcely any definite knowledge of the countries lying beyond Numidia, while South A. was entirely unknown. The tradition that Jewish and Tyrian merchants, on their voyages to Ophir, explored the east coast of A., is dubious; but another account, that, in the time of Pharaoh-Necho, the Phœnicians circumnavigated A., seems to be well authenticated; and it is probable that the Carthaginians had a better knowledge of parts of the interior than we have in the present day. For a history of the older discoveries in A., we may refer to Murray's *Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Africa* (2 vols., Edin. 1817), and to Leyden's *Sketch of the Discoveries in Northern and Western Africa* (Edin. 1799).

The 15th c. was marked by an extension of geographical knowledge in A. as elsewhere. Henry the Navigator sailed round the formidable Cape Nun (*non plus ultra*); Diaz and Vasco de Gama discovered the Cape of Good Hope; and both the western and the eastern coasts were partly explored by several European voyagers. The older travels and discoveries may be arranged in the following order: In the 14th c., the travels of the Arabian Ebn Batuta in the north of A. In the 15th c., the Portuguese discoveries of Madeira, Cape Blanco, Senegal, Guinea, Benin, the Cape of Good Hope, &c., and the navigation of the east coast by the Portuguese Covilham, who first travelled in Abyssinia. In the 16th c., the travels of Leo Africanus through Barbary and Sahara to Abyssinia; the travels of the German Ranwolf in North A., and Windham's voyage to Guinea, which was followed by several other expeditions in 1554 and 1562. In 1570 and 1600 the Portuguese visited Monomotapa, then a powerful state near the Mozambique coast. In the 17th c., the Englishmen Jobson and Thomson, in their journey to Timbuktu, opened British

commerce with A., and the slave-trade immediately followed. In 1662, we find a French colony on the Senegal, and many exploring journeys to the interior were made by Renouard and others. In 1624, the Jesuit Lobo endeavoured to find a way from the equator through the interior as far as Abyssinia. Thevenot's journey to Egypt in 1652, the English occupation of Cape Coast in 1664, Brue's voyage to Senegambia, and several other visits to the western coast, mark the progress made in the latter half of the 17th c.

In the course of the 18th c., various additions were made to our store of information on A. In the year 1788, the African Society was founded in London, and, under its direction, Ledyard and Lucas were sent to explore the Niger, and were followed by Major Houghton. The English colony of Sierra Leone was founded in 1790. The French expedition to Egypt, towards the close of this century, gave a new impulse to researches in A.

In the 19th c., the most various motives have co-operated in favour of an extended knowledge of this vast continent. The captains of English cruisers, employed to suppress the slave-trade, have supplied some valuable information; the governors of the colonies and private merchants have contributed their share; and enterprising travellers from all sides of the coast have endeavoured to strike out paths to the interior. The works published on A. since the year 1800 are consequently very numerous. A few of the more important may be mentioned. In 1802—1805, Lichtenstein travelled in the district north of the Cape of Good Hope, and first furnished information regarding the Bechuana tribe. The travels of Mungo Park from Timbuktu to Bussa are familiar to every one. In 1809, Burckhardt was sent out by the African Society, and his explorations, rich in manifold results, occupied the years 1812—1816. To the French we are indebted for much valuable information concerning Marocco, Algeria, and the neighbouring parts of Sahara. The labours of Oudney, Clapperton, Denham, and Lander, in the Sahara and Sudan are memorable by the discovery of Lake Tchad and the course of the Niger. During the last twenty years, our knowledge of South A. has received many important additions from the missionaries stationed there, especially Moffat; while David Livingstone, who, since 1843, has been earnestly endeavouring to open the countries north of the Cape of Good Hope, penetrated in 1849 as far as Lake N'gami, in 20° S. lat.; and in 1853, ascending the Leeambye (Zambesi) northward for several hundred miles, succeeded in crossing the continent to Loando on the west coast. Having retraced his steps to the point of the Zambesi from which he had started, the adventurous traveller next followed that stream till he reached the east coast, at Quilimane, in 1856. From 1859 to 1863 was spent in various explorations of Lake Nyassa and the neighbouring regions. Again setting out in 1866, he found, in the region south of Lake Tanganyika, the river Chambeze, which he traced as far as lat. 4° S. In 1871, along with Stanley, he found the river Kusizi flowing into the north of Lake Tanganyika. His last enterprise consisted in further exploration of these regions and new efforts to find the Nile sources. He died at Ilala, beyond Lake Bemba, in May 1873. It is impossible within our limits to give any idea of the magnitude and importance of Livingstone's work; but it seems probable that if he had lived to finish it, the whole physical geography of Africa south of the equator would have been made known for the first time; the courses of all the great rivers, east, west, and north, clearly ascertained; and a vast and populous region brought within the influence of European civilisation. Nor must we overlook the explorations and discoveries of Livingstone's contemporaries farther north in the valley of the Nile. Speke and Grant, crossing the Border Mountains from Zanzibar, in 1857, discovered Lake Tanganyika, and the former then journeying to the north-east, discovered the southern part of the Great Victoria Nyanza, which he supposed to be the head reservoir of the Nile. A second expedition, undertaken in the end of 1860, penetrated as far north as Gondokoro on the White Nile, and added vastly to our knowledge of the eastern equatorial regions of Africa. At Gondokoro, Speke and Grant were met by Mr (now Sir Samuel) Baker, who had come from Cairo to their relief. Baker, accompanied by his heroic wife, pushed still farther south, and had the happiness of discovering, in 1864, another great lake, which he called the Albert Nyanza, west of the Victoria. He returned in September 1873 from a second great expedition—of a military character—undertaken in 1869, at the expense of the Pasha of Egypt, to suppress slavery in the upper regions of the Nile, and has reduced under the sway of that ruler the whole valley of the river as far as the Victoria Nyanza. The geography, language, and manners of the inhabitants of Abyssinia, Senaar, and Kordofan have also during late years been greatly illustrated by the efforts of various Europeans, who have travelled thither with the hope of exploring the course of the Nile. Finally, the extensive and long continued researches of Dr Barth and his companions (1850—1855)—investigating the same central division of the continent as Clapperton and Denham—and Dr Schweinfurth's travels (1868—1871), in regions previously unexplored, have enriched our store of knowledge regarding this land of mystery. Notices of the later explorations will be found under NILE, NYANZA, NYASSA, ZAMBESI; and ALBERT NYANZA and SPEKE in SUPPLEMENT.

A. is situated in the eastern hemisphere, to the S. of Europe, and the S.W. of Asia, and lies between lat. 37° 20′ N. and 34° 50′ S., and long. 17° 30′ W. and 51° 30′ E. It is of an irregular triangular form, with the vertex towards the S., having the Mediterranean on the N., the Isthmus of Suez, Red Sea, and Indian Ocean on the E., and the Atlantic on the W. The formation of the Suez Canal has nominally converted Africa into an island. The coast-line is marked by few indentations or projections; the most important gulf being that of Guinea, on the W.; and Capes Bon, Verd, Good Hope, and Guardafui, the extreme points respectively on the N., W., S., and E. The greatest length of the continent, taken from north to south, is about 4985 miles; its greatest breadth, from east to west, 4615; and its area, including the adjacent islands, not less than 11,854,000 square miles.

What is known of the physical features of A. may be shortly sketched under the following heads: 1. The triangular region south of Cape Guardafui and the Gulf of Guinea is mostly a high table-land, having fringes of mountains crowning its edges. Between the coast and the beginning of the elevation runs a belt of lowlands, varying from 50 to 300 miles in breadth. The Lupata range, seen running parallel with the coast, forms the eastern crest of the table-land. Between 3° and 4° S. lat., it reaches, in the snow-clad Kilimandjaro and Kenia, the height of 20,000 feet. The mountainous country of Abyssinia is the eastern prolongation of the plateau and its elevated crest; in the summit of Abba Yared, at the northern extremity, it rises to 15,000 feet. At the south, the hills of Cape Colony rise in stages from Table M s of the Nieuwveld

and Sneeuwberg, in the N. of the colony, which are estimated at 7000—10,000 feet; the spaces between the ranges being shrubby *kloofs* or valleys, and broad elevated terraces or *karroos*. From the elevated crest that runs parallel to the west coast from Cape Colony to Valfish Bay, Mr Galton describes the country as sloping both W. and E., thus giving a cup or basin shaped appearance to the interior of the continent. Towards the N.W. the border of the table-land rises in the Cameroons to the height of 13,000 feet. Its northern boundary is not determined; but it is likely that the valley of the western branch of the Nile penetrates into it, dividing it into two portions, an eastern and a western. A mountain seen lying south from Lake Tchad is supposed to be one of its northern outposts.

2. North and north-west of the great triangular table-land lies Sudan or Central Nigritia, under which name may be comprehended the countries watered by the Senegal, Gambia, and Niger, along with the coast of Lower Guinea; and the basin of Lake Tchad. In the west of this section is a mountainous table-land of no great elevation, in which the rivers above named take their rise; the Kong Mountains, which run parallel to the Guinea coast, are a branch of this elevation. Eastward of the Niger, the country is hilly, alternating with rich, often swampy plains. In the basin of Lake Tchad is a vast alluvial plain, one of the largest on the globe, and of great fertility.

3. Between Sudan and the cultivated tract which borders the Mediterranean, stretches the Sahara or Great Desert. It extends south nearly to the Senegal, the northern bend of the Niger, and Lake Tchad, northward to the Atlas range in Marocco and Algeria, and towards Egypt it reaches to the Mediterranean. Its average breadth from N. to S. is about 1000 miles. Its length from the Atlantic to the western edge of the valley of the Nile is 2000. Over a great part of this region, rain never falls, and everywhere it is rare; it is thus condemned to sterility. It consists partly of tracts of fine shifting sand, which frequent storms of wind raise into the air, so as often to overwhelm travellers. But the greater part of the surface consists of naked but firm soil, composed of indurated sand, sandstone, granite, and quartz-rocks, often rising into ridges or hills. The desolation is interrupted at intervals by patches, sometimes of considerable extent, covered with bushes and coarse grass, and often of great beauty and fertility. These *oases*, or *wadies*, as they are called, which are occasioned by subterranean springs, are most numerous and fertile in the eastern portion of the Desert. The easiest route across the Desert to Sudan runs from Tripoli through the kingdom of Fezzan to Lake Tchad. Fezzan enjoys periodic rain from the moist winds of the Mediterranean, which extend further into the continent here than elsewhere. The portion of the Desert lying east of the route above described is called the Libyan Desert. It is chiefly in this region that the oases are susceptible of cultivation; the tracts of vegetation in the western portion are fit for little else than pasture, mainly for goats and sheep. The principal production of the more fertile oases is dates; but other fruits and grain are also cultivated. Gum-arabic is another production. Some of the larger oases support thousands of inhabitants living in villages. Commerce is carried on across the Desert by various routes by means of caravans, consisting of from 500 to 2000 camels, with their attendants. The distance between the wells sometimes exceeds ten days' journey; and when a well is found dry, men and animals are in danger of perishing. The inhabitants consist of independent tribes of Moors, Berbers, and Arabs.

4. The Atlas region, comprehending the mountainous countries of Marocco, Algeria, and Tunis. The northern slope towards the Mediterranean, called the Tell, is, in aspect, climate, and productions, similar to the opposite coast of Europe; the southern side merges gradually into the Sahara. Some parts of the chain are considerably above the snow-line, and the highest summits may reach 13,000 feet.

5. The region bordering on the Red Sea, consisting of Abyssinia, Nubia, and Egypt. Abyssinia, we have seen, is the mountainous termination of the great southern plateau. Between this and the Mediterranean extends the low valley of the Nile, separated from the Red Sea on the east by a rugged mountainous region, and from the Libyan Desert on the west by a low ridge of limestone and sandstone.

Regarding the hydrography of A., much is still to be ascertained. Livingstone's discoveries have shewn that the portion which, until recently, was termed the 'unexplored territory,' is anything but the barren and riverless desert that we imagined. But as hardly one of its streams has been traced throughout its entire course, while nearly the entire tributaries of these are very imperfectly known, we must wait for the result of further explorations, before positive statements can safely be made. Those of the south, which mostly rise in the neighbouring highlands, are, in many instances, little better than mountain-torrents, having short and rapid courses; and the embouchure, generally in the delta form, is commonly obstructed by a bar of sand. The Orange River, for instance, is filled with sand at its mouth.

Rivers.—The great rivers of A. are the Nile, the Niger, the Zambesi, the Orange, the Congo, the Senegal, and the Gambia. See articles NILE, NIGER, &c. The first of these is formed by the junction of two rivers—the White Nile (Bahr-el-Abiad) and the Blue Nile (Bahr-el-Asrak). The former has its sources in the great equatorial lakes, including those called the Victoria Nyanza and the Albert Nyanza, skirts the eastern edge of Kordofan, and passes into Nubia, where it is joined by the Blue Nile at Khartum, after the latter has broken through the highlands of Abyssinia. The single stream then sweeps circuitously through Nubia in a succession of cataracts, and descending into Egypt, reaches the Mediterranean through the far-famed Delta. The second of the great rivers, the Niger, Joliba, or Quorra—for it goes by these and other names in different parts of its course—rises in the Kong Mountains of Guinea, about 9° 25′ N. lat., 9° 45′ W. long., and flows first N.E. till it reaches Timbuktu, where it bends E. for a short distance, and then descends in a S.E. direction into the Gulf of Guinea. Its length is estimated at 2500 miles; and its navigability has been ascertained for a distance of upwards of 400 miles; but its banks are very pestilential. Its principal tributary is the Tchadda or Benué. At the extreme west of the mountains of Kong, and not far from the source of the Niger, rises the Senegal, which flows with a crescent sweep to the N.W. through Senegambia, and enters the Atlantic north of Cape Verd. The Gambia, a smaller river, runs in a similar direction through the same country, and falls into the sea south of Cape Verd. The Congo, which has its origin somewhere in that great division of A. south of the equator that has recently been opened to us, is very imperfectly known. It empties its waters into the Atlantic at Cape Padrone, in South Guinea. The Orange River flows from east to west with many windings through what is popularly termed 'the country of

the Hottentots;' while the Zambesi, which has been explored almost throughout its entire course by Livingstone, is rich in affluents, and runs in a general easterly direction, entering the channel of Mozambique about 18° S. lat.

Lakes.—The lakes of A. are, as yet, no better known to us than its rivers. *Tchad, Chad*, or more correctly, according to Dr Barth, *Tsad*, the chief lake of Sudan or Central A., has a circumference of about 200 miles, with a depth varying from 8—15 feet. and an elevation of 850 feet above the sea-level. Though it has no outlet, its waters are cool and clear, and abound with fish. Besides a multitude of temporary streams, it is the recipient of several large rivers. The chief is the Shary or Asu, from the south-east. *Dembea* or Tzana, in Abyssinia, through which the Blue Nile flows, is about 65 miles long, and 30 broad, and lies 6000 feet above the sea-level. Lake N'gami, in Southern A., the centre of the internal drainage of the country between the Orange and the Zambesi, is about 2500 feet above the sea-level, 70 miles long, and 20 broad. North of the Zambesi, between the parallels of 10° and 14° S., and about 350 miles inland from the coast of Mozambique, lies Lake Nyassa, at an elevation of 1200 feet above the sea-level. The discoveries of Tanganyika and the Victoria Nyanza by Speke, and of the Albert Nyanza by Baker, have been already noticed, and will be found fully described in their proper place. It is generally believed that we must seek for the source of the Nile in the basin of these lakes, but Livingstone was of a different opinion, and at his death was employed in exploring another basin some degrees westward of Tanganyika, through which flow three great rivers, all called Lualaba, which unite to form Lake Lincoln, so named by Livingstone in honour of the late president of the United States.

Geology.—The geology of A. is known as yet only from cursory observations made at isolated points. The character of the Sahara has been already indicated. The section traversed by Dr Livingstone presents a variety of schists, shales, sandstones, and tufa, through which protrude granite and trap-rocks. In one place towards the east side of the continent, the sandstone is found overlying coal. Between Tripoli and Murzuk there is a plateau, the dark sandstone of which disintegrated, fills up the inequalities of the surface, from which the black rock stands out in fantastic cones. The lofty barrier of limestone which forms the western boundary of Egypt, reappears in the rugged ranges of hills which break the monotonous waste of Sahara; they sometimes contain marine shells. Secondary limestone also constitutes the lower skirts of the Atlas Mountains, but what constitutes their basis has not yet been discovered.

Climate. There are three great varieties of climate, corresponding to the physical structure of the continent: first, that of the plateaus; second, that of the terraces which lead to them; and third, that of the coasts. In the vast desert of Sahara, extending over an area equal to that of the Mediterranean Sea, almost destitute of water and vegetation, and partly covered with tracts of sand and bare low rocks, the heat of the day is uniformly contrasted with the coldness of the night; while on the terrace-land of Limbu, for instance, situated behind the Sierra Leone region, we find a temperate and wholesome climate; and in that rising behind the Slave Coast, we have beautiful landscapes, abundant springs, new forms of vegetation, and a mild Italian air. The natives of Congo call their terrace-lands, which are well cultivated and thickly peopled, 'the Paradise of the World.' But the flat coasts, which are often over-flooded in the rainy season, have a very oppressive atmosphere, and from the morasses at the mouths of the rivers, a malaria arises which is pestilential to Europeans. This malaria has been supposed to arise from the decay of the vegetable matter brought down by the rivers from the dense mangrove-woods, which, mixing with the salt water on the coast, produces sulphuretted hydrogen gas. The region of pestilential air has been calculated to extend about 100 miles inland; but only 40 miles out at sea, and to rise to a height of 400 feet above the sea-level.

Productions.—The *vegetation* of A. is decidedly less varied than that of Europe or Asia. Along the Mediterranean sea-board, it greatly resembles that of Southern Europe. The tropical regions are not so rich in species of plants as those of South America, but still they exhibit many peculiar genera. As we leave the sultry coasts, and ascend the terraces towards the interior, we pass gradually from tropical productions to those of the temperate zones, which all flourish well in several parts of A. Though the forests cannot rival those of Brazil, they are rich in valuable woods, especially the harder kinds; some of them excellent for ship-building. Here we find the gigantic *Adansonia* (q. v.) *digitata* or baobab. Ebony, certain kinds of rosewood, and the timber called African teak, are among the productions of the tropical forests. The Butter-tree (*Bassia*, q. v.) is one of the most remarkable productions of the central regions. Extensive level tracts are covered with acacias. Certain palms are very characteristic of different parts of A., and are of the greatest importance to the inhabitants, particularly the Date-palm (q. v.) in the north, and in an inferior degree, the Doom-palm (q. v.), both of them growing in regions comparatively arid, and often surrounded by the very sands of the desert; whilst the Oil-palm (q. v.) flourishes amidst the tropical luxuriance of the west, and supplies an article of commerce which now attracts the ships of Europe, in constantly increasing numbers, to shores once frequented only for the prosecution of the slave-trade. The Cocoa-palm (q. v.) flourishes on many parts of the tropical coasts. A large quantity of oil is produced also by a plant of a very different description, the Ground-nut (*Arachis*, q. v.), a leguminous herbaceous plant, which has the remarkable peculiarity of thrusting its pods into the ground to ripen there, and which is now so extensively cultivated, that nine millions of bushels of ground-nuts are annually exported from the Gambia. The southern extremity of A. is remarkable for the vast number of its species of mesembryanthemums and heaths. Pelargoniums, iridaceæ and proteaceæ, are also among the most characteristic features of its vegetation. Euphorbiaceæ abound in most parts of the continent. Many of the productions of other countries have been introduced, both in the tropical and temperate parts of A. Maize is now extensively cultivated, as well as rice, wheat, and millet. A peculiar kind of grain, called fundi, or fundungi (*Paspalum exile*), is cultivated in the west, and grains called teff and tocusso (*Poa Abyssinica* and *Eleusine Tocusso*) in Abyssinia. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and of good quality. Indigo and tobacco are easily cultivated, and cotton has succeeded well where it has been introduced, as in Egypt, where, however, it requires artificial and laborious irrigation; while in the rich and well-watered soil of Sennaar, it flourishes even with a most careless style of cultivation, and might, without doubt, be produced in enormous quantity. Other regions, as Natal, seem likely soon to produce it abundantly. The vine is cultivated with success at the Cape of Good Hope, and the sugar-cane in different parts of the continent.

In the *animal kingdom*, we find the lion, the

leopard—often called the tiger, but the tiger is not yet known except as a native of Asia and the Asiatic isles—hyenas, jackals, and others of the canine family, a species of elephant, differing in some particulars from that of Asia, several species of rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, wart-hogs (*Phascochœrus*), and many kinds of monkeys, particularly within the tropics. The giraffe, the zebra, and the quagga, are peculiar and characteristic, as are also numerous species of antelope, which occupy, in African zoology, the place of deer in other parts of the world. The gnu is one of the most remarkable of the antelope genus. Some of the smaller species occasionally appear in prodigious numbers, devastating the fields of the colonists. The ostrich is found in almost all parts of A. Parrots, flamingoes, and guinea-fowls may also be mentioned among the birds. Crocodiles are found in the rivers, and many kinds of lizards and serpents occur, not a few of the latter being poisonous. There are also tortoises and turtles of different species. The domestic animals succeed well. Camels are said to have been introduced by the Arabs, and are plentiful in the northern regions.

It would be hazardous to assert that A. is deficient in *mineral wealth*, though, judging from our present imperfect knowledge, it does not seem to be extremely rich. Gold is much more plentiful than silver, being found abundantly in the sands of the great rivers that flow out of the central region, on the coast of Guinea, and also in the south-east of A. The Sierra Leone coast has valuable iron ore, which is also found in the Upper Senegal, the region of Timbuktu, the Congo chain of mountains, Egypt, and Darfur. Copper is plentiful at Majomba, and in some other places; salt may be obtained from almost every district in A. except Sudan, and sal-ammoniac, saltpetre, sulphur, and emery in various portions of the continent.

Population.—The population is vaguely estimated at above 100,000,000. The native inhabitants belong to one of the three great divisions of the human family, called, by Dr Latham, Atlantidæ, the Ethiopic of other ethnologists. The subdivision into tribes is endless, but they may be all classed in six groups: 1*st*, The *Negro Atlantidæ*.—These have, in an exaggerated form, the black unctuous skin, woolly hair, projecting jaws, flat nose, and thick lips, characteristic of the whole variety. But it is important to observe the comparatively narrow area to which the negroes proper are confined. They occupy Western A., from the Senegal to the Gaboon, Sudan in the centre, and the low parts of the Upper Nile. The dusky or brown hue is more prevalent through A. as a whole than the jet-black of the negro; which seems nearly coincident with river valleys and deltas lying within the tropics. 2*d*, *Kafir Atlantidæ*.—In physical conformation, they are modified negro; the jaws are less projecting; their language has some singular peculiarities. They occupy from north of the equator to south of the Tropic of Capricorn. 3*d*, *Hottentot Atlantidæ*.—These, according to Dr Latham, have a better claim to be considered a second species than any other section of mankind. Their colour is brown rather than black; the hair grows in tufts. The stature is low, and the bones of the pelvis peculiar. Their language has a characteristic *click*. They inhabit the south of the continent, and are divided into Hottentots and Saabs, or Bushmen. 4*th*, *Nilotic Atlantidæ*, occupying the water-system of the Upper and Middle Nile. The leading tribes are the Gallas, Agows, Nubians, and Bishari, forming the population of Abyssinia, Adel, and Nubia. It connects by imperceptible gradations the Coptic and Semitic groups with the rest of the African. 5*th*, *Amazigh Atlantidæ*, usually called Berbers. In conformation, they vary from the negro to the Arab type. The language is *sub*-Semitic. They inhabit the ranges of the Atlas, the Sahara, the Canary Isles, and are found as far south even as the centre of Sudan. 6*th*, *Egyptian Atlantidæ*, or old Egyptians, represented by the modern Copts. Both language and physical conformation connect them, on the one hand, with Berbers and Nubians; on the other, with the Assyrians, Jews, &c.

In *religion*, the natives are as various as in language; but it may be questioned whether some of the tribes, especially in South A., can be fairly described as having any religion. In not a few of these, the religious consciousness seems wholly extinguished, and the very terms which express it, to have dropped out of their language. Such, at least, was the result of Moffat's observations, though perhaps the degradation in which he found some tribes plunged was in itself a barrier to a just and adequate communication with them; for the lower that races or individuals sink, the less easy is it to understand them. Throughout the north, and to a considerable extent in the interior, the creed of Mohammed is received, but held very loosely by many. The Mohammedan tribes on the west coast divide themselves into two classes—the *Marabouts* and the *Sonnachees;* but it is not easy to understand the exact nature of this distinction, beyond the simple fact, that the Marabouts profess to adhere rather strictly to the laws of the Prophet, while the Sonnachees are more secular, make little profession of sanctity, but eat pork and will drink spirituous liquors. The lowest form of superstition, styled *fetichism*, prevails among the uncultured negro tribes, as well as among the Gallas, a nation widely spread south-east of Abyssinia; and the practice of offering human sacrifices is found in many tribes. The Abyssinians hold by tradition a crude form of Christianity.

Of the forms of *government* among the several nations and tribes, our knowledge is not sufficiently definite. Though there is despotism, it appears to be limited to some extent by a respect for the 'head-men' in every tribe, who form a sort of aristocracy, and whom the king must consult on all important affairs. The liberty of speech employed in a native parliament, or rather 'palaver,' is often considerable. Though women are generally found in a degraded position, the wives of the king often take a part in council, and exercise their influence in the affairs of state. Civilisation, in the proper sense of the term, is only to be met with in the settlements of the Europeans; for the condition of the *Moors*, *Arabs*, and *Egyptians* is scarcely entitled to rank higher than that of semi-civilisation.

Of *science*, *art*, and *literature*, we can say little; for all that had been achieved under the Pharaohs and Ptolemies disappeared with the conquest of the Moslems. A schoolmaster is found in almost every Mohammedan village; but the Koran is the only book studied. Medicine is little understood, though the tribes in the south and elsewhere have great faith in its powers, and practise it in a very absurd and superstitious style. Among many tribes, the religion might be styled medicine-worship. Inoculation, as a preservative against the small-pox, is common among the Mohammedan tribes. Mechanical skill is generally respected; and the smith or worker in iron is reckoned among the 'head-men' in every tribe.

Of the interior *commerce* or barter of the natives among themselves, our knowledge is scanty. Caravans of camels pass over the wide deserts of the north by such routes as lead them to the greatest number of springs, brooks, and *oases*, or comparatively fertile places. The chieftains in the desert

are the principal traders; and one feature in their character, though carried to a cruel extreme, is certainly favourable to commerce: debtors are treated with great severity. When payments are delayed, not only the debtor himself, but, if he is absent, any member of his family, may be seized as a slave. Timbuktu, on the southern edge of Sahara, is the chief commercial depôt and central station for the caravans which arrive from Tafilet, Tripoli, and other places in North A. From Timbuktu they proceed on their route along the course of the Niger to Kashna, another station of commercial importance, which is also visited by the caravans from Sudan and Bornu. From Kashna the caravan-route leads to Bornu and Lake Tchad; thence to the territories of the Tibbous and the Tawareks, and on to Murzuk in the oasis of Fezzan. Kulfa is another great meeting-place of the caravans coming from Dahomey in the south-west, Borgu in the north-east, and Niffe in the south-east. There seems to be no doubt that these caravans are in communication with others from the east, and thus connect, in a primitive style of commerce, the Indian Ocean with the Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea. The principal places of commerce in the east are Marnegar, Berbera, Ankobar, Gondar, Sennaar, and Kobbe. In Benguela and Angola, negro caravans from the interior arrive at the chief places on the coast, bringing slaves, ivory, and gold-dust, which are bartered for various commodities, and the plateau of the Upper Nile is visited by Arab traders from Zanzibar engaged in the same traffic.

Though A. is so rich in natural productions, and capable of maintaining a thriving commerce with other parts of the world, it is still a painful fact that along its coasts, and in the caravan-roads of the interior, the principal trade is in slaves. Baker's great expedition up the Nile, and Sir Bartle Frere's mission to the sultan of Zanzibar (1873), will probably do much to diminish or destroy this odious traffic. The African is fit for something better. Many of the tribes are in a condition which cannot be fairly described as savagism. They have fixed dwellings, though these are merely mud-huts, defended by stockades; and are possessed of some laws or customs which are favourable to commerce. Among several tribes the native merchant is highly respected, and his goods are safe even in times of feud or warfare. The land is cultivated; the natives wear dyed cotton dresses, thicker and more durable than those exported from England, and consequently far dearer. Gold and iron are manufactured with ingenuity. The principal tribes on the Gambia, the Fulahs, the Jolifes, and the Mandingoes, and the negroes of the sub-equatorial regions in which Livingstone spent the last twenty years of his life, have qualities which forbid us to despair of the progress of A. in culture. All that is wanted is a free commercial intercourse with the civilised world. Commerce must carry into A. the doctrine that it is better to employ men in trade, than to sell them as slaves. Ability to understand such a truth will not be wanting; and when it is known and practised, the negro will prove that he is human, and will break through all the natural obstacles placed in the way of his development and improvement.

That portion of A. which is known is divided as follows: Native states and regions—Ashanti, Dahomey, Fezzan, Barca, Bornu, Darfur, Kordofan, Dongola, Guinea, Abyssinia, Marocco, Senegambia, Sennaar, Sudan with Sahara, Zanzibar, and the countries of the interior, with others on the east coast. British possessions are—Cape Colony and Natal, at the south; the island of Mauritius, St Helena, Ascension, Sierra Leone, Cape Coast, and the Gambia Colony. The French have settlements on the Senegal, with the islands of St Louis and Gorée, The Isle de Bourbon, St Marie, and the great colony of Algeria. Egypt, Nubia, Tunis, and Tripoli belong nominally to Turkey. There are some North American forts and settlements in Guinea. The Portuguese have the Azore and Cape Verd Islands, with Madeira, Porto Santo, St Thomas, Angola, Benguela, and Mozambique. The Canary Islands belong to Spain. The large island of Madagascar and the Comoro group are under native rulers; but in some of these islands on the east coast the French have recently established themselves, as at Mayotta.

AGA or AGHA, the Turkish title of a superior military commander; also of the higher officers of the seraglio.

A'GADES, formerly a very important city of Central Africa, but at present in a declining condition. It is the capital of Aïr or Asben (q. v.), and is built upon the eastern edge of a great table-land, at an elevation of not less than 2500 feet, in lat. 16° 33′ N., long. 7° 30′ E. It holds little intercourse with the northern cities, such as Murzuk, which, indeed, is never visited, except by pilgrims on their way to Mecca; but its merchants still frequent the markets of Katsena, Tasawa, Maradi, Kano, and Sokoto. At one time A. was a sort of entrepôt for the vast traffic carried on with Gogo—the ancient capital of the Songhay empire (q. v.)—but the conquest and destruction of this city, the centre of the gold-trade, has fatally injured the prosperity of the former, 'cutting away the very roots through which it received life.' A. was founded some hundreds of years ago, in all likelihood by the Berbers, who were expelled by the great Songhay conqueror, Haj, Mohammed Askia, in 1515. Its highest degree of power had been reached previous to this, when it probably contained 60,000 inhabitants. At present, it has not more than 6000 or 7000. The language is the Emgedesiye, the same as that spoken at Timbuktu, with which place, however, it has no intercourse now. There is a large admixture of Berber blood in the people of A. The trade and manufactures are trifling in extent. Dr Barth is of opinion that A. would form, for a European agent, a very good and comparatively healthy place from which to open relations with Central Africa. See Barth's *Travels in Central Africa*, vol. i.

A'GAMA, a genus of Saurian Reptiles, the type of a family called *Agamidæ*. The Agamas are allied to the Iguanas, and have a lax skin, which they have the power of inflating with air. None of them are of a large size. They are found in warm climates, and are of various habits, some of them living in trees, and others confined to the ground. The Egyptian A. (*A. Ægyptiaca* or *Trapelus Ægyptiacus*)

Frilled Agama.

is remarkable for changing colour, like the chameleon. Some of the most common lizards of Australia are of this family. The Frilled A. (*chlamydosaurus*) is a remarkable Australian lizard, having a sort of frill around the neck, which usually lies

back in plaits, but is raised when the animal is alarmed.

AGAME'MNON, son of King Atreus, and brother of Menelaus. After his father's death, he reigned in Mycenæ, and married Clytemnestra, by whom he had three children—Iphigenia, Electra, and Orestes, afterwards celebrated in the Greek drama. When Paris, son of the Trojan king, Priam, seduced and carried away Helena, the wife of Menelaus, A., with his injured brother, made a tour throughout Greece, exhorting all the leaders of the people to unite their forces in an expedition against Troy. Having gained their alliance, A. was appointed general-in-chief of the united forces assembled at Aulis in Bœotia, where they were delayed some time. In the following campaign against Troy, which forms the subject of Homer's *Iliad*, A. is described as a very stately and dignified character. After the fall of Troy, he returned home, taking with him Cassandra, the daughter of Priam. Shortly afterwards, he was murdered by Clytemnestra, aided by Ægisthus, in whose care he had left his wife and children. A tragical fate had always lowered over the house of A.; and the destinies of his children—Iphigenia, Electra, and Orestes—were the favourite subjects of the Greek drama.

AGAMI (*Psophia*), a genus of South American birds, allied to Cranes. Only two species are known. They are sometimes called *Trumpeters*, from a peculiar

Agami.

sound which they make. The best known species is the Gold-breasted Trumpeter (*P. crepitans*), which is of the size of a large pheasant, but with much longer legs and neck, and a very short tail. It runs very quickly; so much so, that a tame one in England has been known to keep up with hounds. It is capable of the most perfect domestication.

AGAPÆ were love-feasts, or feasts of charity, usually celebrated by the early Christians in connection with the Lord's Supper. The name is derived from the Greek word *agape*, which signifies love or charity. At these feasts, the rich Christians presented their poorer brethren in the faith with gifts, and all ate together, in token of their equality before God and their brotherly harmony. The meetings were opened and closed with prayer; and during the feast, spiritual songs were sung. At first, a bishop or presbyter presided, who read a portion of Scripture, proposed questions upon it, and received the various answers of the brethren. Afterwards, whatever information had been obtained regarding the other churches, was read—such as the official letters of overseers, or private communications from eminent members; and thus a spirit of practical sympathy was engendered. Before the conclusion of the proceedings, money was collected for widows, orphans, the poor, prisoners, and those who had suffered shipwreck. Then the members embraced, and the feast was ended with a 'philanthropic prayer.' As early as the 2d c., the custom of celebrating the A. and the Lord's Supper together had ceased, on account of the persecutions. Justin, when writing on the latter subject, does not speak of the former; but Ignatius, on the other hand, seems to regard them as identical. Generally, the feast of the A. preceded the celebration of the Lord's Supper. But during the period of the persecutions, when the Christians had often to hold divine service before dawn, the A. were, for the most part, delayed till the evening. Later, a formal separation was made between the two rites. In the 3d and 4th centuries, the A. had degenerated into a common banquet, where the deaths of relatives, and the anniversaries of the martyrs, were commemorated, and where the clergy and the poor were guests; but with the increase of wealth, and the decay of religious earnestness and purity in the Christian Church, these A. became occasions of great riotousness and debauchery. Councils declared against them, forbade the clergy to take any share in their celebration, and finally banished them from the church. At the same time, it must be admitted that the heathens ignorantly calumniated the practices of the Christians in these A., and that the defences made by Tertullian, Minucius, Felix, Origen, &c., are eminently successful. The Moravians have attempted to revive these A., and hold solemn festivals, with prayer and praise, where tea is drunk, and wheaten bread, called Love-bread, is used.

AGAPE'MONÉ (Gr. love-abode), a conventual establishment of a singular kind, consisting of persons of both sexes, founded at Charlynch, near Bridgewater, in the county of Somerset, by Mr Henry James Prince, formerly a clergyman of the Church of England. The inmates belong to a new religious sect originating with Mr Prince, and a Mr Starkey, also a clergyman, and are sometimes called Lampeter Brethren, from the place where Prince was educated, and where, while a student, he formed a revival society. The adherents of the sect generally, of whom there are many in the south-western counties, are known as Princeites or Starkeyites.

From Mr Hepworth Dixon's curious book on *Spiritual Wives* (2 vols. 1868), we learn that Prince was born at Bath in 1811, studied first for the medical profession, and actually passed Apothecaries' Hall in 1832; but that being of a singularly religious and even mystical spirit, he resolved, after a lapse of nearly three years, to become a clergyman. To this he was perhaps the more naturally disposed that he had been a martyr to ill-health from his youth. At Lampeter, where his reputation for piety and learning was great, he began to use language regarding himself, in the meetings of his fellow-students, in which one can see the germs of his subsequent extraordinary beliefs. On leaving college, he became curate of Charlynch, and succeeded in bringing round to his opinions among others, his own rector, the Rev. Samuel Starkey. But the sensation excited by his preaching alarmed his bishop, and Prince accepted a curacy on the opposite side of England, at Stoke in Suffolk, where, however, his strange theories regarding himself, and the Day of Grace, and the Holy Ghost, excited prodigious tumult, and led to his dismissal. About the same time his friend Starkey was silenced, and others of the Lampeter Brethren were also in difficulties with their ecclesiastical superiors. A conference was held, and it was resolved to formally quit the church. Prince began preaching on his own account at Brighton, and Starkey at Wey-

mouth in Dorsetshire. People of all classes flocked to hear the new preachers; even clergymen's families were infected with the taint of this heresy, which spread through the secluded villages on the coast, obtaining especial hold among the farmers, several of whom, as in the times of the apostles, brought their wealth, and laid it at 'Brother Prince's' feet—community of goods being the tenet most strenuously insisted upon.

Meanwhile, funds accumulated rapidly. Three of the Brothers—Messrs Price, Thomas, and Cobbe (brother of Miss Frances P. Cobbe, a well-known writer on social topics)—married three sisters, daughters of a wealthy widow lady named Nottidge. These young women, handsome, clever, and of independent fortune, began by listening, against the wish of their parent, to Mr Prince's preaching, and finally left their home to marry his disciples. A fourth sister afterwards followed their example. So strong was the feeling under which they acted, that, on their aged mother coming in person to remonstrate on their conduct, they rejected her claims of authority, saying that the devil was speaking to them by her voice. Their money was used by Prince to purchase a fine property at Spaxton, near Charlynch, where the Brethren and Sisters have lived since 1859, and which is luxuriously fitted up, the church serving also as a parlour, a music-hall, and a billiard-room.

In 1846, however, one of the ladies above mentioned, having become dissatisfied with the doctrine and rule of life in the A., and also (according to Dixon) with Prince's views of property, was expelled from the society, and put away by her husband, Mr Thomas, though then about to give birth to a child. After she had lived four years with her mother, who had made provision for the child, Mr Thomas wrote, renouncing her for ever, and claiming the custody of his son. This was resisted; and in the course of the law proceedings (1850) that took place, much that was offensive in the conduct of the Agapemonians transpired. Although the inmates were married couples, it appeared that they entertained religious objection to the increase of population, as if believing that the perfection of all things will be the extinction of the human race.

Letters intended for Mr Prince pass through the post-office directed to 'The Lord;' and his followers have been heard to say that he is their 'creator.' In 1851, Mr Prince took up a party of them to London to see the Great Exhibition. He drove about town and in the parks in a carriage, constantly attended by out-riders, bareheaded, because they were in the presence of 'the Lord.'

Mr Prince has put forth many pamphlets, some in the highest degree objectionable; others, in which the tenets of the Christian religion are mingled with his own peculiar doctrines. Christ came to redeem the soul. Prince affirms that *his* errand is to redeem the body, on which an astounding commentary is furnished by the 32d chapter of the first volume of Mr Dixon's book. One test applied to his disciples was, that they were to see the eternal punishment of those whom they best loved, and to rejoice in it as redounding to their Master's glory. On this, several declined to proceed further; others agreed to the test cordially. Pain and grief, sorrow and sickness, have for ever lost their dominion over the Princeites; yet still, to the incredulous, it appears that consumption, rheumatism, and other infirmities of human nature, do affect them, and that they die, and are buried, like other men. In one of Mr Prince's latest pamphlets, the following words occur, which may serve to elucidate his somewhat mysterious doctrine: 'God in Jesus Christ has again entered into covenant with man at the resurrection of mankind, and this is the first resurrection, and now Brother Prince is His witness.' 'This one man, Brother Prince, has Jesus Christ selected and appointed His witness to His counsel and purpose to conclude the day of grace, and to introduce the day of judgment. To close the dispensation of the Spirit—the Gospel—and to enter into covenant with flesh.'

In 1859 appeared *Brother Prince's Journal, an Account of the Destruction of the Works of the Devil in the Human Soul by the Lord Jesus Christ through the Gospel.* It was commenced, according to Brother Prince, twenty-three years ago, and more than nineteen years have elapsed since its completion. Its aim is simply this: to shew the work of grace in the writer's soul, from its first struggling manifestations to that absolute harmony in which self is utterly absorbed and swallowed up in God. Brother Prince, at the close of his journal, deliberately states that he considers himself perfect, and incapable of further improvement. These are his words: 'Having neither wishes nor desires, my will can have no disposition whatever to move in any one direction rather than another, but like the finely poised beam of a well-adjusted balance, it hangs delicately suspended on the divine will, in a holy equilibrium of inward passiveness.' From an advertisement or manifesto dated August 1873, we learn that the 'residents of the Agapemone' are still preaching 'every Sunday and Wednesday,' the everlasting damnation of all who do not believe in their incomprehensible jargon.

It would appear that a society, similar in its aims and character, though not conventual in its form, existed in England in the 16th and 17th centuries. It was called the 'Family of Love.' Its founder is generally supposed to have been Henry Nicholas, a native of Münster, in Westphalia, but who lived a considerable time in Holland. He held himself to be greater than Moses or Christ, for the former only taught men to *hope*, and the latter to *believe*, while he first announced the doctrine of *Love*. He made his appearance about 1540. Others, however, are of opinion that the real father of this 'Family' was one David George, a fanatical Anabaptist of Delft, in Holland, who died in 1556, and who imparted his 'damnable errors' to Nicholas, an old friend of his. In the reign of Edward VI., according to Fuller, Nicholas came over to England, and commenced the perversion of silly people in a secret way. By 1572, they had apparently increased in numbers considerably, for in that year one John Rogers published a work against them, entitled, *The Displaying of an Horrible Secte of Grosse and Wicked Heretiques, naming themselves the Family of Love, with the Lives of their Authors, and what Doctrine they teach in Corners.* In 1580, Queen Elizabeth issued a proclamation for the hunting out and punishing of the 'damnable sect.' The Family of Love, 'or Lust, rather,' as old Fuller has it, tried to insinuate themselves into the good graces of King James, by presenting a petition, casting aspersions on the Puritans. At length, the society expired from continual exposure to the effects of ridicule in prose and verse, as well as from its own intrinsic worthlessness. Their doctrines seem to have been a species of pseudo-spiritual sentimentalism, resulting in gross impurity. See MUCKERS, in SUPPLEMENT.

AGARIC and AGARICUS. See MUSHROOM.

AGASSIZ, LOUIS JOHN RODOLPH, one of the most distinguished of modern naturalists, was born at Orbe, in the Canton de Vaud, in 1807. After passing through the usual course of elementary learning at Biel and Lausanne, he prosecuted

his studies at Zurich, Heidelberg, and Munich. In early youth, he had displayed a strong love of natural history; and at Heidelberg and Munich comparative anatomy was his favourite occupation. In Munich he became acquainted with Martius and Spix, the well-known travellers in Brazil; and when Spix died in 1826, his collection of 116 species of fish collected in Brazil was left in the care of A., who published it under the title *Pisces, &c., quos collegit et pingendos curavit Spix, descripsit A.* (Munich 1829–1831, with 91 illustrations in lithography.) Led by this work to study ichthyology more closely, A. next undertook a systematic arrangement of the fresh-water fishes found in Central Europe. Of this work, the first fasciculus, containing the family of the Salmonidæ, appeared at Neufchâtel in 1839, with 34 illustrations, and descriptions in French, English, and German. A second fasciculus, prepared by his friend Vogt, *Embryologie des Salmones*, was published in 1840; and a third, *Anatomie des Salmones*, appeared in 1845 as a part of the third volume of the *Memoirs of the Neufchâtel Society of Natural History*. Beyond this, the work was not continued. A. at the same time devoted his attention to the fossil remains of fishes, and during his stay in Paris (1831–1832), examined several private and public fossil collections. The results of his studies were given in his work *Recherches sur les Poissons Fossiles*, published at Neufchâtel, with 311 lithographed illustrations, 1833–1842. Meanwhile, he had been invited to take the professorship of natural history at Neufchâtel; and here he found two active young friends, Desor and Vogt, who afforded considerable aid in the completion of his works. With their assistance, his work on fossil fishes was brought to a conclusion in 1842. During several visits to England, A. made himself well acquainted with the collections of fossils in this country; and in 1844, published a monograph on fossil fishes found in the old red sandstone of the Devonian system. His study of these remains led him to examine other fossils; and the results appeared in his works *Description des Echinodermes Fossiles de la Suisse*, and *Monographies d'Echinodermes Vivants et Fossiles*. In the latter work, Professor Valentin of Berne supplied the section on the 'Anatomy of the Sea-urchin.' A. next turned his attention to the mollusca, and produced his *Critical Studies on Fossil Mollusca*, which was soon followed by his *Memoirs on the Muscles in Living and Fossil Molluscs*. His work on *Glaciers* excited great interest, as it opened new views in geology. The results of further study were given in a second work on *The System of Glaciers; or Researches on Glaciers* (Paris, 1847). In preparing this work, he was assisted by his friends Guyot and Desor. In 1846, A. went to North America, where he was appointed to a professorship in Harvard College, near Boston; from which he was subsequently translated (1852) to the chair of comparative anatomy in Charleston; but this he resigned (1854), and returned to Harvard. In *Outlines of Comparative Physiology*, A. upholds the doctrine of the successive creation of higher organised beings on the earth. *An Essay on Classification*, by A., was published (Lond., 1859); and a *Journey in Brazil* (1868). During the latter of these years, he was appointed a non-resident professor and lecturer in Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.; and, along with Count Portalès, was intrusted with the dredging operations in the investigation of the Gulf Stream, undertaken by the American government in 1871. His last work was the establishment of a school of natural history on the island of Penikese, presented to him by Mr John Anderson. He died in Dec. 1873.

AGATE, a mineral composed of layers of quartz, generally of different varieties or colours, intimately joined together. The layers are often concentric, and in the section sometimes appear nearly circular or elliptical, sometimes angular. Chalcedony, amethyst, common quartz, jasper, flint, &c., occur as layers in A. It takes a fine polish, and is much used for ornamental purposes. It is common in amygdaloids. Many agates are found in Scotland, and are sold under the name of *Scotch Pebbles*.

AGATHA, ST, a noble Sicilian lady of great beauty, who rejected the love of the Prefect Octavianus, and suffered a cruel martyrdom in the persecution of Christians under Decius (250). She holds a high rank among the saints of the Roman Catholic church; her day falls February 5.

AGATHOCLES, one of the boldest but most unworthy adventurers of antiquity, was born at Thermæ, in Sicily, in 361 B.C. He rose from humble circumstances through the patronage of Damas, a noble citizen of Syracuse, and received a command in the expedition against Agrigentum. Afterwards he married the widow of Damas, and became one of the most wealthy men in Syracuse. Under the rule of Sosistratus, he was obliged to flee into Lower Italy, where he collected a band of partisans. Returning to Syracuse, after the death of Sosistratus, he gained the supremacy, confirmed it by a massacre of several thousands of respectable citizens, and took possession of the greater part of Sicily. To establish his power, and keep his army employed, he now attempted to expel the Carthaginians from Sicily; but in this undertaking he was defeated. His next plan was to pass over to Africa with a part of his army, and there attack the Carthaginians. This war he carried on with success for four years, or until 307 B.C., when disturbances in Sicily compelled him to leave the army for a time. On his return to Africa, he found his troops in a state of mutiny against his son Archagathus, whom he had left in command, but pacified them by promises of large booty. Soon afterwards, he suffered a serious defeat, and with deliberate treachery, left his own son exposed to the vengeance of the disappointed soldiers. The son was put to death, and the troops surrendered themselves to the enemy, while A. escaped safely into Sicily, where, by fraud and cruelty, he soon recovered his former power, and was afterwards engaged in predatory inroads upon Italy. It was his intention to leave the throne to his youngest son, A.; but his grandson, Archagathus, made an insurrection, slew the royal heirs, and persuaded Macnon, one of the favourites of the aged tyrant, to destroy him by means of a poisoned toothpick. This took place in 289 B.C., when A. was 72 years old, and had reigned 28 years.

AGAVÉ, a genus of plants belonging to the natural order *Amaryllideæ* (q.v.), and having a tubular perianth with 6-partite limb, and a triangular, many-seeded inferior capsule. They are herbaceous plants, of remarkable and beautiful appearance. There are a number of species, all natives of the warmer parts of America. By unscientific persons they are often confounded with Aloes (q.v.); and *A. Americana* is generally known by the name of AMERICAN ALOE. The Agaves have either no proper stem, or a very short one, bearing at its summit a crowded head of large, fleshy leaves, which are spiny at the margin. From the midst of these shoots up the straight, upright scape, 24–36 feet high, and at the base often one foot in diameter, along which are small, appressed, lanceolate bracteæ, with a terminal panicle, often bearing as many as 4000 flowers. In South America, these plants often flower in the eighth year, but in our hot-houses not until they have reached a very advanced age; whence arises the gardeners' fable of their flowering only once in one

hundred years. After flowering, the plant always dies down to the ground, but the root continuing to live, sends up new shoots. The best known species is *A. Americana*, which was first brought from South America to Europe in 1561, and being easily propagated by suckers, is employed for fences in Italian Switzerland, and has become naturalised in Naples, Sicily, and the north of Africa. By maceration of the leaves, which are 5 to 7 feet long, are obtained coarse fibres, which are used in America, under the

American Aloe.

name of *maguey*, for the manufacture of thread, twine, ropes, hammocks, &c. This fibre is also known as Pita Flax. It is now produced to some extent in the south of Europe. It is not very strong nor durable, and if exposed to moisture, it soon decays. The ancient Mexicans employed it for the preparation of a coarse kind of paper, and the Indians use it for oakum. The leaves, cut into slices, are used for feeding cattle.—Another species, *A. Mexicana*, is particularly described by Humboldt upon account of its utility. When the innermost leaves have been torn out, a juice continues to flow for a year or a year and a half, which, by inspissation, yields sugar; and which, when diluted with water, and subjected to four or five days' fermentation, becomes an agreeable but intoxicating drink, called *pulque*, to which the Mexican Indians not unfrequently sacrifice both fortune and life. It is made likewise from *A. Americana*, and from several other species.—The roots of *A. saponaria* are used in Mexico for washing, being a powerful detergent, and forming a lather with salt water as well as with fresh. The juice of the leaves, made into cakes, is used for the same purpose.

AGDE, an ancient French town in the department of Herault, founded by the Greeks, and situated about a league from the Mediterranean Sea, on the left bank of a navigable stream. To the north, under the walls of the town, flows the Languedoc Canal. The mouth of the stream forms a harbour, which is entered by 400 vessels yearly. The coast-trade of A., in particular, is very brisk, while it is also the entrepôt for the traffic of the south and west of France. It has, besides, considerable intercourse with Italy, Spain, and Africa. It carries on a large and prosperous trade in wine, oil, salt, corn, timber, wool, silk, and cloth; but the general aspect of the place is sombre and forbidding, on account of the black basalt of which the houses are built, whence it has popularly received the name of the Black Town. It possesses a Naval Academy, and is noted in history as the place at which Alaric, king of the Goths, convened a council. Pop. (1872) 7843.

AGE. The legal divisions of human life, being sometimes arbitrary, and sometimes founded on nature, differ considerably in different countries. In England, the whole period previous to twenty-one years of A. is usually spoken of as *infancy*, a term which has a totally different signification in those countries that have followed the civil law. But notwithstanding this general division, which is common to both sexes, the ages of male and female are different for different purposes. 'A male, at twelve years old, may take the oath of allegiance; at fourteen, is at years of discretion, and therefore may consent or disagree to marriage, may choose his guardian, may be an executor, although he cannot act until of age; and at twenty-one, is at his own disposal, and may alien and devise his lands, goods, and chattels. A female, also, at seven years of age, may be betrothed or given in marriage; at fourteen, is at years of legal discretion, and may choose a guardian; at seventeen, may be an executrix; and at twenty-one, may dispose of herself and her lands. So that full A. in male or female is twenty-one years, which A. is completed on the day preceding the anniversary of a person's birth, who, till that time, is an infant, and so styled in law.'—(Kerr's *Blackstone*, vol. i. p. 493.)

By the law of Scotland, again, life is divided into three periods—*pupilarity*, *minority*, and *majority*. The first extends from birth to the age of legal puberty, which is fourteen in males and twelve in females, at which ages they may respectively marry; the second embraces the period from the termination of pupilarity till the attainment of majority, which takes place at the age of twenty-one in both sexes; and the third includes the whole of after-life. The term Minority, however, is often applied to the whole period anterior to majority, and is thus equivalent to infancy or nonage in England. Infancy in Scotland can scarcely be said to possess a technical meaning; but when used at all, it is always in the sense of the Roman *infantia*, to indicate the period from birth till seven years of age, during which a child, unless in very unusual circumstances, is intrusted to the care of the mother. The office of *tutory* corresponds in duration to pupilarity, that of *curatory* to minority. See TUTOR, CURATOR. By the Roman law, an *approach* to majority was held to modify the character of minority, and so of the other periods; but this rule has not been followed by the law of Scotland; and a youth who wants but a day of twenty-one, is as much incapacitated as if he were fifteen. In France, the marriageable A. is eighteen in males, and fifteen in females (Code Civile, art. 144), an arrangement which seems more reasonable than that which we have borrowed from the Romans, and which, however suitable it may have been to the climate of Italy, could never have been free from inconveniences in this country. Twenty-one is generally the age at which men are eligible for public offices; and at this age they may elect, and be elected members of parliament. But a man must be twenty-four before he can be admitted to priests' orders, and thirty before he can be a bishop. In

America, a member of the Senate must be thirty, and a member of the House of Representatives, twenty-five; this latter was also the period of majority by the civil law. The legal disabilities attaching to the different stages of minority, or, to speak more correctly, the privileges which the law confers on minors for their protection, will be treated of under the different subjects to which they relate. See GUARDIANSHIP, CONSENT, CONTRACT, CRIME, MARRIAGE, &c.

AGEN, the chief town of the department of Lot-et-Garonne in France, is situated in a fertile region on the right bank of the Garonne. The town is old and gloomy in appearance; but carries on an active trade in woollen and linen fabrics, leather, coloured paper, colours, cordage, and sail-cloth. It forms the connecting-link of the intercourse between Toulouse and Bordeaux, and exports plums, brandy, hemp, flax, and poultry. Close by it is the old fashioned house in which Joseph Scaliger, the prince of scholasts, was born. In ancient times A. was the scene of many a fierce martyrdom of the Christians, when it was under the rule of Roman prætors. Afterwards it suffered the miseries of war, during the barbaric irruptions from Germany, to a most incredible extent, having been taken and plundered by Goths, Vandals, and Huns, in their turn. Next it came under the thraldom of the English, in their early French wars, and, at a later period, was twice taken by the Huguenots, in the religious contests of the 16th c. Pop. (1872) 15,752.

A'GENT (Lat. *agens*). An A. is one who is authorised or delegated to transact business for another (who in this relation is called his Principal or constituent) in whose place he comes, and who is bound by his acts in the business to which the agency extends. The appointment of an A. may either be *general*, having reference to all the principal's affairs, or *special*, concerning some particular object. It may further be *limited* by instructions as to the conduct he is to pursue, or *unlimited*, in which case his conduct is left to his own discretion. Even in the last case, however, the A. is not freed from all responsibility for his conduct; he is bound to do his best for his employer, and he ought not to accept or retain the agency unless he is competent to its performance. The mutual relations of principals and agents, and their respective responsibilities to the public in mercantile transactions, will be treated under PRINCIPAL AND AGENT. See also FACTOR, BROKER, COMMISSIONER, COMMISSION-AGENT.

AGENT AND CLIENT. The employer of a law-agent is entitled to presume that he is possessed of competent professional knowledge, and the A. is consequently responsible to his C. for the consequences of gross professional ignorance, or flagrant negligence in the conduct of the business intrusted to him. It is not enough to entitle the C. to damages that the A.'s proceedings have not had the effect which was expected, or which he himself predicted from them. It has been observed in the House of Lords, that it is of the very essence of an action against a professional man by his employer, that there shall be *gross ignorance* (Purves v. Landell, 4 Bell, 46). See ATTORNEY, SOLICITOR, WRITER TO THE SIGNET.

AGENT, ARMY. A person formerly authorised by the government to manage the monetary affairs of regiments in the army, as a kind of military banker. In early times, persons were employed to effect the purchase and sale of commissions in the British army (the only army in which this strange system of purchase existed), without much reference to honesty or fitness; but to prevent pernicious trafficking, no one was after 1809 permitted to manage these transactions except the authorised Army Agents, under a heavy penalty. The Army Agents were also bound down by restrictions, in relation to any pecuniary advantage derivable by themselves from the sale and purchase. Their business, however, is more intimately connected with the private banking transactions of the officers. Every regiment has an agent, selected by the colonel, and empowered by him to be his representative in the monetary arrangements of the corps. The colonel is responsible to the Crown for the honesty of the Army A.; but the agent is in many ways regarded as a servant of the public. When money is wanted for the regular expenses of the regiment, the agent applies to the War-office; whereupon the Secretary of State for War issues an order to the Paymaster of the Forces to advance the requisite sum; the Paymaster does so, and takes a receipt from the agent. There is an annual settlement of accounts between the Paymaster and the agent, each one paying or receiving, according to the side on which excess or deficiency may appear. The agent then distributes the pay and other charges of the regiment. The tendency of recent alterations has been greatly to reduce the public functions of the Agents, who now only receive £15,000 from the state, while in 1858 they had £40,000. The percentage allowed to Army Agents for their trouble in paying the full-pay of officers, was allowed for by the state, and was included among the annual army estimates; but the officer generally bore this charge in relation to half-pay and allowances. The Army Agents conducted all correspondence, and sent all the requisite notices concerning pay and payment; the colonel of the regiment took no part in the matter. The details of the system varied considerably at different times, and in different portions of the British dominions. Sometimes the agent received twopence in the pound on the amount of pay; sometimes three-halfpence in the pound, with an addition varying from sixpence to one shilling per day for each company of infantry or troop of cavalry; sometimes (in Ireland, and in the colonies) a fixed annual salary. When the colonels of regiments provided the men's clothing, under a system now abandoned, the Army Agents were very intimately mixed up with the transactions; but at present, the duties of those agents are limited to the following: applying monthly to the War-office for the money required for each regiment; receiving that money; applying part of it to the payment of officers; disbursing the regimental paymasters' bills for the cost of the expenditure; paying soldiers' remittances for the benefit of their families; settling the effects and credits of soldiers. Many experienced government officers have recommended the abandonment of the system, and the paying of all moneys by the War-office direct, as a measure of simplification and economy.

AGENT, NAVY, a banker and attorney for naval officers, who bears some such relation to Admiralty expenditure as the Army A. (q. v.) to War-office expenditure. His employment consists in managing their pecuniary affairs, making advances, meeting bills drawn abroad, and in all that concerns pay, prize-money, &c. All such agents must be sanctioned by the government, and must conduct their operations according to certain prescribed rules. The *Navy List* for 1873 contained the names of 11 navy and prize agents for officers of the royal navy, resident in London; and 1 agent for officers of the Royal Marines.

AGES, a term employed to designate the epochs

of civilisation in the history of the human race. The old poets and philosophers described these in harmony with what they conceived to have been the moral and political condition of their ancestors. The idea of a succession of A. presented itself at a very early period to the Greek mind. The life of the race was likened to that of the individual—hence the infancy of the former might easily be imagined to be, like that of the latter, the most beautiful and serene of all. Hesiod mentions five A.—the golden, simple and patriarchal; the silver, voluptuous and godless; the brazen, warlike, wild, and violent; the heroic, an aspiration towards the better; the iron, in which justice, piety, and faithfulness had vanished from the earth, the time in which Hesiod fancied that he himself lived. Ovid closely imitates the old Greek except in one particular—he omits the heroic age. This idea, at first perhaps a mere poetic comparison, gradually worked its way into prose, and finally became a portion of scientific philosophy. These A. were regarded as the divisions of the great world-year, which would be completed when the stars and planets had performed a revolution round the heavens, after which destiny would repeat itself in the same series of events. Thus mythology was brought into connection with astronomy. The golden age was said to be governed by Saturn; the silver, by Jupiter; the brazen, by Neptune; and the iron, by Pluto. Many curious calculations were entered into by ancient writers to ascertain the length of the heavenly year, and its various divisions. The greatest discrepancy prevailed, as might naturally be expected; some maintaining that it was 3000, and others, as many as 18,000 solar years. The Sibylline books compared it to the seasons of the solar year, calling the golden age the spring, &c.; and on the completion of the cycle, the old order was renewed. The idea of a succession of A. is so natural, that it has inwrought itself into the religious convictions of almost all nations. It is sanctioned by Scripture, for it is symbolically adopted in the Apocalypse to a certain extent; it also manifests itself in the sacred books of the Indians. Modern philosophy, at least in Germany and France, has also attempted to divide human history into definite A. or periods. Fichte numbers five, of which he conceives that we are in the third; Hegel and Auguste Comte reckon three, placing us in the last. Fortunately, the course of history is not arrested by such speculations, but proceeds in quiet indifference to all metaphysical dogmatism.

AGESILA'US, king of Sparta (399—360 B.C.), was elevated to the throne chiefly by the exertions of Lysander. Being called upon by the Ionians to assist them against Artaxerxes, he commenced a splendid campaign in Asia; but was compelled by the Corinthian war, in which several of the Grecian states were allied against Sparta, to leave his conquest over the Persians incomplete, and return to Greece. At Charonea (394 B.C.), he gained a victory over the allied forces, and in 378 the war was concluded by a treaty of peace in favour of Sparta. Afterwards, in the Theban war, though hard pressed by Pelopidas and Epaminondas, he bravely and ably defended his country. He died in his 84th year. A. is described as of small stature but commanding aspect, blameless in his private character, and, in public life, just, as far as his partiality for his own country allowed. His biographers are Xenophon, Plutarch, and Cornelius Nepos.

A'GINCOURT. See AZINCOURT.

A'GIO, an Italian word, signifying 'accommodation,' was first used in Italy to denote the premium taken by money-changers in giving gold for silver, on account of the greater convenience of gold for transport. The same word is now used to denote the difference between the real and the nominal value of money; also the variations from fixed pars or rates of exchange. It corresponds very nearly to the English word 'premium.'

A'GIS, the name of several kings of Sparta. Mention is made of a king A. as early as about 1000 years B.C., who subdued the old inhabitants of Sparta, and made the Helots vassals or slaves. Of the others, A. I. reigned during the greater part of the Peloponnesian war, from 420 to 397 B.C.—A. II. ascended the throne in 338 B.C. His hatred of the Macedonian supremacy led him to form alliances with several Persian satraps against Alexander the Great. A., after extending his conquests to almost all the cities of Peloponnesus, fell in battle 330 B.C.—A. III. came to the throne in 244 B.C., when the state of Sparta had fallen into a ruinous condition through long-continued war. Though only twenty years old when he began to reign, he boldly resolved to restore the old institutions and severe manners of Sparta; but intrigues and self-interest in the higher classes frustrated his designs. The riches of the state were now in the hands of a few persons, while a great majority of the people were in extreme indigence. A., therefore, in accordance with the old laws of the state, proposed a redistribution of landed estates by lottery. The new ephorus, Agesilaus, who was rich in landed property, but burdened with many debts, astutely proposed that first all debts should be cancelled, and next the lands should be divided. The first part of this plan was soon effected; but great hindrances were opposed to the carrying out of the remainder. Meanwhile, the disappointed people were easily persuaded that A. had endeavoured to introduce measures inimical to the welfare of the state. Pursued by his enemies, he fled for refuge to a temple, but was betrayed by false friends into the hands of the magistrates, who immediately ordered him to be put to death by strangulation (240 B.C.). His mother and his grandmother, who had favoured his measures, were barbarously executed in the same manner. Alfieri, the Italian poet, wrote a powerful tragedy on the fate of A. III.

AGNA'NO, a small lake near Naples, is about sixty feet in depth, and has no visible outlet. The surrounding country is volcanic and mountainous. Formerly, the lake was named *Anguiano*, from the number of snakes in the neighbourhood. On the right of Lake A. lies the *Grotto del Cane*—so called from the stratum of carbonic acid gas, some 18 inches deep, which always covers the floor, and which suffocates a dog (*cane*) or other small animal taken into it - and on the left are found the natural vapour-baths of *San Germano*, used for the cure of gout, rheumatism, &c., but inferior in virtue to the baths (*Stufe di Nerone*) at Baiæ. The volcanoes surrounding the lake have been extinct since 1198 A.D. Further on the left from A. lies the lake of *Astroni*, which occupies the crater of an extinct volcano, and is surrounded by beautiful woodlands.

A'GNATE (Lat. *agnatus*). Agnates, in the law both of England and Scotland, are persons related through the father, as cognates are persons related through the mother. In the Roman law, both of these terms had a somewhat different signification. Agnates, by that system, were persons related through males only, whilst cognates were all those in whose connection, though on the father's side, one or more female links intervened. Thus, a brother's son was his uncle's A., because the propinquity was wholly by males; a sister's son was his cognate, because a female was interposed in that relationship. With us the intervention of females is immaterial, provided the connection be on the male, or paternal,

side of the house. The cause of our having thus changed the meaning of terms manifestly borrowed from the Roman law, seems to be that in Rome the distinction between agnates and cognates was founded on an institution which has not been adopted in the Roman sense by any modern nation —that, namely, of the *patria potestas* (q.v.). Roman agnati are defined by Hugo to be all those who either were actually under the same *paterfamilias*, or would have been so had he been alive; and thus it was that, as no one could belong to two different families at the same time, the agnation to the original family was destroyed, and a new agnation created, not only by marriage, but by adoption (q.v.). The foundation of cognation, again, was a legal marriage. All who could trace up their origin to the same marriage were *cognati;* and thus the term *cognatus*, generally speaking, comprehended *agnatus*. But though an agnatus was thus almost always a cognatus, a cognatus was an agnatus only when his relationship by blood was traceable through males. Justinian abolished entirely the distinction between agnates and cognates, and admitted, both to legal succession and to the office of tutor of law, not only kinsmen by the father, though a female had been interposed, but even those by the mother (*Nov.* 118, c. 4, 5). As to the legal effects of the distinction in the modern sense, see SUCCESSION, GUARDIANSHIP.

AGNESI, MARIA GÆTANA, a woman remarkable for her varied attainments, was born at Milan, 1718. In her ninth year she could converse in Latin, and gave a lecture in this language, in which she argued that a knowledge of the ancient languages was a proper accomplishment in women. In her eleventh year she could also speak Greek fluently, and subsequently acquired with great facility several of the Oriental languages, and also French, Spanish, and German. She was jocosely styled 'the walking polyglot.' This precocious development of intellect was encouraged by her father, who invited parties of learned men to his house, with whom Maria disputed on philosophical points. Of her discourses in these parties, her father published some specimens, entitled *Propositiones Philosophicæ* (Milan, 1738). After her twentieth year, she devoted her mind to the study of mathematics, wrote an unpublished treatise on *Conic Sections*, and published her *Instituzioni Analitiche* (2 vols., Milan, 1748). This work so extended her reputation, that, when her father was disabled by infirmity, she took his place as Professor of Mathematics in the University of Bologna, by the appointment of Pope Benedict XIV. It is said that, after her devotion to the study of mathematics, her cheerfulness vanished, she avoided society, and at last became a nun, and gave the whole of her time to attendance on the poor and the afflicted. Maria A. was a remarkable exception to the general rule of precocious intellect and short life, as she lived to the age of 81.

A'GNUS DEI (Lat. 'Lamb of God'), one of the titles of Christ (John i. 29); also the name given to a certain prayer used in the Roman Catholic service of Mass. The litanies generally conclude with the same prayer: 'O Lamb of God, that takest away the sins of the world, have mercy upon us.'—The figure of a lamb bearing a cross, stamped upon an oval of WAX, silver, or gold, is also styled an *A. D.* Such medals have been consecrated by the popes since the 14th c., and are generally distributed among the faithful on the first Sunday after Easter. In the ancient church, candidates for baptism received similar medals of WAX, and wore them as amulets. See AMULET. In the Greek Church, the cloth which covers the cup in the

Agnus Dei.

communion-service bears the image of a lamb, and is styled the *A. D.*

AGOU'TI (*Dasyprocta Agouti*), a small quadruped nearly allied to the Cavy or Guinea-pig, very abundant in some parts of the West Indies and of South America. It is often very injurious to the fields of

Agouti.

sugar-cane. It is gregarious. Its flesh resembles that of the hare or rabbit. Other species are found in the same regions, and even in the colder parts of South America. The *Pampas Hare* is *Dasyprocta Patachonica*.

A'GRA, a British district in the lieutenant-governorship of the North-western Provinces, bounded N. and E. by the districts of Muttra, Minpooree, and Etawah, S. and W. by the territories of Dhortpore, Gwalior, and Bhurtpore. Its area is 1887 square miles. The surface of the country is for the most part very level, the principal elevation of the Futtehpore Sikri hills, a sandstone range on the west frontier, being about 700 feet. The principal rivers are the Jumna—flowing along the north-east frontier, and its tributary the Chumbul (along the southern boundary), both of which are too deep in the channel to be of much avail for irrigation. The district generally is, in consequence, deficient in water; and the failure of the rains in some seasons (as in 1837, 1838) has been followed by severe famine. The temperature has a wide range, being, during the hot winds of April, May, and June, so high that the city of A. is scarcely habitable by Europeans, while in January, severe frosts occur at night, though the thermometer at mid-day is high. The most important commercial product is cotton, which generally occupies about a tenth of the arable-land. There are two crops yearly—the spring crop, consisting of various grains (wheat, barley, oats, &c.), leguminous plants, flax, tobacco, &c., the autumnal crop of maize, *mung*, *moth*, melons, &c. The cultivation of rice is very limited, owing to the want of water. The population in 1871 was 1,094,184, of whom about 100,000 were Mohammedans, Europeans, &c., the rest Hindus. Of the Hindu population, about two-

thirds are agricultural; of the rest, about one-fourth. —The 'division' of A. which constitutes one of the six North-western Provinces, embraces the districts of A., Muttra, Furruckabad, Minpooree, Etawah, and Etah, and contains an area of 9899 square miles, with a population in 1871 of 5,038,136. In 1833 it was resolved (3 and 4 Will. IV. cap. 85) to divide the Bengal Presidency into two, one of which was to be called the A. Presidency. This act was never carried into effect, and a subsequent act suspended its operation, substituting the present arrangement. See NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES. The seat of the lieutenant-governor is at A., from which circumstance that functionary is sometimes called the lieutenant-governor of A.

AGRA, the capital of the British North-western Provinces in India, is situated in the district of the same name on the right bank of the Jumna, 139 miles S.E. from Delhi, and 783 N.W. from Calcutta. The ancient walls of the city embrace an area of about 11 square miles, of which about one-half is at present occupied. The houses are for the most part built of the red sandstone of the neighbouring hills. The principal street, running north-west from the fort, is very spacious, but the rest are generally narrow and irregular, though clean. Some of the public buildings, monuments of the house of Timour, are on a scale of striking magnificence. Among these are the fortress built by Akbar, within the walls of which are the palace and audience-hall of Shah Jehan, and the Moti Masjid or Pearl Mosque, so called for its surpassing architectural beauty. Still more celebrated is the Taj Mahal, situated without the city, about a mile to the east of the fort. This extraordinary and beautiful mausoleum was built by the Emperor Shah Jehan for himself and his favourite wife, Arjimand Banoo (surnamed Mumtaz Mahal). 20,000 men, says Tavernier, who saw the work in progress, were employed incessantly on it for twenty-two years. The principal parts of the building are constructed or overlaid outside and in with white marble; and the mosaic work of the sepulchral apartment and dome is described by various travellers in terms of glowing admiration. It is composed of twelve kinds of stones, of which lapis-lazuli is the most frequent, as well as the most valuable. Of British edifices in and near the city, the principal are the Government House, the College (for the education of natives), the Metcalfe Testimonial, the English Church, and the barracks. The climate at A., during the hot and rainy seasons (April to September), is very injurious to Europeans; but on the whole, the average health of the city is equal to that of any other station in the North-western Provinces. As the seat of the lieutenant-governor of these provinces and of the administrative, judicial, and military establishments, A. is a place of considerable importance, independently of its past history. The population, according to the census report of 1871, is 142,661. The principal articles of trade are cotton and salt, which are conveyed in large quantities down the Jumna to the lower provinces. This city is held in great veneration by the Hindus, as the scene of the incarnation of Vishnu under the name of Parasu Rama. It first rose to importance in the beginning of the 16th c., and from 1526 to 1658, it was the capital of the Mogul sovereigns. In that year, Aurungzebe removed to Delhi; henceforth, A. declined. It was taken in 1784 by Scindia, and surrendered in 1803 to Lord Lake, after a bombardment of a few hours. Among the spoils on that occasion was a cannon of 23 inches calibre, 11¼ inches metal at the muzzle; length, 14 feet 2 inches; weight, 96,000 pounds. The balls, of cast iron, weighed 1500 pounds. This stupendous piece of ordnance is said to have been wantonly reduced to fragments by blasting by some artillery-officers in 1833. (Thornton's *Gazetteer of India.*) During the late mutiny, A. was one of the places in which the Europeans were shut up. At the outbreak, the garrison consisted of the 44th and 67th regiments of B. N. Infantry, the 3d European Fusiliers, and a few artillery. The native regiments were disarmed in June 1857; and the defence of this important city devolved upon the Europeans. The ladies resorted at night to places of refuge appointed by the governor, while the gentlemen patrolled the streets; but matters growing worse both in the city and country, it was resolved, after a battle with the mutineers, to abandon the city and retire to the Fort or Residency. It was time; for some thousands of prisoners getting loose, began to fire all the European buildings in the city. Hardly a house escaped destruction; numbers of traders were ruined, and had to endure the misery of beholding their ruin from the Fort. As the Fort was both large and strongly defended, fugitives flocked in from all parts of the country, and the numbers soon swelled to 5846. Heroic sallies were occasionally made. Major Montgomery's march to Allygurh, and his defeat of the rebels, though twenty times as numerous, was a feat worthy of Havelock. When Delhi fell, its rabble of defenders hurried off in the direction of A., which place was seriously threatened by them, but was relieved by the rapid and brilliant march of Colonel Greathed, who discomfited the enemy, and despoiled them of nearly all their baggage.

AGRAM, the capital of Croatia, finely situated at the foot of a richly wooded range of mountains, is about two miles from the Save, in lat. 45° 49′ N., long. 16° 4′ E. King Bela IV. raised it in 1266 to the dignity of the royal town, in consequence of its having assisted him against the Tatars. The town is divided by a small stream into three parts, each of which is under a separate jurisdiction. These are —the royal town proper, or upper town, built upon two eminences; the capital, or lower town; and the episcopal town, under the jurisdiction of the bishop. The inhabitants are principally Croats, who carry on an insignificant trade in wood, corn, and tobacco. The lower town is the newest and finest in appearance, many of the houses having Italian roofs. A. is the residence of the governor of Croatia, of the military commander-in-chief of the Croats, and of a Catholic bishop. It also possesses a royal academy, with a public library, and various other educational institutions. Pop. (1869) 19,857.

AGRA'RIAN LAW. With the name of A. L. used to be associated the idea of the abolition of property in land, or at least of a new distribution of it. This notion of the A. laws of the Romans was not only the popular one, but was also received by most scholars. The French Convention, in 1793, passed a law punishing with death any one who should propose an A. L., understanding by the term an equal division of the soil among all citizens. Now, it would have been strange if the Romans, with whom private property was so sacred, could ever have been brought to sanction any measure of the kind. It was the German scholars, Heyne, Savigny, and especially Niebuhr, who first explained the true nature and character of the Roman A. laws. There are still some disputed points on this matter, but one thing seems made out—that those laws had no reference to private lands held in absolute property, but to public or state lands.

As the dominion of Rome extended, a portion more or less of each conquered territory was confiscated to the state, and became public domain. All

laws respecting the disposition of these lands were called A. laws; which are therefore of various kinds. What made these laws be so long mistaken for an interference with private rights, and excited such opposition to them at the time, was the use which was made of the public domains while unappropriated. 'It was the practice at Rome,' says Dr Arnold, 'and doubtless in other states of Italy, to allow individuals to occupy such lands, and to enjoy all the benefits of them, on condition of paying to the state the tithe of the produce, as an acknowledgment that the state was the proprietor of the land, and the individual merely the occupier. Now, although the land was undoubtedly the property of the state, and although the occupiers of it were in relation to the state mere tenants-at-will, yet it is in human nature that a long undisturbed possession should give a feeling of ownership; the more so as, while the state's claim lay dormant, the possessor was, in fact, proprietor, and the land would thus be repeatedly passing by regular sale from one occupier to another.'

The state, however, was often obliged to interfere with these occupiers of the public lands, and resume its rights. The very idea of a citizen, in ancient times, involved that of a landholder, and when new citizens were to be admitted, they had each to receive their portion out of the unallotted public domain; which was attended, of course, with the ejection of the tenants-at-will. It appears, also, that the right to enjoy the public lands in this temporary way was confined to the old burghers or patricians. This, taken in conjunction with the tendency, strong at all times, of larger possessions to swallow up smaller, kept up an ever-increasing number of landless commons, whose destitution and degradation came from time to time to such a pitch, that alleviation was necessary, to prevent the very dissolution of the state. It is easy, however, to see what motive the patricians, as a body, had to oppose all such measures, since it was their interest, though not their right, to keep the lands unallotted.

The enactment of A. laws occasioned some of the most memorable struggles in the internal history of Rome. Most of the kings of Rome are said to have carried an A. L., that is, to have divided a portion of the public land among those whom they admitted to the rights of citizenship. 'The good king,' Servius Tullius, may be looked upon as the first victim of the hostility of the nobles to A. laws. About twenty four years after the expulsion of the Tarquins, the distress of the commons called aloud for remedy, and the consul, Spurius Cassius, proposed an A. L. for a division of a certain proportion of the public land, and for enforcing the regular payment of the rent or tithe from the occupiers of the remainder. The aristocracy, however, contrived to defeat the proposal, and when the year of his consulship was out, Cassius was accused of trying to make himself king, was condemned, scourged, and beheaded, and his house razed to the ground.

The first important A. L. of a permanent nature, actually passed, was that proposed by the tribune, Licinius Stolo, and carried, after a struggle of five years, in the year of Rome 383. The provisions of Licinius's bill, or *rogation*, were as follows: 'Every Roman citizen shall be entitled to occupy any portion of the unallotted state land not exceeding 500 *jugera* (see ACRE), and to feed on the public pasture-land any number of cattle not exceeding 100 head of large, or 500 head of small, paying in both cases the usual rates to the public treasury. Whatever portions of the public land beyond 500 jugera are at present occupied by individuals, shall be taken from them, and distributed among the poorer citizens as absolute property, at the rate of seven jugera apiece. Occupiers of public land shall also be bound to employ a certain number of freemen as labourers.'

This law produced for a time very salutary effects. But before the year 621, when Tiberius Gracchus was elected tribune, the Licinian law had been suffered to fall into abeyance; and although vast tracts had been acquired by the Italian, the Punic, and the Greek wars, no regular distribution of land among the destitute citizens had taken place for upwards of a century. Numerous military colonies had indeed been founded in the conquered districts, and in this way many of the poorer Romans or their allies had been provided for; but still there remained large territories, the property of the state, which, instead of being divided among the poorer members of the state, were entered upon, and brought into cultivation, by the rich capitalists, many of whom thus came to hold thousands of jugera, instead of the five hundred allowed by the Licinian law. To a Roman statesman, therefore, looking on the one hand to the wretched pauper population of the meaner streets of Rome, and on the other, to the enormous tracts of the public land throughout Italy which the wealthy citizens held in addition to their own private property, the question which would naturally present itself was– Why should not the state, as landlord, resume from these wealthy capitalists, who are her tenants, as much of the public land as may be necessary to provide little farms for these pauper citizens, and so convert them into respectable and independent agriculturists? This question must have presented itself to many; but there were immense difficulties in the way. Not only had long possession of the state lands, and the expenditure of large sums in bringing them into cultivation, given the wealthy tenants a sort of proprietary claim upon them, but in the course of generations, during which estates had been bought, sold, and inherited, the state lands had become so confused with private property, that in many cases it was impossible to distinguish between the two. Notwithstanding these difficulties, Tiberius Gracchus had the boldness to propose an A. L., to the effect, that every father of a family might occupy 500 jugera of the state land for himself, and 250 jugera additional for each of his sons; but that, in every case where this amount was exceeded, the state should resume the surplus, paying the tenant a price for the buildings, &c., which he had been at the expense of erecting on the lands thus lost to him. The recovered lands were then to be distributed among the poor citizens; a clause being inserted in the bill to prevent these citizens from selling the lands thus allotted to them, as many of them would have been apt to do.

According to the laws and constitution of Rome, there was nothing essentially unjust in this proposal, which was, in private, at least, approved of by some of the most distinguished men of the time. The energy of Gracchus carried the measure, in spite of the opposition of the aristocratic party, whose vengeance, however, could only be satisfied with the assassination of Gracchus and his brother. See GRACCHUS. The attempts to carry out the 'Sempronian law,' as it was called, were attended with great difficulties, and although not formally repealed, it continued to be evaded and rendered inoperative. Various A. laws were subsequently passed, some by the victorious aristocratic party, in a spirit directly opposed to the Licinian and Sempronian laws.

Besides A. laws having for their object the division among the commons of public lands usurped by the nobles, there were others of a more partial and local nature, for the establishment of colonies in particular conquered districts: these naturally met with less opposition. Still more different were those violent

appropriations of territory made by the victorious military leaders in the latter times of the republic, in order to reward their soldiers, and establish exclusively military colonies. In these the private rights of the previous occupants were often disregarded.

AGRI'COLA, GNAEUS or CNEIUS JULIUS, a Roman of the imperial times, distinguished not less by his great abilities as a statesman and a soldier than by the beauty of his private character, was born at Forum Julii (now Fréjus in Provence), 37 A.D. Having served with distinction in Britain, Asia, and Aquitania, and gone through the round of civil offices, he was, in 77 A.D., elected consul, and in the following year proceeded as governor to Britain—the scene of his military and civil administration during the next seven years. He was the first Roman general who effectually subdued the island, and the only one who displayed as much genius and success in training the inhabitants to the amenities of civilisation as in breaking their rude force in war. In his seventh and last campaign (84 A.D.), his decisive victory over the Caledonians under Galgacus, at a place called *Mons Graupius*, established the Roman dominion in Britain to some distance north of the Forth. After this campaign, his fleet circumnavigated the coast, for the first time, discovering Britain to be an island. Among the works executed by A. during his administration, were a chain of forts between the Solway and the Tyne, and another between the Clyde and Forth. Numerous traces of his operations are still to be found in Anglesey and North Wales, and in Galloway, Fife, Perthshire, and Angus. The news of A.'s successes inflamed the jealousy of Domitian, and he was speedily recalled. Thenceforth he lived in retirement; and when the vacant proconsulships of Asia and Africa lay within his choice, he prudently declined promotion. The jealousy of the emperor, however, is supposed to have hastened his death, which took place at the early age of 55. His life, by his son-in-law Tacitus, has always been regarded as one of the choicest specimens of biography in literature.

AGRICOLA, JOHN (whose true name was Schnitter or Schneider, but who was also called Magister Islebius and John Eisleben, after the name of his native town), born 1492, was one of the most zealous founders of Protestantism. Having studied at Wittenberg and Leipsic, he was sent (1525) by Luther, who highly appreciated his talents and learning, to Frankfort-on-the-Main, to institute there, at the desire of the magistrates, the Protestant worship. On his return, he resided as a teacher and preacher in his native town of Eisleben, till 1536. In 1537, he became a professor at Wittenberg, where the Antinomian controversy, already begun between him and Luther and Melancthon, broke out openly. See ANTINOMIANISM. The troubles in which he was thus involved obliged him to withdraw (1538) to Berlin, where he was reduced to extreme want, and was thus induced to make a recantation, never altogether sincere. He then found a protector in the Elector John of Brandenburg, who appointed him preacher to the court and general superintendent. He made great exertions for the spread of the Protestant doctrine in the Brandenburg states; but ere his death, which took place at Berlin, 22d September 1566, he had become as much hated for his share in the drawing up of the Augsburg *Interim* (q. v.), as he had formerly been for his Antinomian opinions. Besides his numerous theological writings, his country possesses a truly national work of his, entitled *Die Gemeinen Deutschen Sprüchwörter mit ihrer auslegung* (Common German Proverbs, with their Explanation; Hagenau, 1592; and a very complete but somewhat altered edition at Wittenberg, 1592). The patriotic feelings, pure morals, and pithy language of this book, have procured for it one of the first places among the German works of that age.

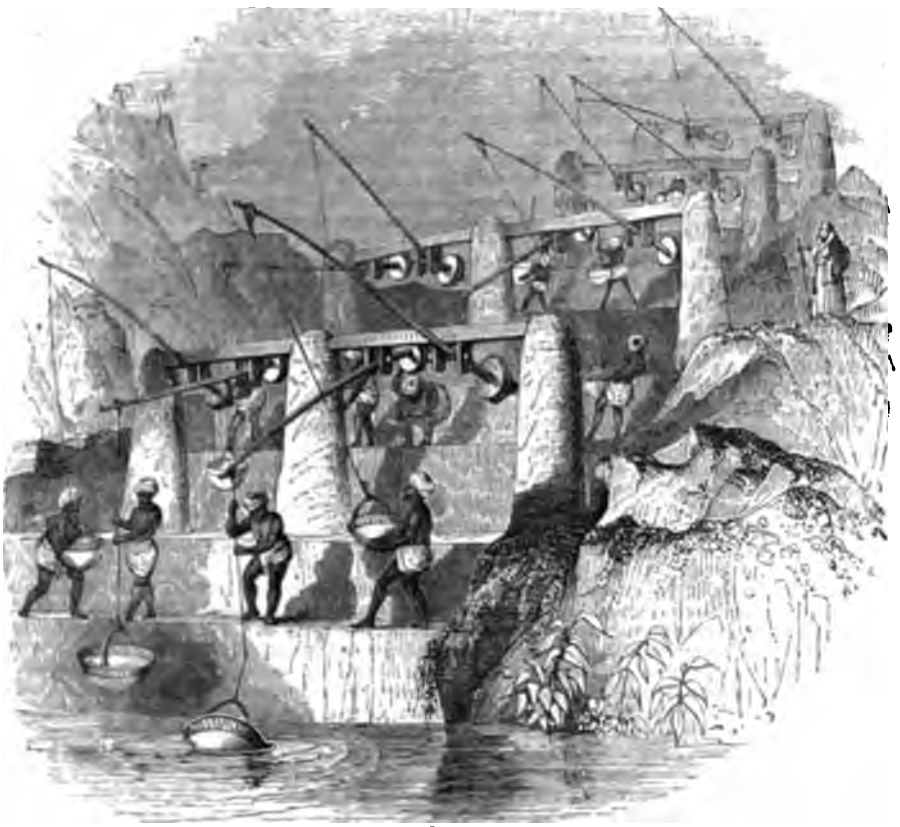
AGRICOLA, RUDOLPHUS, one of the most learned and remarkable men of the 15th c., and a chief instrument in transplanting the taste for literature, just revived in Italy, into his native country of Germany, was born, 1443, in the village of Baflo, near Gröningen. His name was properly Rolef Huysmann (i.e., houseman or husbandman), which was Latinised by him into A., after the usage of the time. He was also called Frisius, and Rudolf of Gröningen, from his native place; and sometimes Rudolf of Ziloha, from the monastery of Silo, where he spent some time. Having been first a disciple of Thomas à Kempis at Zwolle, he went to Louvain, then to Paris, and thence to Italy, where, during the years 1476 and 1477, he attended the lectures of the most celebrated men of his age. Here he entered into a close friendship with Dalberg, who afterwards became Bishop of Worms. He was the first German who distinguished himself in Italy in public speaking and lecturing, and this he did not only by his erudition, but by the elegance of his language and the correctness of his pronunciation. He likewise acquired reputation as an accomplished musician; and his pieces were popular throughout Italy. On his return to Germany, he endeavoured, in connection with several of his former co-disciples and friends, among whom were Alexander Hegius and Rudolphus Lange, to promote a taste for literature and eloquence in Germany. Several cities of Holland vainly strove with each other to obtain his presence, by offering him public functions; but not even the brilliant overtures made to him by the court of the emperor Maximilian I., to which he had repaired in connection with affairs of the town of Gröningen, could induce him to renounce his independence. At length yielding (1483) to the solicitations of Dalberg, who was now chancellor to the Elector Palatine, and Bishop of Worms, he established himself in the Palatinate, where he sojourned alternately at Heidelberg and Worms, dividing his time between private studies and public lectures, and enjoying high popularity. He distinguished himself also as a painter; and at the age of 40 set with ardour to learn Hebrew, in order to study theology. He went again (1484) with Dalberg into Italy, and died shortly after his return to Germany (on the 28th October 1485). His fame rests chiefly on the personal influence he exerted. His compositions, which are written in Latin, are neither so numerous nor so important as those of many of his learned contemporaries. The first nearly complete edition of them was that published by Alard (2 vols., Cologne, 1539). Consult Tresling, *Vita et Merita R. A.* (Gröningen, 1830).

AGRICULTURE (Lat. *ager*, a field, and *colo*, I till) is the art of rearing those plants and animals that are best suited to supply the wants of man. Man has found the earth, in almost every clime, covered with vegetation, yet this often yields little that he can use. The spontaneous growth of nature affording but a limited quantity of food, he at first attempts to supply the deficiency by capturing the wild animals, which often feed upon what is unsuited for his sustenance. Sometimes, however, the most fertile lands under luxuriant forests, or other natural vegetation, only support a small number of animals. In the most favourable circumstances, a given area of territory cannot maintain many of the human family, so long as they depend upon the natural vegetation or on the chase. It is only after those

plants which yield man an abundant supply of food are selected and made the objects of cultivation, that population augments, and civilisation takes its rise.

Man has selected a great variety of plants for cultivation to afford him food and clothing. In northern latitudes, wheat, barley, oats, rye, and the potato form the chief plants from which he derives subsistence. These crops are most productive when grown in summer in the temperate climates of the earth, being unsuited to the heats of the torrid zone. Their geographical limits, however, are greatly extended by growing them as winter crops on the borders of, and even within, the tropics. In these regions, however, rice, maize, millet, and other grains become far more productive of food than the already mentioned cereals are in high latitudes, as they flourish during the heats of summer. Where heat and moisture are almost perennial in the tropics, the banana, the bread-fruit tree, and other herbaceous plants and trees, are most productive of human food.—A short historical outline of the A. of different parts of the world will exhibit the chief elements that regulate the practices of the husbandman.

The early civilisation of *Egypt* claims for it the first notice in a passing outline of the chief systems of A. The teeming population that existed in ancient times in the narrow valley of the Nile, the large standing army which was maintained, the extraordinary works of engineering and architecture still visible



Modern Shadoof.

in our day, and the exportation of corn to other nations, indicate an advanced state of the art of A. Rain is a rare phenomenon in Upper Egypt, and fertility is only maintained by the waters of the Nile, which are subject to annual floods. The risings and ebbings are as regular now as they were in the days of Herodotus; and the agricultural systems are also in a great measure the same. The inundation which, unless prevented by embankments, covers the whole land, occurs at the hottest season. As the waters retire in October, the land is sown with what are there styled *winter crops*, consisting of wheat, barley, lentils, beans, flax, lupines, chick-pease, &c. All these crops require no further watering, as the moisture which the soil has imbibed during the inundation is sufficient to bring them to maturity about the end of April, or even a month sooner in Upper Egypt. Only one crop in the year is grown upon most of the inundated lands. But on those lands which are protected from the inundation, *three crops a year* may be raised by means of artificial watering. Few of the plants used as winter crops can be grown in summer in Egypt. The plants adapted for summer consist of rice (largely grown in the Delta), durra, millet, maize, sesame, melons, onions; they are sown from April to August, and of several of them two crops in the season ripen under the cloudless sky of Egypt. A vast amount of manual labour and animal power is expended in watering the ground for the summer crops.

The peasants use the *shadoof* for the purpose, which is a simple contrivance, used in drawing water, over a large portion of the East. The Persian wheel, driven by oxen, is largely employed; so much so, that about 50,000 of these machines are at present in use in the valley of the Nile. Besides these crops, cotton, indigo, and sugar-cane are now cultivated to a small extent. When the waters rest long on the land, it answers all the ends of a fallow, by extirpating the land-weeds and disintegrating the soil. The ground, in such cases, requires no further culture than treading in the seed by animals, or slightly scratching the surface with bushes. On the other hand, the summer crops require a great deal of tending, both in cultivating and watering the soil. The diminution of the population in Egypt has in some measure deprived the country of the means of its former advanced state of A.; nor is its present political condition at all likely to lead to much improvement.

Few historical records of the state of *Babylonian* A. have come down to us. We can only judge of its productiveness by the dense population that was supported in the plains bordering the Euphrates, where the summer climate is almost as arid as that of Egypt. That river also was subject to overflow, when the snows melted on the mountains of Armenia in summer. Further than this, however, we have no knowledge of the systems pursued or crops cultivated.

The Scriptures are full of allusions to the operations of the husbandman in *Palestine* as well as in Egypt. The operations in the two countries necessarily formed striking contrasts—the crops in the former being chiefly dependent on the rains for growth; in the latter, on the inundations of the Nile. In the Holy Land, there are extensive plains of fertile soil which yielded the finest wheat. The hillsides were covered with vines and olives, often planted on terraces formed with much labour, to afford a larger mass of soil, in which the plants might flourish in the almost rainless summers. The valleys were well watered, and afforded pasture for numerous flocks. Of the smaller cultivated plants, millet was the chief summer crop, but it was only cultivated to a limited extent, being confined to those spots that could be artificially watered. Wheat and barley were the chief cereals, as the winter rains were sufficient to bring them to maturity. The large number of inhabitants that Palestine supported under the Jews is the wonder of all modern travellers, who are struck with the ruins of ancient cities and the desolation of the country. The means of cultivation, however, disappeared with the inhabitants; and the destruction of the wood has added to the aridity of the climate. Concurring testimony indicates that the systems of cultivation were somewhat similar in all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, which are characterised by arid summers, and autumn and winter rains. Irrigation, therefore, was had recourse to wherever it was practicable.

The A. of *Italy* in the present day exhibits great contrasts in its condition; for while a garden-like cultivation is seen in Lombardy, the utmost rudeness and backwardness prevail in the southern parts of the peninsula. Into the social causes that have led to these results our limits forbid us to enter. The literature of the A. of the ancient Romans, throws much light on the systems that then existed in the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. As is well known, the wide-spread dominion of Rome rose out of a diminutive colony planted on the banks of the Tiber. In the time of the early kings, its original territory did not extend above five miles towards the Alban Hills, and still less in other directions. Romulus is said to have divided a portion of his small territory among his subjects, at the rate of little more than an acre to each. This allotment, granted in perpetuity, was not liable to be taxed, and could be sold by its owner. The whole territory was not assigned to the citizens, but the larger part was kept as domain lands, which yielded a revenue to the state, by being let to the wealthy classes. These domain lands were either cultivated or allowed to remain in pasture. The common conditions were, that the occupants of the corn-land paid one-tenth of the produce as rent; of vines and fruit-trees, one-fifth; and a moderate rate a head for sheep or cattle pastured. The occupants were merely tenants-at-will, and the state could resume and sell their lands at any time. A similar policy seems to have been pursued by the numerous states of ancient Italy. As these were all conquered in succession by the Romans, their lands became the property of the Roman state. Sometimes the inhabitants were wholly extirpated, or sold into slavery, and their lands were partly assigned to the poorer citizens engaged in the war; the remainder, which was always the much larger part, became domain lands. In other instances, only a portion of the lands was taken from the conquered nations; the former owners were allowed to retain them as tenants, paying the ordinary rent. Thus, from the earliest times, two classes of cultivators were in existence—the small proprietors, and the wealthy tenants, holding the lands of the state. Betwixt the two, there was almost a perpetual strife—the one demanded the distribution of the state domains, while the others constantly resisted it. Even after the Romans became masters of the whole of Italy, the citizens had little more than four acres of land assigned to each; and the domain lands increased enormously. Attempts were constantly made to restrict the extent of domain held by the patricians, but generally without effect. See AGRARIAN LAWS. The great extent of domain lands gave rise to the employment of slave-labour in their cultivation by the wealthy citizens. This led to the discouragement of small proprietors, so that the free population engaged in A. diminished throughout Italy. The evil was further aggravated by the policy that the Romans pursued towards the inhabitants of the conquered provinces: there, none of the land was held as freehold, but it was solely vested in the Roman people, being all let out for the benefit of the state. On the conquest of Sicily, the wealthy Romans flocked over, and farmed the rents, as well as cultivated the lands by means of slave-labour. Indeed, the chief supplies of grain sent to Rome from Sicily, Sardinia, and Carthage, were raised by means of slaves. A. was long the only source of wealth open to the patricians; and it was deemed the most honourable of occupations. Its operations were then directed by men of wealth and learning; and no wonder that its literature was so copious, and held in so high estimation. Cato, the first and most celebrated agricultural writer (who died aged 88, 150 B.C.), was in the middle period of life at the end of the second Punic war. The large farming system had then been fully established; and he gives us, not only the most minute particulars regarding the management of the slaves on his Sabine farm, but all the details of husbandry, from the ploughing of the fallows to the reaping and threshing of the crop.

The chief grain cultivated by the Romans was wheat, but barley was also cultivated to a considerable extent. Land devoted to grain was fallowed for a whole year every alternate year; in other words, the rotation consisted of 1*st*, wheat, 2*d*, fallow. One-third of the fallow was manured and sown with some green crop as cattle-food. Fallow received from four to five furrows before the wheat was sown in

autumn. The last ploughing left the land in narrow ridges; and as the seed was sown broadcast, it came up in rows, which admitted of the crop being several times hand-hoed. The crops of wheat ripened about the middle of June, but the summers were too dry to allow of millet and other summer crops being raised with certainty. Rye, hemp, flax, beans, turnips, lupines, vetches, and lucerne are also mentioned as occasionally cultivated. Meadows were highly esteemed, and irrigation to some extent adopted. Cattle were fed in the plains in winter, and driven towards the Apennines as the snows melted in spring, and when the pastures below became parched by the heat. The greater proportion of the surface of Southern Italy consists of thin calcareous soils, ill adapted for the growth of grain or grass; and the vine, the olive, and the mulberry become the chief objects of culture. The principal districts for growing wheat are, in the neighbourhood of Naples, and in the ancient Apulia, where Hannibal generally wintered when he overran Italy. Some of these rich plains are still held directly from the government, and cultivation is of the rudest character. One-third of the land is in pasture, and the other two-thirds in fallow and grain. Three or four crops are taken in succession, and the soil is then allowed to recruit its exhausted strength by remaining under pasture.

In the great plain of Northern Italy watered by the Po, agriculture is now in a very advanced condition. A great part of it is of great natural fertility; it drew forth the praises of Polybius, who visited it about fifty years after it came into the hands of the Romans. The oak-groves which he found scattered over the plain, fed the immense droves of swine that were then raised in Italy. Now, however, rich and poor soils are subjected to the fertilising influences of irrigation, and the region has become the best cultivated in Europe. No less than 1,600,000 acres of land are under irrigation, and the results are of the most striking character. The land is forced to produce a constant succession of grass and grain. The irrigated meadows, like the pastures of Ireland and Scotland, are made the corner-stone of the systems of rotation. In general, three years in meadow are succeeded by three years in rice; two years in Indian corn and flax; one year in wheat sown out with grass-seeds. Large numbers of cattle are kept on the farms of Lombardy, where the land is often a complete net-work of canals, with their smaller distributing channels. There is a large exportation both of grain and dairy produce. The vast ranges of snowy mountains that bound the plain to the north, afford a never-failing supply of water during the heats of summer. The vine and mulberry beautify the country, and also give employment to the dense population.

The lower latitude of *Spain* gives it a still more arid summer climate than Italy. Rains commonly fall only during the autumn and winter, and the supply is scanty and irregular. This renders Spain a poor and unproductive country, excepting where the soil can be irrigated. For this reason, the resources of its agriculture are chiefly confined to its well-watered valleys, which are capable of being made to outstrip Egypt itself in productiveness. The Moors early introduced the art of irrigation in the south of Spain, and carried it to a high pitch in the kingdom of Granada. Before the conquest of that country by Ferdinand and Isabella, the valley of Granada was one well-cultivated garden. Though the undiminished powers of the land are still attested by a few spots in the *vegas* of Murcia and Granada, its present condition cannot be compared to its condition under the Moors. The high temperature admits of a succession of crops being raised in one year, as in Egypt. After wheat has been gathered in June, a crop of maize or millet, or of vegetables, is got. Maize is scarcely grown in Spain except where the land is irrigated, so that every valley is more or less under the productive influences of water. The melting of the snows in summer on the high ranges of mountains, affords a supply when it is most needed in the plains below. Vines, olives, and oranges find a genial climate for their growth in the southern parts, and are important objects of culture.

France must be regarded as one of the richest agricultural countries in Europe. In the south, the climate is sufficiently hot for olives, maize, the mulberry, and the vine. The summer rains, too, are more abundant than in Spain, and permit maize to be extensively grown alternately with wheat, which forms a most productive course of crops. Irrigation has received considerable attention in the southern valleys, and the reclamation of the barren wastes of the Crau in Provence, testifies to its fertilising effects. Much of the soil is poor in the southern provinces, and not suited to the growth of grain; but such soil admits of the growth of the mulberry, the olive, or the vine. All these crops demand a large amount of labour in their culture, and sustain a dense population. Normandy is celebrated for its pastures. The north-west of France generally is the most fertile tract of land in Europe. In the less advanced districts, fallow, wheat, and oats is the rotation still followed. Clovers and lucerne are largely sown in the chalky districts. In the best cultivated districts in the north, wheat and beet-root or poppy are sown alternately. Beet forms a most important plant in the agriculture of France in the present day, as a large part of the sugar consumed in the country is derived from it. Much of France is divided into small properties, which is more especially the case in the less fertile provinces. This division of property is, so far, a necessity, as no other industrial occupation is open to the people. As soon as manufactures raise the standard of living in the town, it will influence the condition of the rural population, and lead to the enlargement of properties.

In *Austria*, *Hungary*, and the countries on both sides of the Danube, the climate resembles that of the southern half of France. Maize and wheat are the chief products, but the agriculture labours under so many impediments to progress, that it is yet in a backward state. In Southern *Russia*, there are vast tracts of rich land bordering on the rivers flowing into the Black Sea and Sea of Azov, from which Western Europe derives large supplies of wheat and flax-seed, as well as some maize. The northern parts of Russia are less fertile, and as yet the means of transport is defective and limited. Oats, flax, skins, and tallow are the chief products sent to market. Rye forms the common bread-corn of the lower classes. *Prussia*, unless along the shores of the Baltic, has no great proportion of fertile land within her territory: the chief article exported is wheat from the Baltic provinces, which is of fine quality. The potato enters largely into the food of the common people in Prussia, and is also used in the manufacture of ardent spirits. Its agriculture, however, has no peculiarities deserving of special notice in this cursory sketch.

Flanders has long been celebrated for its farming, and its cultivators are generally supposed to have carried improved systems into the eastern counties of England. It is characterised by painstaking management, and, at the same time, liberal application of manure. The general size of the farms would be considered rather small in England, but considerable capitals are invested in stock and

implements, and several kinds of crops are raised unknown to British A. A large part of the stock is stabled throughout the year, the grass being cut and carried from the fields. The rearing and the feeding of cattle, as well as the dairy, are often combined on the same farm. Flax is a crop which receives a great deal of careful management. Hemp and beet-root require liberal treatment with respect to manure, and only enter into the rotation where high farming is followed. The crops are so arranged in the rotation, that two cereal crops do not succeed each other. In no country are the fields kept so free from weeds as they are in Flanders, and in none do the agriculturists suffer so little from fluctuations in the prices of grain, owing to the great variety of crops that are raised.

England had made considerable advances in A. so far back as the 16th c. This fact may be gathered from the writings of Fitzherbert, Tusser, and others. At an earlier period, her chief article of export had been wool, which supplied the seats of manufacturing industry in Holland, but now she also exports a large quantity of wheat. The increasing prosperity of the country caused a demand for butcher-meat, which began to rise in price much sooner than it did in Scotland. By the middle of the 17th c., turnips and red clover were introduced as field-crops, and by the end of it, the two were extensively cultivated in many parts, in alternation with corn. In 1750, the four-course shift was not uncommon in many parts of Norfolk. Under this system of 1*st*, wheat; 2*d*, turnips; 3*d*, barley; 4*th*, grass, one half of the land was constantly under corn-crops, and the other under cattle-crops. Large numbers of sheep and cattle were fattened on the turnips and clover. In the preparation of the land for turnips, it was well cultivated and weeded, and the consumption of the roots on the land increased the yield of the barley. The four-course shift has formed the basis upon which further improvements have been made in the southern and eastern parts of England. The strong soils of Suffolk and Essex yield good pasture, and about a century ago, they were mostly devoted to dairy-farming. The high price of corn, however, encouraged the conversion of these lands into arable-farms. The course followed was 1*st*, wheat; 2*d*, fallow; 3*d*, barley; 4*th*, clover. Instead of the fallow, mangel-wurzel is now largely substituted, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of bullocks in the yards, without so large an expenditure in the purchase of oil-cake as was at one time thought necessary. In the western counties, where the climate is more suitable for grass, and less so for wheat, dairy and stock-rearing become greater objects of attention. The demand for dairy produce in the neighbourhood of the large manufacturing towns of the west, renders the land of much greater value under grass than under corn, more especially where the soil is tenacious. In the more friable soils of the north-western counties of England, the systems of A. resemble somewhat that of Scotland. Instead of the land lying one year under grass, it lies two, followed by oats, then turnips or potatoes, and the wheat-crop is taken after this green crop, and not after the grass. This is the characteristic which distinguishes the arable farming in the western from that in the eastern counties of England. A large portion of the surface of England is under permanent pasture, and the beauty of the meadows is unrivalled in any part of the world. The surface of England is very unequally farmed, for while A. has attained a great degree of perfection in such counties as Suffolk, Norfolk, and Lincoln, it is in a comparatively primitive state in others. The causes which have led to this state of things are often difficult to trace. The spirit of improvement now seems, however, far more generally diffused, and spirited farmers are everywhere springing up, who, before long, will find many imitators.

In *Ireland*, the want of manufactures has continued to act as a great hindrance to agricultural improvement. The competition that arose among a generally indigent population in taking small farms, led to extravagant rents, the payment of which involved the starvation of the tenants. The faithful pictures, which Arthur Young drew, towards the close of the last century, shewed the workings of such a system. The general introduction of the potato, upon which the people chiefly subsisted, enabled rents to be paid by selling the scanty produce of grain, or the pigs that were reared. The failure of the potato-crop in 1846 produced the most heart-rending scenes of misery that have been witnessed in our times. When Young made his tour, it was the common practice, among the small farmers, to take from four to six crops of oats or barley in succession, after which the land was allowed to renovate its powers by the growth of the natural grasses. On the moderate-sized farms, the cultivation was better; but turnips had little place in a course of cropping for nearly a century after they were largely cultivated in Norfolk. The Protestant population in the north of Ireland introduced, at an early period, the culture of flax, which still forms a peculiar feature in the A. of that part of the country. The large amount of manual labour which it requires in its preparation for market, has so far served to preserve the cultivators from descending so low in the scale of social existence as those in the south. As a general rule, it is found that the worst land is most densely peopled; the secondary descriptions are in moderate-sized farms; while the best land has hitherto been devoted to pasture, for which the climate is admirably suited. The winters are so mild in the south, that cattle are often not stabled. In Young's time, the Irish graziers were the only class of agriculturists that were possessed of capital. The exodus which took place after the potato-failure, has relieved the country of a portion of the redundant population, but it is still too dense in many places.

Scotland made comparatively little or no advance in A. for ages previous to the beginning of the 18th c. Donaldson, who published his *Husbandry Anatomised* ten years before the Union, affords a pretty accurate picture of the art as then practised. The farms were small, and divided into outfield and infield land. On the former, which was furthest from the homestead, the rotation consisted of two years in grass, succeeded by two years in oats. On the infield land, barley, oats, and pease were sown in succession, and the whole manure was commonly applied to the barley-crop. The yield of corn was from three to four times the quantity of seed. Pastures were of the poorest description, as no artificial grasses were sown. Little encouragement was held out to rear cattle, for a heifer did not bring more than twenty shillings in the market—scarcely the price of two quarters of barley at that time. At the Union, however, Scotland gained free trade with her wealthier rival, from which flowed the happiest consequences. Every branch of industry shared in the new field opened up, and none more so than A. A large trade soon arose in sending the lean cattle and sheep that were reared on the mountainous wastes, as well as in the low country, to be fattened on the pastures and green crops in the south. A great rise in the prices of stock soon followed, which not only encouraged improved breeds, but enabled cultivators to devote a certain portion of the arable-lands to the growth of artificial grasses and turnips. Neither of these were grown previous to the Union; but in little more than fifty years

afterwards, one farmer in Roxburghshire is said to have had 100 acres of turnips in one year. Towards the end of the century, turnips and artificial grasses formed the basis of improved A. in every county. A great rise in the value of land took place. The war-prices in the beginning of the present century gave a further stimulus to the reclamation of land. The improvements, however, were not effected without a great revolution in the state of the rural population. Formerly, the farms were small, and often laboured by the members of a single family. A consolidation of farms took place, which necessitated a great change in the social condition of employers and employed, producing often painful contrasts. Of late years, the commercial prosperity of the country has greatly helped to elevate the rural population, and necessitated improvements in cottage accommodation.

Scottish A. is distinguished for great economy in labour, forming a contrast in this respect to that in the chief corn districts of England. Few farms are to be seen in the richer districts without having a fixed steam-engine for driving the barn and other machinery. Labour-saving machines have also been freely introduced. With soil, climate, and situation, the mode of cropping varies greatly over the country. In the Lothians, the six-course shift is common: namely, 1*st*, wheat; 2*d*, beans or potatoes; 3*d*, wheat; 4*th*, turnips; 5*th*, barley or wheat; 6*th*, grass-seeds. In certain situations, the potato-crop has lately been still more extensively planted, occupying the place of the bean or the turnip. On secondary farms, the five-course rotation becomes more common: 1*st*, wheat, or barley; 2*d*, grass; 3*d*, grass; 4*th*, oats; 5*th*, turnips or potatoes. The larger proportion of the surface of Scotland, however, is devoted to pasture for sheep and cattle. The mountainous tracts are generally unfit for cultivation. Little else has been done in the way of improving them than digging a few surface-drains, and improving the breeds of the stock they feed. Sheep-farms vary in extent from 1000 to 60,000 acres. A few of the best stock-farms may summer and winter a sheep to the acre, but most require three acres. The black-faced are reared upon the most elevated and exposed ground, while the Cheviots thrive on those parts that are less so. No other food is usually given in winter than what is left on the fields in autumn. Cross-breeds between the Cheviot and the Leicester are reared in the lower ranges, where a supply of turnips may be had to give to the ewes while suckling their offspring. When the sheep are to be fattened, they are taken to the arable districts. The opening of steam-navigation, and lately, the system of railways, have been of infinite benefit to Scottish A. in getting a market for fat animals.

In *North America*, the same crops are raised as in corresponding latitudes in Europe. The winters in Canada and the United States are much more severe than those of Western Europe, while the summers are quite as hot, and far more moist, and hence arise considerable variations in the practices of agriculture. In Canada and the northern states, wheat is the staple article of export. In all the chief exporting districts, wheat and red clover are grown as alternate crops. Betwixt latitudes 42° and 39°, wheat is often grown alternately with maize, after the land has been under pasture for some years. Again, betwixt latitudes 39° and 35°, the climate is better suited for maize than wheat, which becomes less productive. The best pastural regions are in south Ohio and throughout Kentucky. Below latitude 35°, maize is much less productive, and the climate becomes suitable for cotton. This plant furnishes the staple article of production from latitude 35° to the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. Rice is the most profitable crop in the southern states; but its culture is chiefly confined to the tidal swamps, which can be flooded by fresh water. The sugar-cane is limited to the rich alluvial lands on the banks of the Mississippi as far north as latitude 31°. Tobacco is a principal crop in Virginia and some other states. The West India Islands, surrounded by the warm waters of the gulf, are free from the cold north winds of the American continent. This circumstance favours the growth of the cane, which is so susceptible of injury from frosts. The rich lands of these islands produce large crops of sugar. Coffee is also grown to a considerable extent on several of the Antilles. On the Pacific coast, the climate is characterised by mild winters and dry summers, so that the methods of agriculture must conform to those of the countries bordering on the Mediterranean.

The soil of *South America* appears to be much more fertile than that of North America. In the southern parts, the winters are comparatively mild, when contrasted with those on the same latitudes in the British possessions. The valley of the Rio de la Plata is admirably suited for rearing sheep and cattle, which are found in immense herds in the interior. Brazil is densely wooded, shewing the abundance of the rains, and the capabilities of the country for the growth of the sugar-cane. In the north, where the dry seasons are of longer duration, there are immense grassy plains called savannahs, covered with herds of wild-cattle. Though no cattle were found on the continent when discovered by Europeans, it has been asserted that more cattle are now running wild in South America than the whole domesticated cattle of Europe.

China possesses a climate having a great similarity to that of the United States, east of the Rocky Mountains. The winters are cold, and the summers moist and hot. Rice forms the great staple crop in the warmer regions of the south, wherever the land can be irrigated. This plant is also cultivated to a limited extent on dry lands, along with millet and maize. The density of the population in China, is an indication of the advanced state of its A. The careful manner in which all the refuse of the towns and villages is husbanded and applied to the land, while weeds are not suffered to grow among the crops, is the true secret of the productive A. of the Chinese.

The condition of A. in China shews what we might expect from enlightened policy in the promotion of that of *India*. The monsoons which prevail over Hindustan during summer cause a great luxuriance of vegetation while they last; but the extreme droughts that precede and follow them parch and wither up the shallower-rooted plants. Over a large part of India, irrigation is required to produce many of the crops with certainty. In the tropical latitudes, rice is the most abundant grain-yielding plant, and forms the chief food of the people. The numerous rivers of Northern India supply the means of irrigation, and the production of food then becomes a matter of comparative certainty. Where the winters are cool, wheat and barley are grown at that season, and rice, maize, millet, &c., in summer, just as we find in the irrigated valleys of the south of Spain. At the present time, the principal drawbacks to the better cultivation of land are the deficiency in the means of transporting the produce, and the tenure by which the land is held. The immense quantities of cotton and flax which are grown and literally lost for want of a market, is a subject that is beginning to attract attention, since our manufacturers are suffering from the scarcity of raw material.

It would be out of place to give an outline of the

A. of the other intertropical countries of the world, which have contributed so little to the common civilisation of mankind. Where rains are abundant, the ease with which a subsistence can be got from large herbaceous plants, and trees yielding fruit at all seasons of the year, has been justly regarded as inimical to the progress of society. The productiveness of the banana and the bread-fruit tree, considering the small amount of cultivation they require, is calculated to strike natives of colder climates with astonishment. Captain Cook eloquently remarks: 'Whoever has planted the bread-fruit trees, has fulfilled his duty to his own and succeeding generations as completely and amply as an inhabitant of our rude clime who, throughout his whole life, has ploughed during the rigour of winter, reaped in the heat of summer, and not only provided his present household with bread, but painfully saved some money for his children.'

In the southern hemisphere, the extent of sea greatly predominates over the land. The vapours which are raised over so vast an expanse of water flow towards the equator, and are chiefly deposited there in copious rains. They are not diverted by the peninsulas of South America, South Africa, or New Holland, as they are by the continents of America and Asia. Comparatively sterile regions are the result. Australia and the Cape of Good Hope are sparingly supplied with rains, so that their soil is not very productive of grain. Cultivation languishes, and the agriculturist devotes his attention to the rearing of cattle and sheep. New Zealand, however, possesses a climate having considerable resemblance to that of England, and is favourable for the production of grass and grain.

Under the heads of Cultivated Plants, Dairy, Domestic Animals, Drainage, Irrigation, Implements, Manures, Soil, Rotation of Crops, Lease, &c., will be more particularly treated the systems and rationale of farm-management pursued in the British Islands.

AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY, that branch of chemical science which treats of the composition of soils and manures, and of the vegetable and animal substances which it is the object of agriculture to produce. Instead of considering the subject by itself, it will receive attention under the heads of Drainage, Irrigation, Manures, Soils, &c.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, as at present understood, is a comprehensive term, including instruction in chemistry, geology, botany, zoology, mechanics—embracing, in short, the *science* as well as the *practice* of agriculture. However important the branching off of education into this special track, it is only of late years that adequate attention has been paid to it. The first agricultural school was founded by Fellenberg at Hofwyl, in Switzerland, in 1806. His pupils were taken from the poorest class of peasantry, of whom he truly observed, that having 'no other property than their physical and mental faculties, they should be taught how to use this capital to the best advantage,' by a combination of 'discipline, study, and manual labour.' No fewer than 3000 pupils were trained in this school, which flourished for thirty years under the able direction of Wehrli. Since then, various institutions of the same character have sprung up on the continent. In France, several have been supported by the state - the principal being the one at Grignon, to which an old royal palace with its domain of 1185 acres has been given up. One of the first duties undertaken by the new government of Marshal MacMahon, in 1873, has been the nomination of a commission to re-organise the system of agricultural education. In Prussia, there is scarcely a province that does not boast its agricultural school and model farm; and, indeed, throughout Germany, as well as in Russia, we find educational institutions supported by the state, in all of which, with some slight difference of detail, agriculture is practically as well as theoretically taught. More recently, experimental stations have been established in various parts of the empire.

In England, there are as yet no state institutions of this kind. In 1845, an Agricultural College was established, by private enterprise, at Cirencester, for the education of both resident and non-resident pupils—the former paying as high as £130 per annum, the latter £50, and the course of instruction extending over two years. A large farm is attached to the school. In Scotland, special instruction in agriculture has taken the form of lectures at universities, provincial associations, &c., by which, as well as by the labours of the Highland Society, much valuable educational knowledge has been disseminated. Private agricultural instruction is also given by farmers, who board and educate students for a stipulated sum per annum. Many of the counties in Scotland are exceedingly well adapted for agricultural students, as the nature of the ground permits of both sheep and ordinary farming being practised together.

But it is in Ireland, where peculiar circumstances rendered it eminently expedient, that the most systematic and successful efforts have been made. For several years past, the Commissioners of National Education have judiciously paid special attention to agriculture. Altogether, Ireland has 205 farm-schools, with land attached of very various extent, ranging from 2 to 180 acres. These schools may be divided into three classes, and present a gradual ascent from small to great: 1*st*, There are 169 Ordinary National Agricultural Schools, where, by a slight addition to the ordinary salary of a national schoolmaster, the teachers are encouraged to cultivate school-gardens and small holdings, and thus to give daily practical lessons to the children under their care. 2*d*, There are 36 Model Agricultural Schools in various parts of Ireland; 16 of them under local management, 20 under the exclusive management of the Board. These, whether their scale of culture be small or extensive, present to the inferior schools standards of excellence and imitation, linking the lowest of the agricultural establishments—namely, the cottar farm attached to the Ordinary Agricultural School—with, 3*d*, the highest establishment of the kind, the Central, or Albert School at Glasnevin, containing 180 acres, and cultivated by some 60 pupils, from all parts of the country. With regard to these minor schools, which are annually visited by two inspectors, the reports are, with very few exceptions, highly favourable, both as to the success of the establishments themselves, and their influence on the surrounding population. An Irish rector has given it as his opinion that they tend to make districts 'more orderly and quiet, to diminish drunkenness, and to keep down agrarian disturbances.' Another good authority states that their example has introduced 'rotation of crops,' and encouraged 'attention to winter-feeding of stock, and to the collection and preservation of manure.' Glasnevin Training Farm was established by the Commissioners of National Education in 1838, and considerably enlarged in 1849. Its professed design is to supply young men with instruction in the science and practice of agriculture. Three classes are admitted to its benefits. The first class consists of prospective land-stewards or farmers, drafted, as we have seen, from minor institutions, undergoing an entrance-examination, and receiving

a two-years' training, and who are admitted free by competitive examination; the second, of farmers' sons, prospective tenant-farmers, who desire to advance themselves in life by pursuing new modes of managing, and who pay for the bare cost of their board and lodging. The third class is composed of young men who board and lodge, at their own expense, in the immediate neighbourhood, and who are admitted on the payment of two guineas a quarter. For all these classes alike, labour and study systematically alternate, the entire number of pupils being formed into two divisions, the one devoting the morning of one day to the farm, the other to the school room, and *vice versâ* on the morrow, both working together on the land in the afternoon, and winding up the day with two hours of study. Obedience, punctuality, and habits of cleanliness and order are strictly insisted upon. Various rotations of crops are exemplified upon separate divisions of the farm, and the system of house-feeding cattle is carried on, both summer and winter. The training institution situated on the farm comprises, in addition to dormitories, school and lecture room, &c., a museum, library, and laboratory. The chief supervision of the whole establishment devolves upon Professor Baldwin, head of the agricultural department, who makes it his headquarters. The chief labours of the farm, including draining operations, are performed by the pupils, under the direction of a resident agriculturist. Practical horticulture is also taught, and a good general education imparted by two competent literary instructors. Two sessional courses of lectures are annually delivered on animal and vegetable physiology, chemistry, geology, botany, and practical agriculture. Between January 1847 and December 1872, no fewer than 1116 young men left the Albert Institution at Glasnevin, to carry out its principles either on farms of their own, or, in the still more responsible post of land-stewards or of teachers, to impart them to hundreds.

The ordinary schoolmasters trained in the literary department, to the number of about 150 yearly, also receive two lectures on agriculture weekly, and practical instruction on the model farm twice a week. The Templemoyle Agricultural Seminary, established in the county of Londonderry 40 years ago, and placed, some years since, in connection with the national system of education, is also worthy of special notice, as having sent forth fully 1000 well-trained agriculturists. The benefits of the system are obvious, and it is gratifying to add that their annual cost is comparatively small; the actual current expenses of all the agricultural schools throughout Ireland amounting to somewhat less than £7000 a year, while the number of pupils who attend them is estimated at 8000.

AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES, associations for the purpose of promoting the science and practice of agriculture. Such societies were established in the north of Italy in the beginning of the last century. As early as 1723, a 'Society of Improvers in the Knowledge of Agriculture in Scotland' was instituted. This had a short existence; but the necessity of such an association was felt, and another arose in 1755. This also did not succeed well; however, in 1783 a number of gentlemen met in Edinburgh and founded one destined for permanency, the well known 'Highland Society.' The first annual meeting of this body was held in 1784, and it was incorporated by royal charter in 1787. Originally designed for the improvement of the Highlands, it extended its operations over the whole of Scotland, and confined its efforts more to the advancement of agriculture. Its title is now, under a royal charter granted in 1834, the 'Highland and Agricultural Society of Scotland.' Its earliest efforts were aided by a grant of £3000 out of the moneys paid for the estates of the noblemen and gentlemen who were attainted in consequence of their accession to the rebellion of 1745. The funds required to defray the expense of the charter, however, were raised by subscription, and the members then were only about 150. In 1799 the Society began to publish its Transactions or prize essays. At present (1873) its members number 4500. The ordinary subscription is £1, 3*s.* 6*d.* annually, which may be redeemed by one payment of £12, 12*s.* Tenant-farmers are admitted on a subscription of 10*s.* annually, or £5, 5*s.* for life. The more important objects aimed at by the society are—

1. Agricultural meetings and general shows of stock, implements, and dairy produce held in the principal towns of Scotland.

2. Encouraging a system of district shows, for the improvement of breeds of stock most suitable to the different parts of the country.

3. The encouragement and promotion of a proper system of agricultural and forestry education, by means of powers conferred by a supplementary royal charter in 1856, authorising 'the Council of the Highland and A. Society on Education' to prescribe a curriculum of study, and to grant diplomas and certificates to students of agriculture who shall pass the requisite examination.

4. The advancement of the veterinary art, by conferring the Society's certificate on students who have passed through a regulated curriculum in the Edinburgh Veterinary College, and who are found by a rigid examination qualified to practise.

5. The appointment of two chemists for the purpose of analysing soils, manures, &c. to members, and for promoting the application of science to agriculture.

6. The establishment of an agricultural museum, illustrative of the vegetable products of the country; but this collection has been handed over to the Edinburgh Museum of Science and Art.

7. The annual publication of reports and prize-essays on all branches of agriculture and arboriculture, as well as the proceedings of the laboratory.

The general shows of stock, &c., are held once every year, at Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, or some other principal town, and are attended by vast numbers of persons. The business of the society is conducted by a secretary at an office in Edinburgh.

The writings of Arthur Young directed attention to the agricultural condition of England, shortly after the middle of the last century. In 1793 the 'Board of Agriculture' was incorporated. This was a private association, but being supported by parliamentary grants, it so far partook of the nature of a public institution. Its 'surveys' of the different counties collected and diffused an immense amount of information of the most valuable kind. It latterly encouraged experiments and improvements of all kinds in agriculture, but was dissolved in 1816. Various societies have sprung up since then in different parts of England; of these, the 'Smithfield Cattle Club,' 'The Bath and West of England Society,' and the 'Yorkshire A. Society,' may be mentioned as the most influential. The growth and vigour of the national society, 'The Royal A. Society of England,' has been beyond all precedent. It was established in May 1838, and then consisted of 466 members, but in 1873 the members were as many in number as 6000. The objects which it pursues are almost identical with those of the Highland and A. Society of Scotland. Ordinary members pay £1 annually, or £10 for life. The *Journal*, containing interesting and original reports on A. subjects is sent free to all the members. Ireland also boasts of its 'Royal A. Society of Ireland.'

It was formed in 1844, and has greatly assisted in advancing the agriculture of the country, especially by introducing improved breeds of cattle.—Most of the countries of continental Europe have followed the example of Great Britain in the formation of A. Associations of various kinds.

In the free states of America, where the land is mostly owned by those who farm it, A. S. have sprung up in great numbers. Every state has its central Society, which in its turn fosters a number of local associations. Indeed, in all the chief grain-producing districts, each county boasts of its own society. These being all partly supported by state money, useful information is collected, published, and sold at a cheap rate in Reports. Canada follows in the wake of her enterprising neighbours, and supports by grants of money a provincial show in each province, while the county societies are numerous, and supply materials for the Reports of the Boards of Agriculture at Toronto and Montreal. In Canada and the United States, the A. S. are of a highly popular character. Prizes are given, not only for animals, implements, and dairy produce, but also for fruits. Being more of a general nature, combining agriculture, horticulture, and domestic economy, such exhibitions are frequented by all classes. They are usually denominated 'fairs,' though partaking little of the character and appearance of what is understood by a 'fair' in Britain. The diffusion of education among the farmers of the free states has made them eager readers of A. writings, and the numerous societies soon diffuse a knowledge of improved stock, implements, and seeds, over their wide territories.

AGRIGE'NTUM (Gr. *Akragas*), the modern Girgenti, a town on the south coast of Sicily, in lat. 37° 17' N., and long. 13° 28' E., founded by a colony from Gela (582 B.C.), and, in the earlier ages, one of the most important places in the island. In its palmy days, it is said to have contained 200,000 inhabitants. After being at first free, and then subject to tyrants, it was demolished by the Carthaginians (405 B.C.); but very soon rose again. In the course of the Punic wars, it was compelled to submit to the Romans. From 825 to 1086 A.D., it was in the possession of the Saracens, from whom it was conquered by Count Roger Guiscard. The modern city contains about 15,000 inhabitants, and exhibits numerous and splendid ruins, which, glittering in the brilliant light of a southern sky, afford inexhaustible materials for pictorial representation. Among the best preserved of these remains of antiquity is the Temple of Concord, of which only the roof and part of the front are wanting. The most extensive of the temples was that of Jupiter, 340 feet long, 120 feet high, and 160 feet wide, which, at the time of its destruction, appears not to have been finished. Only the basement and some fragments remain. Considerable ruins of the temples of Juno Lucina, of Hercules, and Æsculapius, are still found. The trade of the modern city is inconsiderable. Some corn, fruit, oil, &c., is exported, but the harbour is little frequented.

A'GRIMONY (*Agrimonia*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Rosaceæ* (q. v.), sub-order *Potentilleæ*. The calyx is five-cleft, without bracts; the hardened tube at length invests two carpels, and is covered with hooked bristles. The COMMON AGRIMONY (*A. Eupatoria*) is a native of Britain and other parts of Europe, growing in borders of fields, on waysides, &c. It has an upright habit, attains a height of two feet or more, and has interruptedly pinnate leaves, with the leaflets serrate and downy beneath. The flowers are small and yellow, in close racemes. The whole plant has a pleasant, slightly aromatic smell, and is bitter and styptic. A decoction of it is used as a gargle; the dried leaves form a kind of herb tea; and the root has some celebrity as a

Common Agrimony.

vermifuge.—Very similar to this is *A. suaveolens*, a native of Virginia, Carolina, &c. It has a very agreeable fragrance.

AGRI'PPA, CORNELIUS HENRY, a remarkable character of the 16th c., distinguished as writer, philosopher, and physician, who united great ability and extensive acquirements with quackery, was born of a noble family at Cologne, 1486. He led an adventurous and unsettled life, quite in the spirit of his times. As early as 1509, he was appointed teacher of theology at Dôle, in Franche Comté, and attracted great attention by his lectures; but having by his bitter satires on the monks drawn upon himself the hatred of that body, he was accused of heresy, and obliged to leave Dôle. He next taught theology for some time in Cologne, occupying himself at the same time with alchemy, and then went to Italy, where he took military service under Maximilian I., and was knighted. He was afterwards made Doctor of Laws and of Medicine, and gave lectures at Pavia, until, burdened with debt, he fled to Casale. After a time, he was appointed Syndic of Metz; but in 1520, he was again in Cologne, having excited the hostility of the inquisition and of the monks by his defence of a witch. His old enemies, the monks, persecuted him still in Cologne, so that he went to Freiburg in Switzerland, where he began to practise as a physician. In 1524, he went again to Metz, and there he gained such a reputation that the mother of Francis I. chose him as her physician. As he declined to prophesy the issue of the campaign that Francis I. undertook in 1525 in Italy, he lost his post, and went to Holland. Here he wrote his celebrated book, *De Incertitudine et Vanitate Scientiarum* (Colog. 1527), a biting satire on the sciences as they then existed. An accusation against him having been brought before Charles V., on account of this book, he again became a fugitive, and repaired to Lyon. He there found the hatred he had early excited in France not yet extinguished, and was imprisoned; but being liberated, through the exertions of his friends, he retired to Grenoble, where he died (1535). A. was a clear-headed man, and had the merit of successfully combating many of the prejudices of his age. His book, *De Occulta Philosophia*, which contains the most systematic account of the Cabbala (q. v.), stands in direct contradiction with the work above mentioned. The most complete collection of his writings appeared at Lyon, in two vols. without date (about 1550).

AGRIPPA, HEROD, I., son of Aristobulus and

Berenice, and grandson of Herod the Great, was educated at Rome. He lived there in a very extravagant style, giving splendid entertainments, especially to the princes of the imperial family, and scattering his money lavishly in gifts to the freedmen of the emperor, until his debts rendered it unsafe for him to remain longer in the city. He then took refuge in Idumea. From this period almost to the death of Tiberius, he suffered a variety of misfortunes, but having formed a friendship with Caligula, the latter, on his accession to the throne, gave him the tetrarchies of Abilene, Batanæa, Trachonitis, and Auranitis. After the banishment of Herod Antipas, he received his tetrarchy also—namely, Galilee and Perea. Claudius, whom A. helped to secure the possession of the empire, added to his dominions Judæa and Samaria, and he was thus the ruler of a more extensive territory than even Herod the Great had been. His government was mild towards the Jews, with whom he was remarkably popular; but he severely persecuted the Christians. He caused James, the brother of John, and the head of the Church at Jerusalem, to be beheaded, and Peter to be thrown into prison. He died of a peculiarly loathsome disease at Cæsarea, in Palestine, while celebrating games in honour of the emperor, in the 55th year of his age, and the 44th of the Christian era. The account given of this in the Acts of the Apostles, substantially agrees with that of Josephus.

AGRIPPA, Herod, II., son of Agrippa I., was at Rome when his father died, and only 17 years of age. Claudius, therefore, resolved to detain him for some time, and in the meanwhile re-transformed the kingdom into a Roman province, but presented him with the little territory of Chalcis when his uncle Herod, who was its ruler, died. In 53 A.D., he left Rome, and received from the emperor nearly the whole of his paternal possessions, which were subsequently enlarged by Nero. Like his father, A. was fond of fine buildings, a taste which he probably acquired by his long sojourn at Rome. He spent great sums in adorning Jerusalem, Berytus, and other cities; but he was not prudent in the distribution of his favours, or just in his treatment of the high-priests, so that he failed to secure the good-will of the Jews. He did all in his power, however, to dissuade them from rebelling against the Romans; but when he found his advices and warnings neglected, he abandoned his countrymen, and joined the imperial troops. When Jerusalem was taken, he went with his sister to live at Rome, where he was made prætor, and where he died in the 70th year of his age—the last of the Herods. It was before him Paul made his memorable defence.

AGRIPPA, Marcus Vipsanius (63—12 B.C.), a Roman, who, though not of high birth, rose to an exalted position through his own talents. He first espoused Marcella, the niece, and then Julia, the daughter of Octavius. He was eminent both in war and in peace; and as a general, counsellor, and friend of the emperor, did good service to him and to the Roman state. As a general, he laid the foundation for the sole dominion of Octavius, and commanded his fleet in the battle of Actium (31 B.C.). He was generous, upright, and a friend to the arts; Rome owed to him the restoration and construction of several aqueducts, and of the Pantheon, besides other public works of ornament and utility.

AGRIPPINA.—I. The daughter of M. Vipsanius Agrippa, by his wife Julia, was one of the most heroic and virtuous women of antiquity. She was married to Cæsar Germanicus (see Germanicus), whom she accompanied in all his campaigns. She openly accused Tiberius before the senate of having hired the murderers of her husband; and the tyrant, who hated her for her virtues, and the esteem in which she was held by the people, banished her to the island of Pandataria, near Naples, where she voluntarily died of hunger (33 A.D.). The antiquarian museum at Dresden possesses four excellent busts of her.—II. A very different character was Agrippina, the daughter of the last mentioned, one of the most detestable women that have lived. In her second widowhood, she induced the Emperor Claudius, her own uncle, to marry her, and espoused his daughter, though already betrothed to another, to her son Nero. In order to bring the latter to the throne, she ruined many rich and noble Romans, excluded Britannicus, the son of Claudius by Messalina, and finally poisoned the emperor, her husband. She then endeavoured to govern the empire through her son Nero, who was chosen emperor; but her ascendency proving intolerable, Nero caused her to be put to death (60 A.D.). She enlarged and adorned her native city, Cologne, which received from her the name of Colonia Agrippina.

AGTELEK, Cavern of (in Hungarian, *Baradlo*, i. e., a suffocating place), one of the largest and most remarkable stalactitic caverns of Europe, is situated near the village of Agtelek, in the county of Gomor, not far from the road from Pesth to Kaschau. It opens at the foot of a mountain with an entrance scarcely 3½ feet high by 5 feet wide. It consists of a labyrinth of caverns communicating with one another, many of which it is difficult, and even dangerous, to explore, when the streams that flow through them are high. Numerous stalactitic structures occur in all the caverns, which, from their singular shapes, have given rise to the various names of 'the Great Church,' 'the Mosaic Altar,' 'the Image of the Virgin,' &c. The largest and most imposing of those caverns, situated about 200 paces from the entrance, is called the *Flower-Garden*. It is 96 feet high, 90 feet wide, and runs nearly 900 feet in a straight line.

AGUADO, Alexander Maria, Marquis de Las Marismas del Guadalquiver, one of the wealthiest bankers of modern times, was born at Seville, 1784, and died 14th April 1842. He was descended from a Jewish family, and in his youth bore arms as a soldier. During the Spanish war of independence, he fought with distinction on the side of Joseph, rose in the French army to the rank of colonel, and acted as aide-de-camp to Marshal Soult, but retired in 1815, and began a commission business at Paris. In this he soon realised such wealth as enabled him to found a bank. Good-fortune, energy, and boldness, with a singular talent for concerting schemes, advanced him in a short time to be one of the first bankers in Paris. He also obtained a political reputation by negotiating the Spanish loans of 1823, 1828, 1830, and 1831. In these operations, the Spanish government frequently invested him with unlimited powers, which he dexterously employed to save his country from national bankruptcy. Ferdinand VII. conferred on him the title of Marquis de Las Marismas del Guadalquiver. His services were also recompensed by privileges in mining and in executing public undertakings. All the Spanish bonds issuing from his house received the name of *Aguados*. It was through A. that the Greek loan of 1834 was effected. He was naturalised in France in 1828, and at his death left a fortune of above 60 million francs, of which he had invested part in landed property; the castle of Château-Margaux, celebrated for its wine, belonged to him. His distinguished collection of pictures gave occasion to Gavard for the publication of the *Galerie A.* (Paris, 1837—1842).

A'GUAS CALIE'NTES, a well-built town in Mexico, in the province of Zacatecas. It is situated in N. lat. 21° 53′, and W. long. 101° 45′, in a plain 6000 feet above the sea-level, and on a stream of the same name, which is tributary to the Rio Grande de Santiago. It contains a population of 20,000; and besides the cultivation of fields and gardens, the manufacture of woollen cloth is very considerable, and is carried on on the factory system. The town is favourably situated for trade, as the great road from Mexico to Sonora and Durango is here crossed by that from San Louis Potosi to Guadalaxara. The environs abound in hot springs, from which the town takes its name.

A'GUE (*Febris intermittens*) is the common name for an intermitting fever, accompanied by paroxysms or fits. Each fit is composed of three stages; the cold, the hot, and the sweating stage. Before a fit, the patient has a sensation of debility and distress about the epigastrium; feels weak and disinclined for exertion; the surface of his body becomes cold, and the bloodless skin shrivels up into the condition termed goose-skin (*cutis anserina*). A cold sensation creeps up the back, and spreads over the body; the patient shivers, his teeth chatter, his knees knock together; his face, lips, ears, and nails turn blue; he has pains in his head, back, and loins. This condition is succeeded by flushes of heat, the coldness gives place to warmth, and the surface regains its natural appearance. The warmth continues to increase, the face becomes red and turgid, the head aches, the breathing is deep and oppressed, the pulse full and strong. The third stage now comes on; the skin becomes soft and moist, the pulse resumes its natural force and frequency, and a copious sweat breaks from the whole body.

These paroxysms recur at regular intervals. The interval between them is called 'an intermission.' When they occur every day, the patient has *quotidian* A.; every second day, *tertian;* and when they are absent for two days, *quartan*. All ages are liable to this disease; and a case is on record of a pregnant woman having a tertian A. which attacked her of course every other day; but on the alternate days, when she was well, she felt that the child also had A., although the paroxysms did not coincide with her own.

The exciting causes of this disease are invisible effluvia from the surface of the earth (marsh miasmata). A certain degree of temperature seems necessary—higher than 60° Fahrenheit—for the production of the poison. It does not exist within the Arctic Circle, nor does it appear in the cold seasons of temperate climates, and seldom beyond the 56° of N. lat. (Watson). It also requires moisture. In England, A. is almost exclusively confined to the eastern coast; and the extension of drainage has rendered agues far more rare than before. James I. and Oliver Cromwell died of A. contracted in London. The Pontine Marshes to the S. of Rome have long been notorious as a source of aguish fevers. Peat bog, or moss, is not productive of malaria, as is seen in parts of Ireland and Scotland. Neither is A. ever seen among the inhabitants of the Dismal Swamp—a moist tract of 150,000 acres on the frontiers of Virginia and North Carolina in North America.—The treatment of aguish fever consists generally in calomel given in purgative doses, followed by preparations of cinchona-bark, and in applying, during the paroxysm, external warmth to the body.

AGUE'SSEAU, HENRI FRANÇOIS D', a distinguished lawyer and chancellor of France, and pronounced by Voltaire to have been the most learned magistrate that France ever possessed, was born at Limoge, 1668 A. D. He received his earliest education from his father; and afterwards devoted himself to the study of law, became *avocat-général* at Paris in 1690, and at the age of thirty-two, *procureur-général* of the parliament. In this office, he effected many improvements in the laws and in the administration of justice. He displayed great benevolence during a famine which occurred in the winter of 1709, applying all the means in his power for the alleviation of the calamity. As a steady defender of the rights of the people, and of the Gallican Church, he successfully opposed the decrees of Louis XIV. and the Chancellor Voisin in favour of the papal bull Unigenitus (q. v.). During the government of the Duke of Orleans, he became chancellor; but in the following year fell into disgrace by opposing Law's system of finance, and retired to his country-seat at Fresnes. When, however, the ruin induced by Law's system produced a general outcry of dissatisfaction, A. was reinstated, in order to appease the people. But his well-meant efforts could not retrieve the desperate state of affairs. A. was afterwards exiled a second time, in consequence of his opposing Cardinal Dubois; and though he (in 1727) obtained from Cardinal Fleury permission to return, yet he did not again resume the office of chancellor till 1737. He resigned in 1750, and died, Feb. 9, 1751. His works, consisting of pleadings and speeches at the openings of the parliament, occupy thirteen volumes (Paris, 1759—1789; Paris, 1819).

AGU'LHAS, CAPE, (meaning Needles), the most southern point of Africa, lies about 100 miles E.S.E. of the Cape of Good Hope, in lat. 34° 51′ S., long. 19° 55′ E. In 1849, a light-house was erected on it, at an elevation of 52 feet above high-water. The A. Bank extends along the whole southern coast of Africa. It is 560 miles in length, and, opposite the Cape of Good Hope, as many as 200 in breadth.

A'HAB, the son and successor of Omri, was king of Israel from 918 to 897 B.C. He married Jezebel, the daughter of Ethbaal, king of Sidon; through whose injurious influence the Phœnician worship of Baal was introduced, the king himself seduced to idolatry, and the priests and prophets of Jehovah cruelly persecuted. Yet the prophets retained their influence over the people; and Elijah dared openly to attack the priests of Baal, and reprove the wickedness of the king with the most severe threatenings of punishment. A. prosecuted three wars, with various success, against Benhadad, king of Syria; but in the last campaign he was killed by an arrow. His whole family was afterwards extirpated under King Jehu.

AHASUE'RUS is the name, or rather, perhaps, the title, by which several kings of Media and Persia are mentioned in Scripture. The best known of these is Esther's husband (see ESTHER), who is probably the same as the Persian king **Xerxes**; the Hebrew form of his name (Achaschverosch) pointing to the old Persian form of the name Xerxes (Khschyârschan).

A-HULL, a maritime term, used to denote the position of a ship when all her sails are furled, and her helm lashed on the lee-side; in such a position, she lies nearly with her side to the wind, but with the head turned a little towards the direction of the wind.

It may be convenient to mention in this place that the phraseology adopted by British naval officers and seamen, whether belonging to the royal navy or to the mercantile marine, comprises a large number of words formed on a principle similar to that of *ahead*, with the vowel a (a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon preposition *on*, meaning *on, in, at*) prefixed to a noun. Such are the following: *Aback, abaft, aboard, abreast, a-cockbill, adrift, afloat, afore, aground, ahead, a-hull, a-lee, aloft, aloof, amain,*

amidships, *an-end*, *apeak*, *ashore*, *astern*, *atrip*, *avast*, *a-weather*, *a-weigh*. Such of these terms as seem to require it, will be found briefly explained under their proper headings.

AHMEDABA'D, or more properly **AHMADABAD**, the chief town in the district of the same name, in the Presidency of Bombay, is situated on the left bank of the Sabermutty, which flows nearly due south into the Gulf of Cambay. It was built in the year 1412, by Ahmed or Ahmad Shah, and underwent all the vicissitudes of government incident to the cities of Hindustan, till the year 1818, when it finally came under the power of the British. It was formerly one of the largest and most magnificent capitals in the East – in the opinion of a native writer, 'the handsomest city in Hindustan; perhaps in the world.' Its architectural relics are gorgeous, even in the midst of decay. The Jumna or Juma'ah Masjid, or Great Mosque, rises from the centre of the city, and is adorned by two superbly decorated minarets, 'each of which contains a circular flight of steps, leading to a gallery near the summit. Its domes are supported by lofty columns, regularly disposed; the concave of these cupolas is richly ornamented with mosaic and fret-work. The pavement is of the finest marble.' The mosque of Sujaat Khan is extremely elegant. There is likewise an ivory mosque, which has obtained that name from the circumstance, that although built of white marble, it is 'curiously lined with ivory, and inlaid with a profusion of gems, to imitate natural flowers, bordered by a silver foliage on mother-of-pearl.' There are also the Fire Temple and the Tower of Silence of the Parsis. A. once abounded in gardens, aqueducts, reservoirs, &c.; but these, especially the gardens, are now sadly defaced and injured. Its prosperity has been almost wholly destroyed by the rapacity of the Mahrattas, although at one time it was famous for its manufacture of rich fabrics of silk and cotton, articles of gold, silver, steel, and enamel. 'It employed many artists in portrait-painting and miniatures,' and had extensive trade in indigo, cotton, and opium. The old city-walls, built in 1485, which had in the course of ages, and through the assaults of enemies, become very dilapidated, were repaired in 1834 at an expense of 250,000 rupees, and water conveyed from the river through the city by means of pipes. It is distant from Bombay 290 miles north; in lat. 23° N., long. 72° 36'. Pop. (1872) 116,873.

AHMEDNU'GGUR, or **AHMADNUGGUR**, an important town in the Presidency of Bombay. It was founded in 1494 by Ahmad Nizam Shah. During the reign of his son, Boorhan Nizam Shah, it reached a high degree of prosperity; but after his death, it witnessed an incessant series of wars, confusions, and murders. In 1797, it fell into the hands of the Mahrattas; and in 1803 was surrendered, after a trivial resistance of two days, to General Wellesley. It was, however, shortly after restored to the Peishwa; but in 1817, the fort was again occupied by the British. The town has increased rapidly since it came under British protection and rule. It possesses a most singular defence, in addition to its wall; this consists of an 'immense prickly-pear hedge about 20 feet high, which is so full of sap that no fire will kindle it, and so vigorous that it is almost impossible to force one's way through it.' A. contains an English church, a *dharmsalah* (or place of entertainment for travellers) capable of holding 250 persons. It also possesses a good supply of water by means of aqueducts. It is distant from Bombay 122 miles east, in lat. 19° 6', long. 74° 46'. There are several places of the same name in Hindustan. Pop. (1872) 32,841.

A'HRIMAN (in the Zend, *aźhro mainyus*, i. e., the malignant, destroying spirit) is, according to the dualistic doctrine of Zoroaster, the personification of malignity, the original source of all moral and physical evil, the chief of the devils and malignant spirits, the king of darkness and of death, and consequently the eternal enemy and opponent of Ormuzd and of his kingdom of light. See ZOROASTER.

AI'DE-DE-CAMP, an officer who may be regarded as a kind of superior confidential attendant upon a general in active service. The A. is the organ of the general. He carries all orders on the field of battle: these he is to deliver in the plainest terms, so as to be distinctly understood; and when so understood, the orders are to be as implicitly obeyed as if the general himself were present and speaking. As an example of the importance of this matter, may be adduced the brilliant but disastrous light-cavalry charge at Balaklava in the autumn of 1854. Lord Raglan sent a message, partly verbal and partly written, to the Earl of Lucan, concerning a particular piece of strategy at a certain time and place; the message was misconceived, and the Earl of Cardigan was directed to make a military movement, perfectly hopeless in its character, resulting in a very serious cavalry loss; although the incident presented a fine display of heroism united with discipline. An A. also acts as secretary to the general, and assists him in his correspondence, when he has not specifically a military secretary. He aids likewise in dispensing the courtesies of the general's house or tent. Generals are much accustomed to appoint their sons or other relations to this confidential post. The Aides-de-camp vary from one to four in number, according as the commander is a brigadier-general, major-general, lieutenant-general, general, or field-marshal: each receives 9*s.* 6*d.* a day besides regimental pay. Before an officer can be appointed as A., he must have been two years with his regiment, and must pass an examination. Aides-de-camp are not removed from the list of their regiments; and, most commonly, are captains. Besides these Aides-de-camp to generals, the Queen has the power to appoint any number of Aides-de-camp to herself, in her capacity of nominal head of the army. There are no particular duties attached to the office; but it is much sought after, both as an honour, and as conferring on the holder the rank of colonel in the army. There are 6 who receive daily pay as Aides-de-camp, and who take it in turn to attend the Queen on state occasions. In the year 1873, there were no fewer than thirty-three military Aides-de-camp to the Queen, of whom seven were peers of the realm; but of the thirty-three, only nineteen belonged to the army, the rest, except two of the marines, being militia officers, whose appointments are purely honorary. In addition to all the above, there are naval Aides-de-camp to the Queen, of whom there were eleven in the year 1873.

AIDE-TOI ET LE CIEL T'AIDERA (Help yourself, and Heaven will help you). This moral aphorism was the cry of certain French political writers to the middle classes, about the year 1824, and became the watch-word and title of a society, having for its object to agitate the electoral body in opposition to the government. This, however, was to be done by means strictly legitimate, and chiefly by correspondence and political publications. Most of its founders and active members belonged to the party of *Doctrinaires* (q. v.), as Guizot, who was president for some time, Duchatel, Duvergier de Hauranne, Dubois, Remusat, Thiers, Cavaignac, &c. *Le Globe* newspaper was the organ of the association, and afterwards *Le National*. It had

a great share in bringing about the revolution of July 1830, and was at first countenanced by the new government; but after a short time it was dissolved (1832).

AIDI'N, or GUZEL-HISSAR, a town of Asiatic Turkey, on the river Meander, in the pachalic of Anatolia, built out of the ruins of the ancient Tralles, which was situated on a plateau above the present town. It lies sixty miles south-east of Smyrna, contains 6000 houses, and a population estimated at from 35,000 to 60,000 inhabitants, is four miles in circuit, and carries on a trade next in importance to that of Smyrna. It is adorned, like all eastern cities, with numerous mosques and other religious edifices, and has a picturesque appearance.

AIDS. These were originally mere benevolences granted by a tenant to his lord, in times of distress; but gradually they came to be regarded as matters of right, and not of discretion. There were three principal objects for which A. were demanded: 1*st*, To ransom the person of the lord when taken prisoner; 2*d*, To make his eldest son a knight; and 3*d*, To provide a suitable portion to his eldest daughter on her marriage. These A. were abolished by 12 Car. II. c. 24.

AID OF THE KING is where the king's tenants pray *A. of the K.* on account of rent demanded of them by others. In such cases, the proceedings are stopped till the king's or queen's counsel are heard to say what they think fit for avoiding the king's prejudice.

AI'GRETTE, a French word, used to denote the down or plume (botanically, *pappus*) which is found attached to many vegetable seeds, as the thistle and dandelion. It is also used in reference to the feathery tuft on the heads of several birds, as the heron; and in English zoology the name aigret or egret (q. v.) is applied to the lesser white heron, an elegant bird, with a white body and a feathery crest. Hence the term A. came to be used to designate the long, delicate white feathers which, being stuck upright in a lady's head-dress, are calculated to give a majestic appearance to the person. More recently, the usage has been still further extended, and any head-dress bearing an analogy to a plume, even a bouquet of flowers, fastened with precious stones, is denominated an A.

AIGUES MORTES (*Aquæ Mortuæ*), a small town in France (pop. 3024), in the department of Gard, which claims to have been founded by the Roman Marius. It is situated in an extensive marsh, impregnated with sea-salt, and is about three miles from the Mediterranean, with which it is connected by a canal. It was from A. M. that St Louis sailed in 1248, and again in 1270, for the Crusades - a proof that the sea then reached this spot. In 1538, Francis I. had an interview at A. M. with Charles V.

AIGUI'LLE (Fr. a needle), an instrument often used by military engineers, to pierce a rock for the reception of gunpowder, when any blasting or blowing-up is to be effected.

AIGUILLETTE, a part of the decorations of military dress. It was formerly worn on the right shoulder by general officers of various grades; but is now chiefly confined to officers of the Life-Guards and Horse-Guards. It is merely an ornament, composed of gold or silver cords and loops.

AI'GULET, a rope called a lashing-rope, employed in ships-of-war for securing the breeching of a gun.

AILANTO (*Ailanthus glandulosa*), a lofty and beautiful tree, of the natural order *Xanthoxylaceæ* (see XANTHOXYLON), a native of China, but now frequently planted to shade public walks in the south of Europe, and not uncommon in England. The styles are combined at the base, the fruit consists of 3–5 *samaræ* (or winged *achenia*, q. v.). The leaves are large and pinnate, with an odd leaflet, resembling those of the ash. The tree grows better than almost any other on chalky soils, and is hardy enough to endure the climate even of the north of Scotland. It is easily propagated by suckers and cuttings of the roots. The wood is fine grained, satiny, and suited for cabinet-making.

AILETTES (Fr. little wings) were appendages to the armour worn by knights in the 13th c. They were sometimes made of leather, covered with a kind of cloth called *carda*, and fastened with silk laces. The form was sometimes circular, sometimes pentagonal, cruciform, or lozenge shaped, but more usually square. Sometimes they were not larger than the palm of the hand; in other instances, as large as a shield. In most instances, the A. were worn behind or at the side of the shoulders. Whether the purpose of these appendages was as a defence to the shoulders in war; as an ensign or mark, to indicate to the followers of the knight his place in the field; or as armorial bearings, is not now clearly known; but the first supposition is the most probable. A. are figured on many effigies, monumental brasses, and stained windows, in our cathedrals and old churches.

AI'LSA CRAIG, a remarkable islet about 10 miles from the southern coast of Ayrshire, opposite Girvan, lat. 55° 15′ 12″ N.; long. 5° 7′ W. Rising abruptly out of the sea to a height of 1114 feet, it forms a most striking object, even at a considerable distance. It is about two miles in circumference, and is accessible only at one point, where the accumulation of débris has formed a rough beach. The rock may be described generally as a mass of trap, assuming in some places a distinct columnar form, with dimensions far exceeding those of the basaltic pillars of Staffa. On the north-west, perpendicular cliffs rise to a height of from 200 to 300 feet; on the other sides, the Craig descends to the sea with a steep slope, covered with grass and wild-flowers, with numerous scattered fragments of rock. The only inhabitants are goats, rabbits, and wild-fowl. Solan geese, in particular, breed in the cliffs in countless numbers. About 200 feet from the summit are some springs, and on the ledge of a crag on the eastern front, are the remains of an ancient stronghold. In 1831, the late Earl of Cassillis, the proprietor of A. C., was raised to the dignity of Marquis of Ailsa.

AIN, a river in France, rises in the mountains of the Jura, flows through the departments of Jura and Ain, and after a course of about 100 miles, falls into the Rhone, 18 miles above Lyon.

AIN, a frontier department of France, is bounded on the N. by the departments of Jura and Saône-et-Loire, on the E. it is separated from Switzerland and Savoy by the Rhone, which also divides it from Isère on the S., while on the W. the Saône separates it from the departments of the Rhone and Saône-et-Loire. The eastern part is mountainous; but the southern portion of that part which lies to the west of the Ain, forms an argillaceous plateau, abounding with marshes, which occasion epidemic fevers. This dep. contains five arrondissements—Bourg, Belley, Gex, Nantua, Trévoux—or 35 cantons. Area, 2258 sq. m. Pop. (1872) 363,290. Chief town, Bourg.

AINMI'LLER, MAX. EMAN., to whom we owe the restoration of the art of painting on glass, was born at Munich, 1807. He began the study of architecture, but afterwards entered the royal porcelain manufactory as decorator; and it was here

that he first succeeded in overcoming the technical difficulties in the execution of glass-painting. A separate institution was now established for the art; and A., as inspector, succeeded in raising it to a high degree of perfection. He is said to have first conceived the happy thought of laying coloured glass on coloured, instead of the process hitherto followed, of laying coloured glass on white; thus giving the command of above 100 variously coloured glasses, in all gradations of tint. He was also the first, in conjunction with Wehrstorfer, to execute pictures on glass, and thus revive the art of miniature glass-painting. Nor was it only technical improvements and inventions that he contributed to the new art; his artistic culture qualified him powerfully to aid the regeneration of taste that has accompanied it. The first work of the new institution was the restoration of the windows of the cathedral of Ratisbon (1826–1833), to which A. contributed the ornamentation, and painted several of the figures. He made a like contribution to the splendid windows of the church of Maria-Hilf (1833–1838), in Munich. In the contribution of King Ludwig of Bavaria to the cathedral of Cologne, and the numerous other windows executed at Munich for all parts of the world – England among the rest—A. displayed the highest artistic faculty in giving to the figures a rich setting of architectural ornamentation, in such a way as to harmonise with the style of the building.—A. also acquired a great reputation as an architectural painter in oil. Among his pieces are St Mark's Church, in Venice; the interior of St Stephen's Church, Vienna; the interior of Windsor Chapel, of Westminster Abbey, and the Poets' Corner. He died December 1870.

AINSWORTH, Robert, the author of a once extensively used Latin Dictionary, was born at Woodvale, near Manchester, in 1660. He was educated at Bolton, and taught a school there for some time, but afterwards went to London, where he was engaged for many years in educational pursuits. In 1714, he commenced his Dictionary (Latin-English and English-Latin), which, however, was not published until 1736. A. died near London on the 4th of April 1743. He wrote also some Latin poems, and a few treatises on various subjects; but nothing keeps his memory alive except the Dictionary, which itself is now fast passing away into oblivion. The labour expended on such a production was indeed highly honourable to the author, but the work has no claim to the character of an accurate or philosophical lexicon, and, in spite of the numerous emendations it has received, it remains essentially what it was at first. It has been superseded by Riddell's, and more recently by Smith's, Andrews's, and other Lexicons.

AINSWORTH, William Francis, an English physician, geologist, and traveller, a relation of the foregoing, was born at Exeter, 1807. He studied medicine at Edinburgh, and, after receiving (1827) his medical diploma, he travelled in France, and prosecuted geological investigations in the Auvergne and Pyrenean mountains. Returning to Edinburgh in 1828, he conducted the publication of the *Journal of Natural and Geographical Science*, and delivered lectures on geology. In 1835, he was attached as physician and geologist to the Euphrates expedition under Colonel Chesney, at the recommendation of Colonel Sabine, and returned home in 1837 through Kurdistan, the Taurus, and Asia Minor. In the following year, he went again to Asia Minor, being sent with Rassam and Russell by the Geographical Society, and the Society for the Diffusion of Christian Knowledge. The objects were chiefly to explore the course of the Halys, and to visit the Christians in Kurdistan. On his return (1841) he published *Researches in Assyria*, etc. He has published also *The Claims of the Christian Aborigines in the East*, and *Travels in the Track of the* 10,000. He has edited *Lares and Penates, or Cilicia and its Governors; On an Indo-European Telegraph by the Valley of the Tigris*, a project which the Turkish government has since carried out; *All Round the World; The Illustrated Universal Gazetteer*, &c. He is a member of many foreign learned societies. He is (1874) editor of the *New Monthly Magazine*.

AINSWORTH, William Harrison, a well-known writer of fiction, was born Feb. 1805, at Manchester, where his father was a solicitor. His creative fancy began early to shew itself in ballads and tales, which appeared in the local newspapers, and in contributions to the *London Magazine* and other periodicals. Being destined to succeed his father, he entered a writer's office; but after a while he forsook law for literature, and at first began a publishing business in London, which, however, he soon gave up in disappointment. He had previously published his first novel, *Sir John Chiverton* (1825). After spending some time on the continent, he returned to England, and wrote *Rookwood* (1834), which was favourably received. It was followed by *Crichton* (1837) and *Jack Sheppard* (1839). A. edited for a time *Bentley's Miscellany*, and in 1842 began his own *Ainsworth's Magazine*. He published the *Lancashire Witches* in 1848; six years later, appeared the *Star Chamber;* in 1860, *Ovingdean Grange;* the *Lord Mayor of London* was published 1862, *Cardinal Pole* the following year, and *John Law, the Projector*, in 1864. His more recent works are the *Spanish Match*, the *Constable de Bourbon*, *Old Court*, *Middleton Pomphret*, *Hilary St Ives*, and *Merrie England* (1874).

AIR, or ASBEN, a kingdom of Central Africa, extending from about 17° to 19° N. lat., and from 8° to 9° E. long. Agades (q.v.) is the capital, and residence of the sultan, but his power is in a large measure merely nominal. The country contains various towns and villages, and is principally inhabited by three large tribes—the Kel-owi, the Kel-geres, and Itisan, each of which has numerous subdivisions. There are, besides, the Kel-n-Negarru, the Imghad, &c. The word *kel* means 'people,' but specially denotes *settled* people, in opposition to *nomads*. Thus, Kel-owi is people settled in the valley of Owi. Many of the tribes and families live not in fixed dwellings, but movable tents made of mats. The valleys of A. are naturally rich, but they are poorly cultivated. Food and clothing are both imported. The population, which is very considerable, could not be sustained, were it not for the salt-trade of Bilma, a town lying to the east of A., in the Tebu country. Although the valleys of A. are in the region of the tropics, the climate is comparatively temperate. See Barth's *Travels in Central Africa*, vol. i.

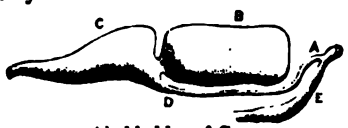
AIR is the name given to that compound of gases constituting the substance of our atmosphere. Formerly, all aëriform fluids were called 'airs,' but in this sense the word *gas* is now used. The chief properties of air, and the phenomena they give rise to, will be found treated under Atmosphere, Aërodynamics, Aërostatics, Air-pump, Barometer, Balloon, &c.

AIR, in Music. See Aria.

AIR-BEDS and AIR-CUSHIONS. Air-beds were known as early as the beginning of the 18th c., but being made of leather, were expensive. It was only after the invention of air-tight or Macintosh cloth that it became possible to use air in this way at a moderate cost. An air-bed consists of a sack in

the form of a mattress, divided into a number of compartments, each air-tight; a projection at one end forms a bolster. Each compartment has a valve, through which the air is blown in by a bellows. The advantages of such beds, in point of cleanness, coolness, lightness, and elasticity are obvious. They are specially valuable in many cases of sickness. The *travelling-cushion* is another contrivance of the same kind. Recently, vulcanised India-rubber, instead of cloth, has been used in the fabrication of such articles. The chief drawback to these contrivances is the liability to being spoiled by a rent or other injury.

AIR-BLADDER, or SWIMMING-BLADDER, in Fishes. An organ apparently intended to aid them in ascending in deep water, and for the accommodation of their specific gravity to various depths. It is made to serve this purpose by the increase or diminution of its volume, according to the degree of pressure exerted upon it by the ribs. Its place is in the abdomen, under the spine; and it is very various in size and form in different kinds of fishes. It generally has an opening into the œsophagus, or into the stomach, but apparently only for the ejection, and not for the admission of air. In some fishes, it has no opening. The air with which the A. is filled appears to be the result of secretion; and in fresh-water fishes, consists in general almost entirely of nitrogen, but contains a larger proportion of oxygen in sea-fishes; the oxygen in deep-sea fishes having been found to amount to 87 per cent. The A. is in some fishes very small; in others, it is entirely wanting, particularly in fishes that are destined to live chiefly at the bottom of the water, as flat fishes,



Air-bladder of Carp:
Consisting of two parts—B and C, joined by a narrow neck; A D, a canal communicating with œsophagus, E.

eels, &c.; but there are remarkable instances of its absence also in species of very different habits, such as the common mackerel, whilst it exists in other species of the same genus or family. The A. of fishes affords the finest kind of isinglass.

AIR-CELLS, or AIR-SACS, in Birds, are remarkable cavities connected with the respiratory system. They are distributed along the inside of the whole cavity of the chest and abdomen; and in birds of strong wing and rapid flight, often send prolongations into the bones. They are connected with the extremely active respiratory system, and communicate with the lungs, giving an immense extension to the surface with which the air inhaled comes in contact.

Lungs, &c., of Ostrich:
a a a a a, air-cells; b b, lungs; c, heart; d, stomach; e, intestines.

The cells in the lungs of the mammalia, into which the air is conveyed by minute ramifications of the windpipe, in order to be brought into contact with the blood distributed on their walls, are very small; in man, only about one-hundredth part of an inch in diameter.—Air-cells, or air-sacs, may be said to form the whole respiratory apparatus in some of the lower kinds of animals (see ANNELIDA), whilst in others, higher in the scale of organisation, particularly in insects, *air-tubes* arising from these ramify throughout the whole body. The air-tubes of insects are formed of a spiral fibre within a membranous coat, like the spiral vessels of plants, so that they possess great elasticity.

Air-tubes of Insect.

AIR-CELLS in plants are cavities containing air in the stems or leaves. The orifices of the intercellular passages are closed up, so as to prevent the juices of the plant from entering them. They are very variable in size, figure, and arrangement, but are formed according to a uniform rule in each particular species in which they are found. They are large and numerous in many aquatic plants, evidently serving the purpose of buoying them up in the water. Besides A. of regular form, there are irregular cavities, also called by the same name, which seem to be formed by the tearing of the cellular tissue in the rapid growth of the plant, as in grasses and umbelliferous plants.

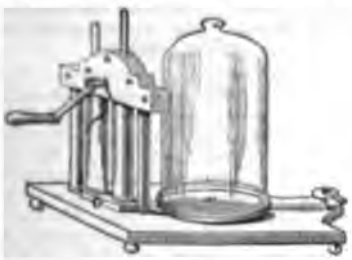
AIR-ENGINE. See CALORIC ENGINE.

AIR-GUN, an instrument for firing bullets or other projectiles, by the force of compressed air instead of gunpowder. Various forms of construction have been adopted. The most usual plan is to insert a condensing syringe in the stock of the gun. The piston of this syringe is worked by an apparatus which passes through to the exterior of the gun; and this working causes a small body of air to be condensed into a chamber. The chamber has a valve opening into the barrel, just behind the place where the bullet is lodged. The gun is loaded from the muzzle, as ordinary muskets or fowling-pieces; and there is at that time just behind it a small body of highly compressed air, ready to rush out at any opening. This opportunity is afforded by a movement of the trigger, which opens the valve; the air rushes forth with such impetuosity as to propel the bullet. By a certain management of the trigger, two or three bullets, successively and separately introduced, can be fired off—if firing it can be called—by one mass of condensed air. Another form of A. contains several bullets in a receptacle or channel under the barrel; by the movement of a cock or lever, one of these bullets can readily be shifted into the barrel; and thus several successive discharges can be made after one loading—on a principle somewhat analogous to that of the revolving pistol. Some varieties of A. have the condensing syringe detached, by which means a more powerful condensation of air may be produced; this done, the air-chamber is replaced in its proper position behind the bullet in the barrel. Those air-guns which present the external appearance of stout walking-sticks, and are thence called air-canes, have a chamber within the handle for containing condensed air, which can be unscrewed, and subjected to the action of the condensing syringe. One inventor has devised a form of A. with two barrels—one of small bore for the reception of the bullets, and another of larger bore for the reservoir of condensed air; the condensing syringe being within the stock of the gun. An attempt has more recently been made to combine the action of elastic springs with that of compressed air, in an A.; springs of gutta-percha, or of vulcanised india-rubber, are employed in substitution of, or in co-operation with, a condensing syringe. No form of A. hitherto made has had power enough to propel a bullet to any considerable distance; and therefore the instrument is scarcely available in war; there are, however, circumstances in which

such an arm may be useful—seeing that there is no expense for gunpowder, no noise, no smoke, no unpleasant odour. The A. was known in France more than two centuries ago; but the ancients were acquainted with some kind of apparatus, by which air was made to act upon the shorter arm of a lever, while the larger arm impelled a bullet.

AIR-PLANTS. See EPIPHYTES.

AIR-PUMP, an instrument for removing the air from a vessel. The essential part is a hollow brass or glass cylinder, in which an air-tight piston is made to move up and down by a rod. From the bottom of the cylinder, a connecting tube leads to the space which is to be exhausted, which is usually formed by placing a bell-glass, called the receiver, with edges ground smooth, and smeared with lard, on a flat, smooth plate or table. When the piston is at the bottom of the barrel, and is then drawn up, it lifts out the air from the barrel, and



Air-pump.

a portion of the air under the receiver, by its own expansive force, passes through the connecting tube, and occupies the space below the piston, which would otherwise be a vacuum. The air in the receiver and barrel is thus *rarefied*. The piston is now forced down, and the effect of this is to close a valve placed at the mouth of the connecting tube, and opening inwards into the barrel. The air in the barrel is thus cut off from returning into the receiver, and, as it becomes condensed, forces up a valve in the piston, which opens outwards, and thus escapes into the atmosphere. When the piston reaches the bottom, and begins to ascend again, this valve closes; and the same process is repeated as at the first ascent. Each stroke thus diminishes the quantity of air in the receiver; but from the nature of the process, it is evident that the exhaustion can never be complete. Even theoretically, there must always be a portion left, though that portion may be rendered less than any assignable quantity; and practically the process is limited by the elastic force of the remaining air being no longer sufficient to open the valves. The degree of rarefaction is indicated by a *gauge* on the principle of the barometer. By means of the partial vacuum formed by the A., a great many interesting experiments can be performed, illustrating the effects of atmospheric pressure, and other mechanical properties of gases. —The A. was invented by Otto Guericke (q. v.), 1654; and though many improvements and varieties of structure have been since devised, the principle of all is the same. Two barrels are generally used, so as to double the effect of one stroke. In some air-pumps, stop-cocks turned by the hand take the place of valves; and in others, the entrance of the connecting tube into the cylinder is so contrived that the valve through the piston is not required.

AIRD, THOMAS, a poet of considerable genius, born at Bowden, in Roxburghshire, in 1802. He received the rudiments of education at schools in his native county, from which he pa to the university of Edinburgh. While in the metropolis, he made the friendship of many distinguished men, especially Professor John Wilson, who was accustomed to speak of him in the highest terms. In 1835, he became editor of *The Dumfries Herald*, a new journal, started on Conservative principles. His genius is of a purely literary character, and not calculated to be effective in the discussion of political questions. His works are not so well known as they deserve to be, from their intrinsic merit. In spite of very warm eulogy from some of the greatest names in popular criticism, and in spite of many elaborate and discriminating reviews in various important magazines, they have failed to secure a large measure of public approbation. *The Devil's Dream* is perhaps an exception to the rest, for it is both well known and admired. Competent judges have asserted that there is something almost Dantesque in the stern, intense, and sublime literalness of the conception. This power of realisation in painting objects is the grand characteristic of Mr A.'s mind. Whether the scenes are colossal, as in *The Devil's Dream*, or minute, as in *The Summer's Day*, there is the same clear, vigorous, and picturesque word-painting. Herein lies Mr A.'s chief originality, for his thought and sentiment, though always pure and fine, are not strikingly novel. In 1827, he published *Religious Characteristics*, a piece of exalted prose-poetry; in 1845, *The Old Bachelor*, a volume of tales and sketches; in 1848, a collected edition of his poems—a second edition of which appeared in 1856; and in 1852, he edited the select poems of David Macbeth Moir (the 'Delta' of *Blackwood*), prefixing a memoir for the benefit of Dr Moir's family.

AIRDRIE, a town recently separated from the parish of New Monkland, and erected into a *quoad sacra* parish, Lanarkshire, 11 miles E. of Glasgow. The high-road between Edinburgh and Glasgow intersecting it, forms its principal street. It has risen rapidly, and is now one of the most flourishing inland towns in Scotland. Little more than a century ago, it consisted of a solitary farmhouse or two; but the abundance of iron and coal in the vicinity has given its progress an impetus like that of an American city (see GARTSHERRIE). The Monkland Canal and the Caledonian Railway receive the produce of the coal-pits and iron mines. The town has some neat buildings, is well paved, and lighted with gas. The weaving of cotton goods for the Glasgow manufacturers is carried on to a considerable extent, as is also the distillation of spirits, silk-weaving, and paper-making. Pop. in 1871, 15,671.

AIRY, GEORGE BIDDELL, D.C.L., M.A., Astronomer Royal, was born at Alnwick in 1801. He was educated principally at Colchester, from which he passed in 1819 to the university of Cambridge. In 1822, he was elected Scholar; in 1823, he took the degree of B.A., with the honour of Senior Wrangler; and in 1826, that of M.A. In the same year, he was elevated to the chair of Science founded by Lucas, which he rescued from the reproach of being a sinecure, by delivering a course of public lectures on experimental philosophy. In 1828, he was made Plumian professor, and had the management of the newly erected Cambridge Observatory intrusted to him. On account of his severe and unintermitting labours in connection with this office, his income was augmented from the funds of the university. He published his observations (*Astronomical Observations*: Cambridge, 1829—1838, 9 vols.), arranged in a clear and simple manner; and they have served as a model ever since for those of Greenwich and other observatories. In 1835, the office of Astronomer

Royal becoming vacant, A. was appointed to it by Lord Auckland, then First Lord of the Admiralty. He has introduced new or more perfect scientific instruments, more rapid methods of calculation, and researches in magnetism, meteorology, photography, &c. He contributed the well-known article on 'Gravitation,' to the *Penny Cyclopædia* (1837). Equally excellent and popular is his treatise on Trigonometry, written for the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana* (1855). He has deservedly obtained the reputation of being one of the most able and indefatigable of living *savans*. He served on the Royal Commission appointed in 1868, to inquire into the standard weights and measures. In 1869, he communicated to the Royal Astronomical Society, a remarkable discovery on 'Atmospheric Chromatic Dispersion, as affecting Telescopic Observation and the mode of correcting it.' He became a Companion (Civil) of the Bath in 1871, and a Knight Commander in 1872. A. is an F.R.S.; an Honorary Member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, Corresponding Member of the French Institute, a D.C.L. of Cambridge and Oxford, and LL.D. of Edinburgh.

Aisle (Melrose Abbey).

AISLE (from Lat. *ala*, a wing) means any lateral division of any part of a church, whether nave, choir, or transept. The number of aisles varies in the churches of different countries. In England, there is only one on each side of the nave or choir; in most foreign countries, there are generally two, and at Cologne there are even three. The continental edifices, it would seem, have antiquity in their favour for this arrangement (see BASILICA). The word is often incorrectly applied to the open space in the nave of churches between the seats of the congregation.

AISNE, a tributary of the Oise, in France, rises in the department of Meuse, and flows north-west through the departments of Marne and Ardennes, and then west through that of Aisne and part of Oise, where it falls into the river Oise, above Compiègne. Its course extends to 150 miles, of which 70 are navigable.

AISNE, a department in the north of France, formed of a part of ancient Picardy and the Isle of France. It belongs to the basin of the Seine, and is intersected by the river A., and by other navigable streams and canals. The soil is fertile; the chief culture is wheat, and other grain. Its rich meadows supply Paris with hay. The area is 2830 square miles, with a population of (1872) 552,439. It is the seat of considerable cotton and other manufactures, the centre of which is St Quentin (q. v.), and at St Gobin is the famous manufactory of mirrors. The department is divided into 5 arrondissements and 37 cantons. The chief town is Laon (q. v.).

AIX, a town in France, formerly the capital of Provence, now the chief town of an arrondissement in the department of the Bouches-du-Rhone. It is believed to have been built by the Roman consul, C. Sextius (120 B.C.), on account of the mineral springs in the neighbourhood, and thence called Aquæ Sextiæ. A. is the seat of a court of appeal; and possesses an academy for theology and law, and a public library which reckons nearly 100,000 vols., and 1100 MSS. The baptistery of the cathedral is believed to have been originally a temple of Apollo. The numerous public fountains give a cheerful air to the place. One of them has a sculpture of the Good King Réné, executed by David. There is also an old clock-tower, the machinery of which, when the clock strikes, sets various quaint-looking figures in motion. The industry of this again flourishing town consists chiefly in the cultivation of the olive, in cotton-spinning, leather-dressing, and trade in oil, wine, almonds, &c. The warm springs are slightly sulphureous, with a temperature from 90° to 100° F., clear and transparent as the purest well-water, almost free from smell, yet with a slightly bitter taste. They have the reputation of improving the beauty of the skin, and are on this account especially frequented by the fair sex. The field on which Marius defeated the Teutones lies in the plain between A. and Arles. In the middle ages, under the Counts of Provence (see RÉNÉ), A. was long the literary capital of Southern Europe. The population of the municipality of Aix in 1872 was 18,905.

AIX (*Aquæ Gratianæ*, *Allobrogum*), a small town of Savoy, pop. 2—3000, in a delightful valley near Lake Bourget, seven miles north from Chambery. It was a much frequented bathing-place in the times of the Roman empire, and among its numerous remains of ancient times, are the arch of Pomponius, the ruins of a temple and of a vaporarium. The king of Sardinia has a palace here. The hot springs, two in number, are of sulphurous quality, and of a temperature above 100° F. They are used both for drinking and as baths, and attract annually above 2000 visitors.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE (Ger. Aachen) is the capital of a district in Rhenish Prussia. It is situated in a fertile hollow, surrounded by heights, and watered by the Wurm; N. lat. 50° 47', E. long. 6° 5'; pop. (1871) 74,238, of whom a very small proportion are Protestants. A. is the centre of numerous thriving manufactories, especially for spinning and weaving woollen fabrics, and for needle and pin-making. There are also immense manufactures of machinery, bells, glass-buttons, chemicals, cigars, &c. As a principal station on the Belgian-Rhenish railways, A. is an important staple place of Prussian trade. The city is rich in historical associations. It emerges from historical obscurity about the time of Pepin, and Charlemagne founded its world-wide celebrity. Whether it was the birthplace of Charlemagne, is doubtful, but it became his grave 814 A.D. In 796 A.D., Charlemagne caused the already existing palace, called the Imperial Palace, to be entirely rebuilt, as well as the chapel, in which Pepin had celebrated Christmas in 765 A.D. The two buildings were connected by a colonnade, which fell into ruins a short time before the emperor's death, probably from the effects of an earthquake. The present town-house has been built on the ruins of the palace; the chapel, after being destroyed by the Normans, was rebuilt on the ancient plan by Otho III., in 983, and forms the nucleus of the present cathedral. This ancient cathedral is in the form of an octagon, which, with various additions round it, forms, on the outside, a sixteen-sided figure. In the middle of the octagon, a stone, with the inscription 'CAROLO MAGNO,' marks the grave of Charlemagne. Otto III. opened the vault in the year 997 A.D. The body of the emperor was found in a wonderful state of preservation, seated upon a marble chair, dressed in his robes, his sceptre in his hand, the Gospel on his knee, a piece of the holy cross on his head, and a pilgrim's scrip attached to his girdle. Otto caused the tomb to be built up again, after repairing the injuries of the arch. In

.D., when the emperor Frederick I. caused the
to be re-opened, the bones of the great emperor
enshrined in a casket of gold and silver, and a
and beautifully wrought chandelier was hung
er the tomb as a memorial. In 1215 A.D.,
rick II. caused the remains of the emperor to
losed in a costly chest, in which they are yet
the sacristy. The marble chair was, in later
overlaid with gold plates, and used till 1558
the imperial coronations, as a throne for the
crowned emperor. The imperial insignia were
ed to Vienna in 1795. In the 14th c., a choir
Gothic style was added to the east side of the
n, which had been built in the Byzantine
while on the west side, a square belfry was
to it, as well as two small round towers, with
g stairs leading to the treasury. Here are
the so-called 'great relics,' which, once in
years, are still shewn to the people, in the
of July, from the gallery of the tower. This
cle attracts many thousands of strangers to A.
has of late years been done to restore this
ble pile. The columns brought by Charle-
from the palace of the Exarch at Ravenna,
orate the interior of the octagon, had been
off by the French; and although part of
and been restored at the peace of Paris, they
ot replaced in the building till recently.

town-house which encloses the remains of
perial Palace—adorns the market-place, having
ll or Market Tower on the left, and on the
he Granus Tower, a memorial of old Roman

The coronation-hall, 162 feet long, by 60
ide, in the interior of the town-house, was, in
t century, divided in the middle by a wooden
on. This noble hall, in which thirty-seven
n emperors and eleven empresses have been
ed, has been restored to its original form.

walls are in process of being decorated
ge fresco-paintings of scenes from the life of
magne, by Rethel. Before the town-house
a beautiful fountain, with a bronze statue of
magne. In the church of the Franciscans,
be seen a fine picture of the Taking Down of
from the Cross, by Vandyck, and two other
s representing the Crucifixion, by A. Diepen-

At a short distance from A., and surrounded
river, stands Frankenburg, once the favourite
of Charlemagne and of Fastrada, and still
legends. It has been rebuilt from its romantic

As a town, A. has recently been much im-
. It now possesses many fine buildings,
which are several large and splendid hotels.
-eing a quiet old city of historical interest,
become a busy centre of manufacturing
ry. In 1870, a new Polytechnic School was
d. A. was formerly noted for its gambling-
; but these are now disallowed.

name of Aix or Aachen is evidently derived
the springs, for which the place has been
famous. (See AA.) The name Aquis Granum,
it received about the 3d c., may possibly be
d from Granus, one of the names of Apollo,
as worshipped by the Romans near springs.
French name, A., refers to the Chapel of the
. Charlemagne granted extraordinary privi-
to this city. The citizens were exempted, in
rts of the empire, from personal and military
, from imprisonment, and from all taxes.
ty also possessed the right of sanctuary: 'the
A. made all free, even outlaws.' In the
e ages, this free imperial city (then included
circle of Westphalia) contained more than
inhabitants; and held an important place
the confederated cities of the Rhine. The
rs were crowned in A. from Louis the Pious
to Ferdinand I. (813–1531 A.D.). 17 imperial diets and 11 provincial councils were held within its walls. The removal of the coronations to Frankfort, the religious contests of the 16th and 17th centuries, a great fire which in 1656 A.D. consumed about 4000 houses in the city, combined with other causes to bring into decay this once flourishing community. In January 1793, and again in 1794, A. was occupied by the French. By the treaties concluded at Campo Formio and Lunéville, it was formally ceded to France, and became the capital of the department of Roer; at length, in 1815, the city fell to Prussia. See Quix, *Geschichte der Stadt A.* (History of A.), 2 vols., A., 1841.

The MINERAL SPRINGS of A., of which six are hot, and two cold, were known in the time of Charlemagne, and were much frequented as early as 1170. The hot springs are strongly sulphurous, and contain also hydrochlorates. The temperature varies from 111°–136° F. They chiefly act on the liver, and on the mucous surfaces and skin, and are therefore efficacious in cases of gout, rheumatism, cutaneous diseases, &c. The most remarkable is the 'Emperor's Spring,' which rises in the middle of the Hôtel Kaiserbad. The baths themselves are from 4 to 5 feet deep, and are built quite in the old Roman style. The cold springs are chalybeate, and not so copious. The new 'Eisenquelle' (iron spring), first discovered in 1829, is provided with an elegant bath-house. The well-proved medicinal virtues of the mineral springs of A. bring yearly to the city many thousands of strangers.

TREATIES OF PEACE, and CONGRESS OF A.—The first Peace of A. ended the war carried on between France and Spain for the possession of the Spanish Netherlands. On the death of Philip IV., Louis XIV. laid claim to a large portion of those territories in the name of his wife, Maria Theresa, the daughter of Philip, urging the law of succession prevailing in Brabant and Namur respecting private property. The victorious progress of Louis was checked by the triple alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden; and a treaty of peace was concluded at A. in 1668, by which France retained possession of the fortresses of Charleroi, Lille, &c., which she had already taken.

The second Peace of A. concluded the war respecting the succession of Maria Theresa to the empire. See SUCCESSION, WARS OF. After the war had been carried on with various success for eight years, peace was concluded in 1748. In general, the possessions of the several states remained as before the war. Austria ceded Parma and Placentia to the Spanish infanta, Philip; and the possession of Silesia was guaranteed to Prussia. The privilege of the Assiento Treaty (q.v.) was anew confirmed to England for four years, and the pretender was expelled from France. Owing chiefly to the exertions of her minister, Kaunitz, Austria came off with but small sacrifice, while England, notwithstanding her splendid victories, derived little solid advantage, and was left with a debt raised to 80 millions.

The Congress of A. was held in 1818, for regulating the affairs of Europe after the war. It began on the 30th September, and ended on the 21st November. Its principal object was the withdrawal from France of the army of occupation, 150,000 strong, as well as the receiving of France again into the alliance of the great powers. The emperors of Russia and Austria, and the king of Prussia, were personally present. The plenipotentiaries were—Metternich, Castlereagh, and Wellington, Hardenberg and Bernstorff, Nesselrode and Capo d'Istrias, with Richelieu on the part of France. France having engaged to complete the payment of the stipulated sums of

money, was admitted to take part in the deliberations, and the five great powers assembled, signed a protocol announcing a policy, known as that of the 'Holy Alliance' (q.v.)

AJA'CCIO, the chief town of the island of Corsica, which forms a department of France. Pop. in 1872, 13,580. The chief employments are the anchovy and pearl fisheries, and the trade in wine and olive-oil, which the neighbourhood produces in abundance, and of good quality. The harbour is protected by a strong fort. A. is remarkable as the birthplace of Napoleon; the house is still to be seen.

AJA'N, a portion of the E. coast of Africa, extending from Cape Guardafui nearly to the equator.

A'JAX was the name of two of the Greek heroes of the Trojan war. One of them was called A. the Less, or the Locrian, being the son of Oileus, king of the Locrians. At the head of forty Locrian ships, he sailed against Troy, and was one of the bravest of the Greek heroes; in swiftness of foot, he excelled all except Achilles. When Cassandra fled to the temple of Minerva, after the taking of Troy, it is said that A. tore her from it by force, and dragged her away captive. Others make him even violate the prophetess in the temple. Though he exculpated himself by an oath when accused of this crime by Ulysses, yet he did not escape the vengeance of the goddess, who caused him to be engulfed in the waves.

The other A., called by the Greeks the Greater, was the son of Telamon, king of Salamis, and, by his mother's side, a grandson of Æacus. He sailed against Troy with twelve ships, and is represented by Homer as, next to Achilles, the bravest and handsomest of the Greeks. After the death of Achilles, A. and Ulysses contended for the arms of the hero, and the prize was adjudged to Ulysses, which threw A. into such a state of rage and despair that he killed himself with his sword. This melancholy fate of the hero is the subject of one of the extant tragedies of Sophocles.

AJMEER, one of the districts of Hindustan, directly under the government of India, lying between lat. 25° 43'—26° 42'; long. 74° 22'—75° 33'. Its length from south-east to north-west is about 80 miles; breadth, 50; area, 2672 square miles. The surface of the country towards the south-east is generally level. In the north, north-west, and west, it is broken by mountains and hills belonging to the Aravulli range. The mountain of Taragurh, above the city of Ajmeer, contains carbonate of lead, manganese, copper, and abundance of iron ore. The general elevation of the plain of A. is about 2000 feet, and the frosts in winter are sometimes severe. Strong breezes are prevalent, and the climate on the whole is healthy. The scarcity of water, however, often occasions great distress. The only permanent stream is the Koree, the water of which is so impregnated with mineral salts as to be unfit for alimentary use except during the rains. To compensate for this deficiency, water-tanks are numerous. The staple crop is bajra (*Holcus spicatus*). Sheep are reared in great numbers, and wool is cheap, affording the material of their clothing to the lower orders. Among the more prevalent diseases are small-pox and ophthalmia. The population in 1871 was 426,268, of whom about 40,000 were Mussulmans, &c., the rest Hindus. The principal race are the Rajpoots, the conquerors of the native Bheels Mhairs, and Neenas. The present limits of this district by no means correspond to its former importance. In the 12th c., at the time of the Mussulman invasion, the sultan of A. and Delhi was the most powerful monarch in India. Under Akbar also, who acquired this territory in 1559, A. was a large and important province. It afterwards fell into the hands of the Mahrattas, from whom it was wrested by the British in 1817.

AJMEER, an ancient city of Hindustan, the capital of the British district of the same name, 228 miles west from Agra. It is situated in a picturesque and rocky valley, at the foot of the mountain of Taragurh, which is crowned by a fort, once strong, but now dismantled. The city is surrounded by a stone wall, with five lofty and handsome gateways on the west and north. Most of the streets are narrow and dirty, but some of them are spacious, and contain many fine residences, besides several mosques and temples of very massive architecture. A. is the seat of a British political agency, a medical school, and an English and Oriental school. The tomb of the Mussulman saint, Kwajah, within the town, is held in great veneration, and pilgrimages are made to it even by Hindus. The Emperor Akbar journeyed to it from Agra on foot in 1570, in fulfilment of a vow after the visit of his son Jehanghir. In October, a great annual fair is held in honour of the saint, at which ridiculous miracles are pretended to be wrought. The pop. of A. in 1871 was 34,763.

AKBAR (i. e., 'Very Great'), properly JELAL-ED-DIN-MOHAMMED, emperor of Hindustan, the greatest Asiatic monarch of modern times. His father, Humayun, was deprived of the throne by usurpers, and had to retire for refuge into Persia; and it was on the way thither, in the town of Amerkote, that A. was born, in 1542 A. D. Humayun recovered the throne of Delhi after an exile of twelve years; but died within a year. The young prince at first committed the administration to a regent-minister; but finding his authority degenerating into tyranny, he, by a bold stroke, shook it off, and took the power into his own hands (1558). At this time, only a few of the many provinces once subdued by the Mongol invaders were actually subject to the throne of Delhi; in ten or twelve years, A.'s empire embraced the whole of Hindustan south of the Deccan; but although great in subduing, A. was yet greater in ruling. The wisdom, vigour, and humanity with which he organised and administered his vast dominions, are unexampled in the east. He promoted commerce by constructing roads, establishing a uniform system of weights and measures, and a vigorous police. He exercised the utmost vigilance over his viceroys of provinces and other officers, to see that no extortion was practised, and that justice was impartially administered to all classes of his subjects. For the adjustment of taxation, the lands were accurately measured, and the statistics taken, not only of the population, but of the resources of each province. For a Mohammedan, the tolerance with which he treated other religions was wonderful. He was fond of inquiries as to religious beliefs; and Portuguese missionaries from Goa were sent at his request to give him an account of the Christian faith. He even attempted to promulgate a new religion of his own, which, however, never took root. Literature received the greatest encouragement. Schools were established for the education both of Hindus and Mohammedans; and numbers of Hindu works were translated from Sanscrit into Persian. Abu-l-Fazl, the able minister of A., has left a valuable history of his master's reign, entitled *A.-nameh* (History of A.); the third volume, containing a description of A.'s empire, derived from the statistical inquiries above mentioned, and entitled *Ayin-i-Akbari* (Institutes of A.), has been translated into English by Gladwin (3 vols., Calcutta, 1786; and London, 1800). A.'s latter days were embittered by the death of two of his sons from dissipation, and the rebellious conduct of the

third, Selim (known as Jehanghir), who succeeded his father at his death in 1605.

AKEE (*Cupania* or *Blighia sapida*), a fruit-tree belonging to the natural order *Sapindaceæ* (q. v.), a native of Guinea, introduced into Jamaica in the end of last century. It grows to the height of 20—25 feet or upwards, with numerous branches and alternate pinnate leaves, resembling those of the ash. The flowers are small, white, on axillary racemes; the fruit is about the size of a goose's egg, with three cells and three seeds, and its succulent aril has a grateful subacid flavour. The fruit is little inferior to a nectarine. Boiled down with sugar and cinnamon, it is used as a remedy for diarrhœa. The distilled water of the flowers is used by negro women as a cosmetic. The A. sometimes produces fruit in stoves in Britain. In order to obtain this, the roots should be cramped in pots.—The AKI of New Zealand is a totally different plant, *Metrosideros hypericifolia*, of the natural order *Myrtaceæ*, a hard-wooded shrub, which sends out lateral roots, and by means of them, climbs to the summits of the loftiest trees.

A'KENSIDE, MARK, an author of considerable celebrity, in his own day, on account of his didactic poem, *The Pleasures of the Imagination*, and some medical works. He was born November 9, 1721, at Newcastle-on-Tyne, where his father was a butcher. Being intended for the Presbyterian Church, he was sent to study theology at Edinburgh, but soon abandoned it for that of medicine. He graduated as a physician at Leyden in 1744, and practised at Northampton, then at Hampstead, and finally in London. His success as a practising physician was never very great, owing, it is said, to his haughty and pedantic manner. He died in London (June 23, 1770), soon after being appointed one of the physicians to the queen. At Leyden, he had formed an intimacy with Jeremiah Dyson, and this rich and generous friend allowed him £300 a year. Some of his medical treatises, as those on the lymphatic vessels and on dysentery, possess considerable merit. His later poetry, consisting chiefly of odes and hymns, did not attain the same reputation as his *Pleasures of the Imagination*, which was written in his twenty-third year, and to which is owing whatever celebrity has attached to his name. Dyson published his poetic works in 1772, and another edition appeared in 1807. In *Peregrine Pickle*, Smollett has satirically sketched the character of A., under that of the pedant who undertakes to give an entertainment after the manner of the ancients. A. has little originality of conception, or even of expression; the reader is carried along for a time by the evident enthusiasm of the poet, and rapid and stately march of lofty images and ideas; but, as it has been well expressed, 'all is operose, cumbrous, and cloudy, with abundance of gay colouring and well-sounding words, but filling the eye oftener than the imagination, and the ear oftener than either.' A. became dissatisfied with his juvenile production, and at his death, had written a portion of a new poem on the same subject. Both poems were published in the complete edition of his works, Lond. 1773. His life has recently been written by Bucke: *Life, Writings, and Genius of A.* (8vo, Lond. 1832).

AKETON, another name for a portion of armour, used in the feudal times, called the Gambeson (q. v.).

A'KJERMANN or **AKKERMANN**, a town in Bessarabia on the Black Sea, at the mouth of the Dniester, with a citadel and harbour; pop. 29,609. It is the Alba Julia of the Romans; and called, by the Poles, Bialagrod, which, as well as A., signifies the *white town*. It is considered a town of some importance, on account of its harbour, fortifications, commerce, and especially its extensive salt-pits.

The Treaty (supplementary of that of Bucharest, 1812) concluded at A. in 1826, between Russia and Turkey, secured to Russia the free navigation of the Black Sea, and indemnification for losses sustained by her subjects from the Barbary corsairs; the institution of divans in Moldavia and Wallachia, and the power of re-electing the hospodars after their term of office; and the restoration of the privileges of Servia, in which Turkish troops were only to retain possession of the fortresses. The boundaries in Asia were to remain as they then stood; Russia consequently retaining the Turkish fortresses of which she had gained possession. The non-fulfilment of this treaty on the part of the Porte, occasioned the war of 1828, which was terminated by the peace of Adrianople.

ALABA'MA, one of the states composing the Union of North America, was first known to Europeans in the year 1541, half a century after the discovery of America. The celebrated exploring expedition of De Soto had to fight its way fiercely through the tribes who peopled its wilds at that period, and who were much less savage and far more numerous than the northern aborigines. In one instance, a chief's house measured 120 feet by 40, and included small buildings like offices. Upon the Savannah River, at Silver Bluff, there was found a remarkable temple, 100 feet long, 40 feet wide, and proportionably high. In the beginning of the 18th c., the French built a fort on Mobile Bay, but the city of that name was not commenced till nine years later (1711). In 1763, when the entire French possessions east of the Mississippi (except New Orleans) fell into the hands of the English, A. was incorporated first with Georgia, afterwards, in 1802, with the Mississippi territory; but finally, in the year 1819, it became an independent member of the great American confederacy, and is now the fourth in point of population among the southern states.

A. very nearly forms a rectangle, widening a little towards the south-east and south-west, so that we would naturally expect a fine sea-board; but of this it is deprived by Florida, which occupies fully three-fourths of the coast-line. It lies between 30° 10′ and 35° N. lat., and between 85° and 88° 30′ W. long.; being about 330 miles in extreme length from north to south, and 300 miles in breadth. It contains an area of 50,722 square miles, or 32,462,080 acres, only 5,062,204 of which, or rather less than one-sixth, were improved in 1870. The country is neither mountainous nor level, but rugged and broken, especially in the centre, with many picturesque views and wild romantic gorges. The Alleghanies terminate in the north in a series of elevated hills, and the ground gradually slopes to within 60 miles of the Gulf of Mexico, when it becomes level. There are three bays in A., the principal of which is Mobile Bay, stretching north for about 30 miles. There are also three large rivers—the Tennessee, the Tombigbee, and the A.; the first of which only makes a sweep into the state at the north-east angle, and then another sweep out at the north-west; the second comes into A. from Mississippi, receives an affluent (Black Warrior), and flows due south, until it is joined by the A., flowing out of Georgia in a south-westerly direction. After the union, the river is called the Mobile, and discharges its waters into the Gulf of Mexico. The Tombigbee is about 500 miles in length, and navigable for steam-boats throughout its entire course in Alabama. The A. is about 600 miles long, and may be ascended in steam-boats to Wetumpka (on the Coosa branch), 460 miles from the Gulf; but the navigation of the Tennessee, which has 130 miles of its course in A., is obstructed by the Muscle-shoals, a series of rapids.

The climate of this state is almost tropical, reaching to within 7° of the torrid zone, and its productions are allied to those of the tropics. Rivers rarely freeze. In 1850, 1851, the maximum temperature of the three winter months was ascertained to be 82°, the minimum, 18°, and the mean at 3 o'clock P. M., 48° 25′. The lowlands are very unhealthy, near the rivers and muscle-shoals, but the hilly regions are salubrious. The soil is exuberantly fertile, yielding more cotton in 1870 than any other state except Mississippi and Georgia. There are fine grazing-lands in the low hills of the north, where the Alleghanies terminate, and the long flat valleys between them are extremely rich. The central part is a great, broken, and swelling prairie, remarkably fertile; while the southern, though often sandy and inferior in productiveness, has many fertile alluvial bottoms, which yield rice. Besides cotton, A. produces large quantities of Indian-corn, oats, sweet potatoes, and butter; a considerable amount of wheat, rye, rice, wool, hay, pease, beans, potatoes, fruits, market-vegetables, and sugar; some tobacco, barley, buckwheat, wine, cheese, grass-seeds, hops, flax, and silk, are also raised. In 1870, 14,961,178 acres of land in A. were in farms, averaging 222 acres in size, with a live-stock valued at 26,690,095 dollars, and products worth 67,522,335 dollars. There is abundance of wild deer and turkeys; and wild geese and ducks frequent the Muscle-shoals of the Tennessee in immense numbers. Bears, wolves, and foxes are likewise still met with. The trees, like the animals, are numerous, but not remarkably varied. In the centre and north, there are oaks, poplar, hickory, chestnut, and mulberry; in the south, cypress and loblolly: pine is also abundant south of the mountains. A. is, however, very rich in mineral treasures, particularly in coal, iron, limestone, and marble. Red ochre, lead, and manganese are also found. A vein of bituminous coal of a superior quality runs eastward from Tuscaloosa into Georgia. There are, in various sections of the state, salt, sulphur, and chalybeate springs. At Blount's Springs, a fashionable watering-place, there are several different varieties of sulphur waters. A gold-mine was also wrought for a short time in St Clair county, while the statuary granite of A. is admitted to be the best in the whole of the United States.

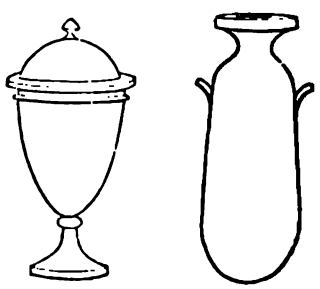
In 1870 there were in the state 2188 manufacturing establishments, which produced goods to the value of 13,040,644 dollars. The raw material required for this production was, in value, 7,592,837 dollars, and 8248 hands were employed in the work. The most important manufactures were those for flouring-mill products and cotton goods: 102 establishments, producing goods worth 1,670,332 dollars, being engaged in the former; and 13 establishments, with products valued at 1,088,767, in the latter. Among the other manufactures are machinery, iron, sawed lumber, carriages, and wagons, besides the 'neighbourhood industries' of boot and shoe making, blacksmith's work, carpentering, &c.

In 1870, there were in A. 1602 miles of railroad completed, and several hundreds in course of construction. The commerce of A. is very extensive; for the steamboat navigation on her rivers (1500 miles in all) affords an outlet not only for her own productions, but also for those of Mississippi and Georgia.

Education is progressing satisfactorily in A. In 1870 there were 10 colleges, 2812 public schools, and 147 academies and other schools. The number of pupils attending school was 75,866. The annual income of the state university, located at Tuscaloosa, is 15,000 dollars. The newspaper and periodical literature, as everywhere else in America, is very prolific. There are 89 publications of different kinds. The annual number of copies issued, is 9,198,980, with a circulation of 91,165: of which the daily papers have 16,420, and the weekly 71,175. Religious denominations exhibit a similar fecundity; but the Baptists and Methodists have a vast preponderance over the others. There are various public institutions in A., such as a lunatic asylum at Tuscaloosa, a blind asylum at Mobile, a deaf and dumb asylum, and a state penitentiary at Wetumpka. The buildings of A. University are very fine, and cost 150,000 dollars. In 1870, there were 298 libraries, with 86,577 volumes, in the state.

A. was one of the slave-states. Its government resembles that of the other states in its general features. The senate consists of 33 members, elected for 4 years; and the house of representatives of 100, elected for 2, both by the people. The judiciary consists of a supreme court, a court of chancery, nine circuit courts, and the city court of Mobile. The preponderance of the farming interests is very remarkable; though, of course, extremely natural, and even inevitable. While grocers, shoemakers, engineers, wheelwrights, masons, &c., are reckoned only by the hundred, there are upwards of 66,000 farmers—that is, more than eight times the number of persons employed in manufacturing establishments throughout the state. After the war the government became provisional. In 1868 A. acceded to the demands of Congress, and the direction of state affairs was restored to the civil powers. A. has not received a very great infusion of modern European blood; of its population of 996,992 in 1870, only about 9000 were born in Europe, and of these half were Irish. The commercial metropolis is Mobile, pop. (1870) 32,039; but the state metropolis is Montgomery, pop. 10,588. The other chief towns are Huntsville, 4907; Selma, 6484; and Marion.

A'LABASTER. This name is given to two kinds of white stone, chemically distinct, but resembling each other in appearance, and both used for ornamental purposes. A. proper is a white, granular, semi-transparent variety of gypsum (q. v.) or *sulphate*



Alabastra.

of lime. It occurs in various countries, but the finest is found near Volterra, in Tuscany, where it is worked into a variety of the smaller objects of sculpture, vases, time-piece stands, &c. Gypseous A. of good quality is also found in Derbyshire, and many ornamental articles are made of it at Matlock and other places. Not being quite insoluble in water, it cannot be exposed to the weather; and its softness makes the surface easily become rough and opaque. Nor is it generally found in sufficient masses for large works. The other stone is a compact, crystalline *carbonate* of lime deposited from water in the form of stalagmite, &c. It is distinguishable from the gypseous alabaster by its effervescing with an acid, and by its hardness; real

alabaster may be scratched with the nail.—The name is derived from Alabastron, a town in Upper Egypt, where this kind of stone was abundant, and was manufactured into pots for perfumes. Such pots were called *alabastra*, even when made of other materials.

ALAGOAS, a maritime province of Brazil, which formed at one time a district of the province of Pernambuco. It is bounded on the N. and W. by Pernambuco, and on the S. is divided from the province of Sergipe by the navigable river San Francisco. The country, which is mountainous in the north-west, and low, marshy, and unhealthy on the coast, contains 300,000 inhabitants. The chief productions are the sugar-cane, cotton-plant, manioc or cassava, maize, rice, &c., and also timber and dye-woods. The capital, A., is situated on the Lake Mangualsa. The name A. is derived from the lakes (*lagoas*) in which the province abounds.

ALAMA'NNI, Luigi, a distinguished Italian poet, born at Florence, October 28, 1495. His father, a man of noble birth, was a zealous partisan of the Medici, and Luigi stood high in their favour, till, in revenge for some real or fancied wrong, he conspired against the life of Cardinal Guiliano, the representative of Leo X. This being found out, A. fled to Venice, and thence, on the accession of the cardinal to the papal chair, to France. In 1527, encouraged by the pope's reverses, he returned to Florence, and urged the Republic to seek the protection of Charles V., by means of Andrea Doria's friendly mediation. The Republic declared such a proposal treachery, and A. sailed with Doria for Spain. Finally, he settled in France, employed as a diplomatist by Francis I. and Henry II. A. died at Amboise in 1536. He wrote epics, dramas, and minor poems, much admired in their day, and disputes with Trissino the claim of first introducing blank verse into Italian poetry.

A'LAND ISLANDS (pronounced Oland), a numerous group of small islands and rocks at the entrance of the Gulf of Bothnia, opposite Abo, about 25 miles from the Swedish coast, and 15 from that of Finland. They are called, by the Finns, Ahvenanmaa. About 80 of them are inhabited. Although these rocky isles are covered with but a thin stratum of soil, they bear Scotch fir, spruce, and birch trees, and with proper cultivation, produce barley and oats, besides affording subsistence to a hardy breed of cattle. The inhabitants are of Swedish origin, skilful sailors, fishermen, and seal-hunters. The total population is about 16,000. The largest of the islands, which gives its name (signifying 'Land of Streams') to the whole group, is about 18 miles long by 14 broad. It is tolerably wooded and fruitful, and contains nearly 11,000 inhabitants. These islands belonged formerly to Sweden, but were seized by Russia in 1809. Previous to this, they had several times changed hands between these two powers. In 1717, the Swedes were defeated by the Russians in a naval engagement near Aland, the first important exploit of the Muscovite navy. The importance of these islands as a military position led to the construction, in the reign of the Emperor Nicholas, of those strong fortifications at Bomarsund which, in August 1854, were destroyed by the Anglo-French force, commanded by Sir Charles Napier and Baraguay d'Hilliers. Two thousand prisoners were taken. This extensive fortress (which is supposed to have been but the first of an intended series of similar menacing fortifications in the Baltic) commanded the anchorage of Ytternas, capable of containing a large fleet.

ALANGIA'CEÆ, a natural order of dicotyledonous plants, allied to *Myrtaceæ* (q. v.), and containing only about eight known species, trees and large shrubs, of which the greater number belong to the American genus *Nyssa* (see TUPELO), differing from the rest of the order in the absence of petals. The one-celled fruit, and pendulous albuminous seeds, constitute marks of distinction from Myrtaceæ. The fruit of *Alangium decapetalum* and *A. hexapetalum*, natives of the East Indies, are eatable, but mucilaginous and insipid. The timber is good, the roots aromatic.

ALARCON Y MENDOZA, JUAN RUIZ DE, one of the most eminent of Spanish dramatists, born at the town of Tasco in Mexico, about the end of the 16th c. He belonged to the ancient family of the Ruizes of Alarcon, of which a branch had emigrated to America. Having studied at the college that had been instituted in Mexico, he removed to Spain, where he is mentioned as *Relator del real consejo de las Indias* (Reporter of the royal council of the Indies) in 1622. The success that early attended his pieces, joined to the haughty disdain with which, in the consciousness of his own powers, he treated the opinion both of the public and of his brother-writers, excited the envy and jealousy of his contemporaries, so that he became the object of venomous epigrams by the most famous poets of the time, in which the deformed upstart from New Spain, with his pride and contemptuousness, was held up to public ridicule. This kind of persecution continued till his death, which occurred in 1639. Even during his lifetime, his best pieces were attributed to others, and were printed and represented under the names of more favoured poets. This early withdrawal and oblivion of his name, together with the scarcity of his works, have been the cause that he has seldom been mentioned, and still less appreciated by historians of literature, even down to the latest times. Yet some of the best critics rank him next to Calderon and Lope de Vega as a dramatic writer. Besides many single or detached pieces printed in collections, he published a number in his *Comedias* (vol. i., Madrid, 1628; vol. ii., Barcelona, 1634). Hartzenbusch began a collected edition at Madrid, 1848. A. attempted almost all the kinds of drama in vogue in his time; and was especially eminent in the heroic, as the best specimens of which may be mentioned, *El Tejedor de Segovia*, and *Ganar Amigos*, or *La que mucho vale mucho cuesta*. A.'s mastery in delineating character is shewn in the *Comedias de Costumbres*, or character-comedies, of which he may be held as the creator. The best known are *La Verdad Sospechosa* (imitated by Corneille in his *Menteur*) and *Las Paredes Oyen* (Walls have Ears), which are yet represented on the Spanish stage. Of his comedies of intrigue, the best specimen is *Todo es ventura*.

It does not appear that A. wrote any *Autos* (q. v.), though his two pieces, *El Anticristo*, and *Quien mal anda en mal acaba*, betray a tendency to ascetic mysticism. Although, through the artifices of his contemporaries, as well as the *éclat* of Lope de Vega's and Calderon's dramas, the compositions of A. were soon driven from the stage, yet he remains, together with Tirso de Molina, the most distinguished and original among the successors of Lope. Lope and Calderon, the coryphaei of that age, are the only dramatists that excel A. Combining, in no mean degree, the characteristics of both, he excels them in purity of language and elevation of moral feeling.

A'LARIC I. (in German Alrie, i. e., all rich) belonged to one of the noblest families of the Visigoths. He makes his first appearance in history in 394 A.D., as leader of the Gothic auxiliaries of Theodosius in his war with Eugenius; but after the death of the former, he took advantage of the

dissensions and weakness that prevailed in the Roman Empire to invade (395) Thrace, Macedon, Thessaly, and Illyria, devastating the country, and threatening Constantinople itself. Rufinus, the minister of Arcadius, appears to have sacrificed Greece in order to rescue the capital, and Athens was obliged to secure its own safety by ransom. A. proceeded to plunder and devastate the Peloponnesus, but was interrupted by the landing of Stilicho in Elis with the troops of the west. Stilicho endeavoured to hem in the Goths on the Peneius; but A. broke through his lines, and escaped with his prisoners and booty to Illyria, of which he was appointed governor by the Emperor Arcadius, who was frightened by his successes, and hoped, by conferring this dignity on him, to make him a peaceful subject instead of a lawless enemy (396). In 402, he invaded Upper Italy, and Honorius, the emperor of the west, fled from Rome to the more strongly fortified Ravenna. On the way to Gaul, A. was met and defeated by Stilicho at Pollentia on the Tanaro; but it was not till the following autumn that the result of the battle of Verona forced him to retire into Illyria. Through the mediation of Stilicho, A. concluded a treaty with Honorius, according to which he was to advance into Epirus, and thence attack Arcadius in conjunction with the troops of Stilicho. The projected expedition did not take place, yet A. demanded indemnification for having undertaken it; and Honorius, by the advice of Stilicho, promised him 4000 pounds of gold. When, after the death of Stilicho (q. v.), Honorius failed to fulfil his promise, A. advanced with an army, and invested Rome, which he refused to leave till he had obtained the promise of 5000 pounds of gold, and 30,000 of silver. But neither did this negotiation produce any satisfactory result, and A. again besieged Rome (409 A.D.). Famine soon rendered it necessary that some arrangement should be made; and in order to this, the senate proclaimed Attalus, the prefect of the city, emperor instead of Honorius. But Attalus displayed so little discretion, that A. obliged him publicly to abdicate. The renewed negotiations with Honorius proved equally fruitless with the former, and A. was so irritated at a perfidious attempt to fall upon him by surprise at Ravenna, that he advanced on Rome for the third time. His victorious army entered the city on August 24, 410, and continued to pillage it for six days, A. strictly forbidding his soldiers to dishonour women or destroy religious buildings. When A. quitted Rome, it was only to prosecute the conquest of Sicily; the occurrence of a storm, however, which his ill-constructed vessels were not able to resist, obliged him to abandon the project for the time; and his death, which took place at Cosenza, in Calabria, soon after (410), prevented his resuming it. In order that his remains might not be discovered by the Romans, they were deposited in the bed of the river Busento, and the captives who had been employed in the work were put to death. Rome and all Italy celebrated the death of A. with public festivities; and the world enjoyed a momentary repose. But A. himself was much less barbarous than his followers. He admired those monuments of civilisation with which the Eternal City abounded, and sought to preserve them; he checked the excesses of his fierce soldiery, and at times gave indications that the lessons of Christianity which he had learned from the Arian missionaries had not been altogether forgotten. Yet through him, the Goths learned the way to Rome.

ALARIC II., eighth king of the West Goths, or Visigoths, succeeded his father in 484 A. D. He was of a peaceful disposition, and wished to live on friendly terms with the Franks. His dominions were very extensive. Besides Hispania Tarraconensis and Bætica, he possessed numerous rich provinces in Gaul, and formed an alliance, which still further increased his power, with Gondeband and Theodoric, the latter of whom was his father-in-law, and king of the East Goths. At length, however, he came into collision with the Frankish monarch, Clovis, whose cupidity had been excited by the extent and fertility of the territories over which A. ruled. An excuse was found for breaking the peace which existed between the two nations, in the fact that A. was a zealous Arian. This circumstance had given great offence to many of his subjects, who were orthodox Catholics; and ostensibly to vindicate the true doctrine, the newly converted barbarian, Clovis, declared war against him. The result was fatal to A. He was slain by the hand of Clovis himself at Vouillé, near Poitiers, and his forces completely routed.

A. is said to have been indolent and luxurious in his youth; but this may simply imply that he was not fond of those sanguinary pleasures which captivated his savage contemporaries. He was tolerant in his religious convictions. Though an Arian, he did not persecute the Catholics. He even permitted the orthodox prelates to hold a council at Agde in 506. In his secular capacity, he displayed an appreciation of the blessings of law and order. He enacted several useful statutes, and kept a watchful eye on all parts of his kingdom. It was during his reign that the *Breviarium Alaricianum*, or code of A., was drawn up. It is a selection of imperial statutes and writings of the Roman jurisconsults. A. sent copies of it to all his governors, ordering them to use it, and no other. An edition of it was published by Sichard, at Basle, in 1528.

ALA'RM. In military matters, the word alarm has a more defined meaning than mere terror or fright. An alarm, among soldiers in an army, is not so much a danger, as a warning against danger. An alarm, signified by the firing of a gun or the beating of a drum, denotes to an army or camp that the enemy is suspected of intending a sudden surprise, or that the surprise has actually been made. There is an *alarm-post* in camp or garrison arrangements, to which the troops are directed to hasten on any sudden alarm being given.

ALA'SKA or ALIASKA, a peninsula, formerly part of Russian America, occupying nearly the same latitudes as Kamtchatka and Britain. Forming the south-eastern boundary of the Sea of Kamtchatka, it may be regarded, physically, as a continuation of its southern limit, the Aleutian Isles. It was, accordingly, assumed by the Russians to be an island—a link in that great chain of stepping-stones, which had certainly guided them, and perhaps successive shoals of adventurers before them, to the New World. The connection of A. with the continent was left to be ascertained by Captain Cook, whose explorations in search of an Arctic passage—for Behring's Strait was still a matter of doubt—were recorded in the adjacent names of Bristol Bay to the westward, and Cook's Inlet to the eastward. Thus A., though materially known only as a home for the hunter and his game, becomes morally a word of interest in connection with the history of discovery and colonisation. All that was formerly Russian America now belongs to the United States.

ALATE'RNUS, according to some, a genus of plants of the natural order *Rhamnaceæ* (q. v.), akin to *Rhamnus* (see BUCKTHORN); but more generally regarded as a sub-genus of Rhamnus, consisting of evergreen shrubs, of which the best

known is *Rhamnus A.*, or *A. phillyrea*, a large shrub, densely branched, with shining alternate leaves, which are more or less ovate. The flowers are dioecious, racemed, numerous, and small, much sought after by bees. This shrub is abundant in the south of Europe, and is often planted in town-gardens in England to conceal walls and other objects, being of rapid growth, readily propagated by cuttings, bearing to be clipped into any shape, and not easily injured by smoke. Both the bark and wood have been used in dyeing.

ALAVA, Don Miguel Ricardo de, a Spanish general, born at Vittoria, in 1771, of a noble family in the province of Alava. He entered the navy in early life; but afterwards changed to the land-service. After the abdication of Ferdinand VII., he was for a time a zealous partisan of France; however, in 1811, when he saw the fortunes of Joseph beginning to wane, he abandoned the cause of this prince, to embrace that of the national party, and accepted the office of Spanish commissary on the staff of Wellington. He gained the confidence of this general, and from this time manifested the strongest predilection for England and English institutions. The war of Independence furnished him numerous occasions of distinguishing himself. After the restoration of the king, however, he was arrested, on the suspicion of entertaining liberal opinions; but on the application of his uncle, Ethenard, the inquisitor, seconded by the influence of Wellington, he was not only liberated, but appointed ambassador to the Hague. He returned to Spain in 1820, after the revolution; became captain-general of Aragon, made himself conspicuous among the Exaltados, and figured in the ranks of the militia on occasion of the revolt of the royal guard at Madrid, July 7, 1822. In the Cortes assembled at Seville in 1823, he voted for the suspension of the royal authority, and took part in the negotiations carried on with the Duke of Angoulême, at Cadiz. The re-establishment of absolute monarchy in the Peninsula drove him, as a political refugee, to Brussels and England, till, at the death of Ferdinand, he was recalled by the regent, Maria Christina. In 1834, he was appointed Spanish ambassador to London; and towards the end of 1835, he undertook a mission to Paris. Under the administration of Isturiz, A. shewed himself as zealous for the moderate system as he had been for the preceding one, and advocated the French intervention, which he had opposed during his embassy to London. After the insurrection of La Granja, he refused to swear to the constitution of 1812, declaring that he was tired of constantly taking new oaths; he gave in his resignation accordingly, and retired to France, where he died in 1843.

A'LBA, or A'LVA, Ferdinand Alvarez von Toledo, Duke of, prime-minister, and general of the Spanish armies under Charles V. and Philip II., was born in 1508, of one of the most illustrious families of Spain. He was educated under the eye of his grandfather, who instructed him in the arts of war and of government. He fought, while yet a youth, at the battle of Pavia, and had the custody of Francis I. while a prisoner. He commanded under Charles V. in Hungary, was present at the siege of Tunis, and accompanied the expedition against Algiers. He defended Perpignan against the dauphin, distinguished himself in Navarre and Catalonia, and was in consequence created Duke of A. His cautiousness and his taste for political intrigue afforded as yet no very high evidence of his military talents; and even Charles V., whom he counselled, when in Hungary, to build a bridge of gold for the Turks, rather than hazard a decisive battle, seems to have intrusted him with the command rather as matter of personal favour than recognition of his abilities. His pride was hurt at the low estimation in which he was held; and his real genius began to shew itself. The victory which Charles V. gained at Mühlberg over John Frederic, Elector of Saxony, in 1547, was due to the able generalship of the Duke of A. Under his influence, as president of the council of war, the captive elector was condemned to death; and it was entirely against his wish that the emperor commuted the sentence. He took part under the emperor in the expedition against Henry II., king of France, who had taken possession of Metz; but here his exertions, as well as those of the emperor, proved unavailing. He was more fortunate in Italy against the combined armies of the pope and the French king, which he repeatedly defeated during the campaign of 1555. After the abdication of the emperor Charles V. in 1556, he continued to hold the command of the army, and overran the States of the Church, which, after the retreat of the French army in 1557, lay entirely at his mercy. He was obliged, however, by the command of Philip II., to conclude a peace with Pope Paul IV., and restore all his conquests. Being recalled from Italy, he appeared in 1559 at the court of France, with which Spain had become reconciled by the peace of Château-Cambresis (April 3, 1559); and, as proxy for his sovereign, espoused Elizabeth, Henry II.'s daughter.

When the inhabitants of the Netherlands, who had been accustomed to freedom, revolted against the tyranny of Spain, and especially against the hated inquisition, the Duke of A.'s counsel was to suppress the insurrection forcibly and with rigour. The king accordingly committed the matter to his hands, and sent him to the Netherlands, 1567, with unlimited power and a large military force. His first step on arriving was to establish what was called the 'Bloody Council,' in which he himself at first presided, and over which he afterwards appointed the sanguinary Don Juan de Vargas. This tribunal condemned all without distinction whose opinions appeared dubious, or whose wealth excited jealousy. The present and the absent, the living and the dead, were subjected alike to trial, and their property confiscated by the council. A number of the merchants and mechanics emigrated to England; above 100,000 abandoned their native country, and many others enlisted under the banners of the proscribed princes, Louis and William of Orange. A., rendered still more savage by a defeat which befel his lieutenant, the Duke of Arembergh, put to death the Counts Egmont and Horn on the scaffold. He afterwards defeated Prince Louis, and compelled William of Orange to retire to Germany; upon which he entered Brussels in the greatest triumph on the 22d December 1568. The pope presented him with a consecrated hat and sword, as Defender of the Catholic faith; an honour which, having been hitherto conferred only on crowned heads, increased his insolence to the highest degree. He caused a statue to be cast, in which he was represented as trampling under foot two human figures, representing the nobles and people of the Netherlands; and this he set up in Antwerp. His executioners shed more blood than his soldiers; and none now withstood his arms except Holland and Zealand. But these provinces continually renewed their efforts against him, and succeeded in destroying the fleet which had been equipped by his orders. This disaster, and perhaps still more the apprehension that he might lose the king's favour, induced him to request that he might be recalled. Philip gladly acceded; as he perceived that the obstinacy of the rebels was only increased by these cruelties; and he was desirous of

trying the effect of milder measures. A. accordingly resigned the command of the troops to Don Louis de Requesens, and (December 18, 1573) left the country, in which, as he himself boasted, he had executed 18,000 men. The war which he had kindled burned for sixty-eight years, and cost Spain 800,000,000 dollars, her finest troops, and the loss of seven of the richest provinces of the Netherlands.

A. was received at Madrid with the highest distinction, but did not long enjoy his former consideration. Don Frederic, one of his sons, having seduced one of the queen's ladies of honour under promise of marriage, and being arrested on this account, the father assisted him to escape, and in opposition to the desire of the king, united him in marriage to one of his relatives. He was in consequence banished from the court to his castle of Uzeda, where he lived two years. But now the troubles in Portugal, the crown of which Philip claimed as his hereditary right, induced the king to draw A. anew from his retreat. The duke accordingly led an army into Portugal, and drove out Don Antonio, who, as grandson of John III., had taken possession of the throne. The whole country was speedily conquered (1581); and A., with his accustomed cruelty and rapacity, seized the treasures of the capital himself, while he allowed the soldiers to plunder without mercy the suburbs and the surrounding country. Philip, dissatisfied with these proceedings, desired to have an investigation of the conduct of the duke; but the haughty bearing of the latter, and the fear of a revolt, induced him to abandon it. A. died at Lisbon, December 11, 1582, at the age of 74. He had a fine countenance, with a haughty air and a robust frame; he slept little, while he both laboured and wrote much. It has been said of him, that during sixty years of military service he never lost a battle, and never allowed himself to be surprised.

A'LBA LO'NGA, one of the most ancient cities of Italy, situated on the rocky ridge that runs along the eastern shore of the Alban Lake, between the lake and the Alban Mount. See ALBANO. According to legendary history, it was built by Ascanius, the son of Æneas, about 300 years before the foundation of Rome, which is represented as a colony of A. Notwithstanding this, the Romans, under Tullus Hostilius, destroyed the city, and removed the inhabitants to Rome. It seems certain that A. was an important city long before the existence of Rome, and the head of a confederation of Latin towns, and that when it was destroyed, many of its inhabitants settled at Rome. Some traces of its walls are yet to be seen.

A'LBAN, St, the first martyr of Britain, was born at Verulam, in the 3d c., and after having long lived as a heathen, was converted to Christianity, but put to death at the commencement of Diocletian's persecution of the Christians. His anniversary is celebrated on the 22d June. The town of St Albans (q. v.), which bears his name, is believed to stand on the site of his birthplace, or the scene of his martyrdom.

ALBA'NI is the name of a rich and celebrated family of Rome, who came originally from Albania in the 16th c., and settled first at Urbino. The great influence of the family dates from the accession (1700) of Giovanni Francesco A. to the papal throne, as Clemens XI. It has since furnished a succession of cardinals. It was Cardinal Alessandro A. (b. 1692 – d. 1779) who formed the famous collection of objects of art in the VILLA A., outside the Porta Salaria at Rome. It is still a rich collection, although part of it was carried off by the French. The pieces taken away were restored in 1815; but the then possessor being unable to pay for their removal to Rome, sold them to the king of Bavaria.

ALBANI, FRANCESCO, a painter of the Bolognese school, of the time of the Caracci; born at Bologna, 1578, and died there in 1660. He studied, along with Guido Reni, first under Calvert, and afterwards under the Caracci. He has painted above fifty altar-pieces, worthy of the Caracci school; but his inclination lay more to the representation of scenes of a playful and pastoral, or of a mythical kind, and of this nature are the greater part of his pieces. He had by his second wife a family of twelve children of extraordinary beauty, in whom he found exquisite models for his Venuses, Galateas, and angels' heads; with the disadvantage, however, of imparting a certain uniformity to the countenances of his figures. His representation of the Four Seasons, so often imitated, gained him great renown. A.'s chief defect lies in the expression of life and feeling.

ALBA'NIA (allied to ALP, and meaning 'mountain region') forms the south-west province of European Turkey, having Montenegro, Bosnia, and Servia on the N., Macedonia and Thessaly on the E., Greece on the S., and the Ionian and Adriatic seas on the W. It is divided into four circles, following the four confederations of tribes that people it—the Jegani, Tohkani, Liapuri, and Jamuri. These circles differ both in climate and in the manners of their inhabitants. A distinction is also made between Upper Albania, the Illyria of the Romans, in the north, and Lower Albania, the ancient Epirus, in the south. On the east boundary, forming the water-shed of the peninsula, rises the range of the Bora-dagh and the Pindus. The first detaches itself from the wild masses of the Tshar-dagh (dagh in Turkish means *mountain*) and Argentaro mountains; and west of it lie parallel chains, enclosing on the one side, long elevated valleys, and sinking on the other in terraces, down to level strips along the coast, consisting mostly of unhealthy swamps and lagoons. Pindus, to the south, is also flanked by isolated basins or hollows, whose western edges pass into the jagged and thick-wooded Epirotic highlands. These highlands advance to the sea, forming steep rocky coasts; one promontory, the Acroceraunian, projecting in Cape Linguetta far into the sea, reaches a height of 4—5000 feet.

The chief rivers are the Bojana, the Drin, the Skombi, Ergent, Vojussa, Glykys or Acheron (which follows for some distance a subterranean channel, and on reappearing, is called Mauropotamos), the Arta, and the upper course of the Aspropotamos. Among the lakes, those of Bojana, Ochri, and Janina, are the most important.

A fine climate, the heat of which is tempered by high mountains and the proximity of the sea, and a favourable soil, would seem to invite the inhabitants to agriculture; but for the most part in vain. In the north, little or nothing is cultivated but maize; in the moist valleys, a little rice and barley are produced; but the mountain-terraces are used as pastures for numerous herds of cattle and sheep. In Epirus, there is more variety. Here the slopes of the lower valleys are covered with olives, fruit and mulberry trees, intermixed with patches of vines and maize, while the densely wooded mountain-ridges furnish valuable supplies of timber. The plateau of Janina yields abundance of grain; and in the valleys opening to the south, the finer fruits are produced, along with maize, rice, and wheat. Even cotton and indigo might be profitably cultivated in the moist valleys; but in its present wretched condition, the country can barely support its scanty population.

The inhabitants, estimated at about a million, form a peculiar people, the Albanians or Arnauts; they call themselves Skypetars. They are descendants of the ancient Illyrians, mixed with Greeks and Slaves, and not to be confounded with the Albani that live

on the Caspian Sea. The Albanians are half-civilised mountaineers, frank to a friend, vindictive to an enemy. They are constantly under arms, and are more devoted to robbery and piracy than to cattle-feeding and agriculture. They live in perpetual anarchy, every village being at war with its neighbour, and even the several quarters of the same town carrying on mutual hostilities. Many of them serve as mercenaries in other countries, and they form the best soldiers of the Turkish army. At one time, the Albanians were all Christians; after the death of their last chief, the hero Scanderbeg, and their subjugation by the Turks, a large part became Mohammedans, who distinguished themselves by cruelty and treachery towards the tribes that remained true to their old faith. The steep valleys of the Acheron in the south, forming the district of Suli, are inhabited by a powerful tribe, the Suliotes, who till their fields sword in hand, and conceal their harvests in the earth. They made themselves famous by their long resistance to Ali Pacha. In the north, between the Black Drin and the sea, is the country or circle of the Mirdites, i. e., the brave, who are always ready with weapons in their hands to defend their freedom and their religion — the Roman Catholic. A. is divided into the pachalics of Janina, Illyssan, and Scutari, and the sandjaks of Delvino and Avlona. The chief towns are the ports of Durazzo, Avlona, Prevesa, and Parga; the more inland towns, Scutari, Berat, Argyro Castro, and Arta; and in the eastern mountain districts, Akhrida and Joannina.

ALBA'NO, a town formerly in the States of the Church, on the declivity of the lava-walls which encompass the lake Albano, about 18 miles from Rome. It is the seat of a bishop, numbers 5000 inhabitants, and is surrounded with handsome mansions of the wealthier Romans. It is on the opposite side of the lake from where Alba Longa stood, and owed its origin to the villas of ancient Roman magnates, such as Pompeius, Domitian, and Clodius. A valuable wine is produced in the environs. At a short distance from the town, on the old Appian Way, are found the remains of an amphitheatre, and a sepulchre of Etruscan architecture.

The **Alban Lake**, or Lago di Castello, is formed in the basin of an extinct volcano, and has a circumference of 6 miles, with the enormous depth of more than 1000 feet. Its elevation is nearly 1000 feet above the sea-level. While the Romans were at war with the Veientes (390 B.C.), this lake rose to an extraordinary height in the heat of summer, and without any apparent cause. Etruscan diviners declared that the conquest of Veii depended upon letting off the waters of the lake. Stimulated by this, the Romans, under the direction of the Etruscans, opened an emissary or tunnel through the lava-wall which bounds it. In the execution of this work they acquired the art of mining, which they now applied to undermine the walls of Veii. The tunnel, which still remains, and still fulfils its ancient office, is 1¼ miles in length, with a height of 7 feet, and a width of 4 feet. On the eastern bank of the lake, rises Monte Cavo, the ancient Mount Albanus, 3000 feet high, affording an extensive and magnificent view from its summit. Upon it once stood the magnificent temple of Jupiter Latialis, which was approached by a paved way, for the ascent of the solemn processions of the Latin confederation (*Feriæ Latinæ*), and for the ovations of Roman generals. The road remains, in great part, perfect to this day.

The Albano stone, called Peperino, was much used in Roman buildings. It is a kind of volcanic tufa, of an ash-colour, and is still quarried extensively at A.

A'LBANS, St, an ancient borough in Hertfordshire, situated on the top and northern side of a picturesque hill, 21 miles north-west from London. The Ver, a small tributary of the Colne, separates it from the site of the ancient Verulamium (Verulam), an important station in the time of the Romans, and the scene of a terrible slaughter in the insurrection under Boadicea. In honour of St Alban, said to have suffered martyrdom here in 297, a Benedictine monastery was founded by Offa, king of Mercia, in 796. The foundation of the town is supposed to be due to Ulsig (or Ulsin), who was abbot about 150 years later. Two battles were fought near St A. during the Wars of the Roses, in 1455 and 1461. In the first, Henry VI. became a captive; in the other, he was set at liberty by his brave queen, Margaret of Anjou. The most noteworthy object in the town is the old abbey-church, a cruciform building, of irregular architecture, 547 feet in length, by 206 in breadth, with an embattled tower 146 feet high. The Abbot of St A. had a seat in the House of Peers, and had precedence of all other English abbots. In St Michael's Church is to be seen a monument to the memory of the great Bacon, who bore the titles of Baron Verulam and Viscount St A. More recently, the Beauclerk family have taken from this place the title of duke, and the Grimston family that of earl. The population, in 1871, was 8293, many of whom are employed in straw-plaiting and silk-spinning. In the neighbourhood are great numbers of corn-mills. The borough, which formerly returned two members, was disfranchised in 1852 for notorious bribery.

A'LBANY, or **ALBAINN**, an ancient name for the Highlands of Scotland, and retained in some degree of use down to our own day. Connected with it is the term *Albiones*, applied to the inhabitants of the entire British island in Festus Avienus's account of the voyage of Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, in the 5th c. B.C.; also the term *Albion*, which appears as the name of the island in Aristotle's Treatise of the World. It may, indeed, be pretty safely assumed that Albion or Albany was the original name of Britain among its Celtic population; and that it only became restricted to the north-west provinces of Scotland, when the Celts had for the most part become confined to the same region. Albainn means a country of heights (the root being *alb* or *alp*, a height); and it is remarkable to find Albania also a mountainous country. The modern use of the name A. may be said to have taken its rise in an act of a Scottish council held at Scone in June 1398, when the title of Duke of A. was conferred on the brother of King Robert III., then acting as regent of the kingdom. The title, being forfeited in the son of the first holder, was afterwards conferred on Alexander, second son of King James II., in the person of whose son, John, it became extinct in 1536. Subsequently it was conferred in succession on Henry Lord Darnley, on Charles I. in infancy, on James II. in infancy, and (as a British title) on Frederick, second son of George III. The unfortunate Prince Charles Stuart, in his latter years, assumed the appellation of Count A. as an incognito title, and gave the title of Duchess of A. to his legitimated daughter.

ALBANY, the capital of New York, U. S., is situated on the west bank of the Hudson River, 145 m. north of New York city, in lat. 42° 39′ N., and long. 73° 45′ W. After Jamestown and St Augustine, in Virginia, it is the oldest town in the Union, having been founded by the Dutch in 1623, though it did not receive its present appellation until 1664, when it came into the possession of the English, and was so named in honour of the Duke of York and Albany. It is situated in the midst of a fertile and

well-cultivated country, and is one of the most flourishing cities in the States, being the chief emporium for the transit-trade of the coast-towns with those of the north and north-west. It is advantageously built for commerce, at the head of the sloop-navigation on the Hudson, communicating by means of canals with Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, and Lake Champlain. It is also the centre in which a number of railways meet, connecting it with New York, Buffalo, Boston, &c. One of the most important articles in its commerce is timber. It is one of the largest timber-markets in the world; the quantity received in 1863 amounting to 243,611,500 feet of boards, and 146,746,000 lbs. of staves, besides many thousands of cubic feet of other articles—the whole valued at over 7,000,000 dollars. Viewed from some parts of the river, A. has a picturesque and imposing appearance. Its streets are not generally very regular, or its houses very elegant; nevertheless, it contains some of the most splendid edifices in the Union. The Capitol, erected at great cost, in the Renaissance style, is one of the finest public buildings in America. The City Hall is built of marble, and ornamented with a gilded dome. A. is distinguished for its educational and literary institutions. The university, incorporated in 1852, has for its aim the discipline of the American youth in the most important branches of practical science. The medical college, founded in 1839, has one of the best museums in the States, and is otherwise amply furnished with the means of instruction. There is likewise a large number of public schools. Pop. in 1870, 69,422.

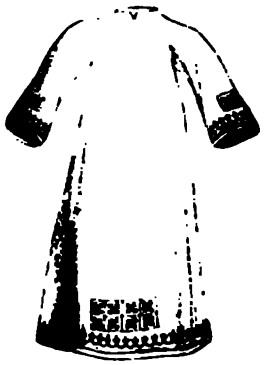
ALBANY, Louisa-Maria-Caroline, also Aloysia, Countess of, wife of the unfortunate Prince Charles-Edward (q. v.), grandson of James II. of England. She was the daughter of the Prince Gustavus Adolphus of Stolberg-Gedern, who fell in the battle of Leuthen in 1757. This lady was born in 1753, and, during her married life, bore the name of the Countess of A. She had no children; her marriage proved an unhappy one; and in order to escape from the ill-usage of her husband, who lived in a state of continual drunkenness, she sought refuge in a nunnery, 1780. At the death of the prince in 1788, the court of France allowed her an annual pension of 60,000 livres. She outlived the House of the Stuarts, which became extinct at the death of her brother-in-law, the Cardinal of York, in 1807. She died at Florence, which was her usual place of residence, on the 29th of January 1824. Her name and her misfortunes have been transmitted to posterity through the works and autobiography of Alfieri (q. v.), to whom she was privately married. Their remains repose in the same tomb in the Church of Santa Croce at Florence, between the tombs of Macchiavelli and Michael Angelo.

ALBATROSS (*Diomedea*), a genus of web-footed birds of the family of the *Laridæ*, nearly allied to Gulls and Petrels. Their feet have no hind-toe nor claw; they have a large strong beak—the upper mandible, with strongly marked sutures, and a hooked point. The common Albatross (*D. exulans*), also called the Wandering A., is the largest of web-footed birds, the spread of wing being sometimes twelve feet, and the weight twenty pounds or upwards. The wings are, however, narrow in proportion to their length. This bird is often seen at a great distance from land, and abounds in the southern seas, particularly near the Cape of Good Hope, who nce sailors sometimes call it the Cape Sheep. It often approaches very near to vessels, and is one of the objects of interest which present themselves to voyagers far away from land, particularly when it is seen sweeping the surface of the ocean in pursuit of flying-fish. It seems rather to float and glide in the air than to fly like other birds, as, except when it is rising from the water, the motion of its long wings is scarcely to be perceived. The plumage is soft and abundant, mostly white, dusky on the upper parts, some of the feathers of the back and wings black. The bill is of a delicate pinky-white, inclining to yellow at the tip. The A. is extremely voracious; it feeds chiefly on fish and mollusca, but has no objection to the flesh of a dead whale, or to any kind of carrion. It is not a courageous bird, and is often compelled to yield up its prey to sea-eagles,

Albatross.

and even to the larger kinds of gulls. When food is abundant, it gorges itself, like the vultures, and then sits motionless upon the water, so that it may sometimes be taken with the hand. Not unfrequently, however, on the approach of a boat, it disgorges the undigested food, and thus lightened, it flies off. Its cry has been compared to that of the pelican; it also sometimes emits a noise which has been likened to the braying of an ass. Its flesh is unpalatable. It heaps up a rude nest of earth not far from the sea, or deposits its solitary egg in a slight hollow which it makes in the dry ground. The egg is about four inches long, white, and spotted at the larger end; it is edible. There are seven species of this genus. One of these (*D. fuliginosa*), chiefly found within the Antarctic Circle, is called by sailors the Quaker Bird, on account of the prevailing brown colour of its plumage. Albatrosses appear in great numbers towards the end of June, about the Kurile Islands and Kamtchatka. The Kamtchadales take them by baited hooks, blow up the entrails for floats to their nets, and make tobacco-pipes and various domestic articles of the wing-bones.

ALBE, or **ALB** (Lat. *albus*, white), the long white linen vestment worn in early times by all ecclesiastics at divine service. It differed from the more modern surplice (q. v.), which is only a modification of it, in having narrower sleeves. At the foot and wrists were embroidered ornaments called *apparels*. In the ancient church,



Alba.

newly baptised persons were obliged to wear a similar garment for eight days; and hence catechumens were called *albati*: and the Sunday after Easter, on which they usually received baptism, came to be called Dominica in Albis. See WHITSUNDAY.

ALBERONI, GIULIO, CARDINAL, the son of a poor vine-dresser, was born on the 31st of May 1664 at Firenzuola in Parma. From being merely a chorister in a church at Piacenza, he quickly rose, through his abilities, to the dignity of chaplain and favourite of Count Roncovieri, Bishop of St Donino. He was afterwards sent to Madrid as *chargé d'affaires*, by the Duke of Parma, where he gained the favour of Philip V. of Spain, and had the honours successively conferred on him of grandee, cardinal, and prime-minister. In this last capacity he was of singularly great service to Spain, overthrowing the intriguing family of Ursini, bringing about the second marriage of Philip V. with Elizabeth Farnese, and stimulating the expiring energies of Spain. A new life dawned upon the nation, which learned to forget the hardships it had suffered in the Spanish Wars of Succession; although, on the other hand, it must be admitted that it was principally through his instrumentality that the last liberties and rights of the people were sacrificed in favour of absolutism. He was ambitious, and ambition is always despotic and unscrupulous; hence, to gratify the covetous desires of his new mistress, he suddenly invaded Sardinia, in violation of the Peace of Utrecht, cherishing the hope of re-establishing the monarchy of Charles V. and Philip II., and startling Europe by his insolent audacity. The Regent of France broke off his alliance with Spain, and united himself with England and the Emperor; but A. was not dismayed. Even when the Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean was destroyed by an English one, he contemplated an extensive war by land, in which all the European powers would have been entangled. He patronised the Pretender, to annoy England, and the French Protestants, to annoy Louis. He sought to unite Peter of Russia and Charles XII. with him, to plunge Austria into a war with the Turks, to stir up an insurrection in Hungary, and, through his influence with one of the parties at the French court, he actually accomplished the arrest of the Regent himself (the Duke of Orleans). But so universal became the complaints against A., that Philip lost courage, and concluded a treaty of peace, the chief condition of which was that the cardinal should be dismissed, which was effected through the influence of Elizabeth herself, now weary of the arrogance of her late favourite. On the 20th of December 1720, A. received a command to quit Madrid within twenty-four hours, and the kingdom within five days. Exposed to the vengeance of every power whose hatred he had drawn upon himself, he knew no land where he could remain. Not even to Rome could he venture, for Clement was more bitterly inimical to him than any secular potentate. He wandered about in disguise, and under fictitious names. At length, he was imprisoned in the Genoese territory, through the solicitation of the pope and the Spanish monarch; but he speedily recovered his liberty, and two years after the death of Clement, was reinstated by Innocent XIII. in all the rights and dignities of a cardinal. In 1740 he retired to Piacenza, where he died twelve years after (June 26, 1752) at the age of 88. He bequeathed his possessions in Lombardy to Philip V., while his cousin and heir, Cæsar A., became possessor of 1,000,000 ducats.

ALBERT, ALEXANDER MARTIN, a member of the Provisional Government of France after the revolution of February 1848, was born at Bury (Oise) in 1815. His father was a peasant, and he himself learned a mechanical trade at Paris. He took part in the revolution of July 1830, and was implicated in the celebrated trial of 1834; after which he devoted himself to the study and discussion of political questions, yet not abandoning his workshop. He commenced at Lyon the republican journal called *La Glaneuse*, on account of which he was condemned to a fine of 5000 francs when the insurrection broke out at Lyon. In 1840 he began *L'Atelier*, a paper conducted exclusively by operatives, and devoted to their interests. On the evening before the proclamation of the republic in February 1848, he was making buttons in his workshop; and on the nomination of Louis Blanc, he was called to take part in the Provisional Government. He was afterwards chosen president of the Commission for National Rewards; but he soon resigned this post. He was elected by a large majority of voices as the representative of the department of the Seine in the National Assembly; but involving himself in the attempt of May 15, 1848, against the government as it then existed, he was arrested the same day, and condemned to a lengthened imprisonment.

ALBERT, COUNT OF BOLLSTÄDT, usually called Albertus Magnus, also Albertus Teutonicus, a man less distinguished for originality, than for the extent of his acquirements and his efforts for the spread of knowledge, especially of the works and doctrines of Aristotle, was born at Lauingen, in Swabia, in 1205, or, as some say, in 1193. After finishing his studies at Padua, he entered the order of the Dominican friars, and taught in the schools of Hildesheim, Ratisbon, and Cologne, where Thomas Aquinas became his pupil. In 1230 he repaired to Paris, where he publicly expounded the doctrines of Aristotle, in spite of the prohibition of the Church. In 1249, he became rector of the school at Cologne; and in 1254, provincial of the Dominican order in Germany. In 1260, he received from Pope Alexander IV. the bishopric of Ratisbon. But in 1262, he retired to his convent at Cologne, to devote himself to literary pursuits; and here he composed a great number of works, especially commentaries on Aristotle. He had fallen into dotage some years before his death, which occurred in 1280. The fullest edition of his works was prepared by Pierre Jammy, the Dominican (21 vols, Lyon and Leyden, 1651); but it is far from being complete. Many of the writings attributed to A. seem to be spurious; among others, that entitled *De Secretis Mulierum*, which was widely circulated during the middle ages. The extensive chemical and mechanical knowledge which A. possessed, considering the age in which he lived, brought upon him the imputation of sorcery; and in German tradition he has a very ambiguous reputation. It is recorded, for instance, that in the winter of 1240, he gave a banquet in the garden of his convent, at Cologne, to William of Holland, king of the Romans; and that during the entertainment, the wintry scene was suddenly transformed into one of summer bloom and beauty. This myth rests most likely on the fact of A. having had a green-house.—The scholastics who followed A.'s opinions took the name of *Albertists*.

ALBERT, FRANCIS (ALBERT) AUGUSTUS-CHARLES-EMMANUEL, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Consort of Victoria, Queen of Great Britain, born August 26, 1819 was the second son of the late Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, by his first marriage with Louisa, daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Gotha-Altenburg. The Prince, after a careful domestic education, along with his elder brother, the reigning Duke, attended the university of Bonn, where, in addition to the sciences connected with state-craft, he devoted

himself with ardour to the study of natural history and chemistry, and displayed great taste for the fine arts, especially painting and music. Several compositions of his obtained publicity, and an opera was afterwards performed in London, said to have been composed by him. Gifted with a handsome figure, he attained expertness in all knightly exercises. It was this accomplished Prince that the young Queen of Great Britain selected as her partner for life. The marriage was celebrated in London on the 10th of February 1840. On his marriage, Prince Albert received the title of Royal Highness, was naturalised as a subject of Great Britain, and obtained the rank of Field-marshal, the knighthood of the Order of the Bath, and the command of a regiment of Hussars. As the union proved, in the highest degree, a happy one, the prince was loaded with honours and distinctions both by the Queen and the nation. The title of Consort of Her Most Gracious Majesty was formally conferred in 1842, and that of Prince Consort, in 1857, made him a prince of the United Kingdom. He was also made a member of the Privy Council, Governor and Constable of Windsor Castle, Colonel of the Grenadier Guards, Acting Grand Master of the Order of the Bath, Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, Master of the Trinity House, &c. Notwithstanding his high and favoured position, the Prince, with rare prudence and tact, abstained from meddling with state affairs, and thus escaped the jealousy and detraction of parties. When the Whig ministry of 1840 proposed for him the income of £50,000, as Consort of Queen Victoria, the Tories, in conjunction with the Radicals, succeeded in limiting the sum to £30,000. This appears to have been the only instance of any manifestation of party feeling with reference to the Prince. On the other hand, he opened for himself an influential sphere of action, in the encouragement and promotion of science and art, appearing as the patron of many useful associations and public undertakings. The Industrial Exhibition of 1851 owed much to the suggestions and encouragement of the Prince. He died 14th December 1861, to the profound grief of the whole nation.

ALBERT or **ALBRECHT.** Five sovereign dukes of Austria (q. v.) bore this name, of whom two (I. and V.) were also emperors of Germany. A. I., Duke of Austria and Emperor of Germany, was the eldest son of Rudolph I., and born in the year 1248. Rudolph, about the close of his career, made an effort to have A. appointed his successor; but the electors, tired of his authority, and emboldened by his age and infirmities, refused to comply with his request. After Rudolph's death, Austria and Styria revolted; but A., having vigorously crushed the insurrection, had the audacity to assume the insignia of the empire without waiting for the decision of the Diet. This violent measure induced the electors to choose, in preference to him, Adolphus of Nassau. Disturbances in Switzerland, and a disease which cost him an eye, now rendered him more humble; he delivered up the insignia which he had so rashly assumed, and took the oath of allegiance to the new emperor, who, however, after some years, so completely disgusted his subjects, that A. began to entertain hopes of recovering his imperial dignity. In 1298, Adolphus was deposed, and A. elected; but the former having resolved to maintain his title, A. was obliged to fight for the crown. The rivals drew up their forces near Worms, where a battle ensued, in which Adolphus was defeated and slain. A., feeling that he might now safely display magnanimity, voluntarily resigned the crown which had been recently conferred upon him; and, as he had anticipated, was unanimously re-elected. His coronation took place at Aix-la-Chapelle, in August 1298. But the pope, Boniface VIII., denied the right of the princes to elect A., declared himself the only true emperor and legitimate king of the Romans, summoned the former before him, required him to ask pardon and do penance, forbade the princes to acknowledge him, and released them from their oath of allegiance. A., on the other hand, with his usual intrepidity, defied his Holiness, formed an alliance with Philip the Fair of France secured the neutrality of Saxony and Brandenburg, invaded the electorate of Metz, and forced the archbishop to break off his alliance with Boniface and to form one with himself for the next five years. The pope was alarmed by his success, and entered into negotiations with him. A., whose duplicity and unscrupulousness equalled his courage, suddenly broke off his alliance with Philip, admitted the western empire to be a papal grant, and declared that the electors derived their right of choosing from the Holy See. Moreover, he promised upon oath to defend the rights of the Romish court whenever he was called upon. As a reward, Boniface gave him the kingdom of France, excommunicating Philip, and declaring him to have forfeited the crown; but the latter severely chastised the pope for his insolence in daring to give away what was not his own. In the following year, A. made war unsuccessfully against Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Hungary, Bohemia, and Thuringia. Shortly afterwards, news reached him that a rebellion had broken out amongst the Swiss in Unterwalden, Schweitz, and Uri, in January 1308. A. had not only foreseen, but desired this, in order that he might find a pretext for completely subjugating the country. A new act of injustice, however, occasioned a crime which put an end to his ambition and life. His nephew, Duke John, claimed Swabia as his rightful inheritance, and had set his claims before A., but in vain. When the latter was departing for Switzerland, the former renewed his demand. A. scoffingly refused; and Duke John resolved to be revenged. Along with four others, he conspired against his uncle's life, and assassinated him on the way to Rheinfelden, while separated from his followers by the river Reuss. The emperor expired May 1, 1308, in the arms of a beggar-woman sitting by the wayside—a spectacle calculated to excite stern reflection on the vanity of human ambition. His daughter Agnes, queen of Hungary, frightfully revenged her father's death. See JOHN, THE PARRICIDE. A. left five sons and five daughters, the children of his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of the Count of Tyrol.

ALBERT THE BEAR (so called, not from any peculiarity of character or appearance, but from the heraldic cognizance that he assumed), Margrave of Brandenburg, one of the most remarkable princes of his age, was born 1106. He was the son and successor of Otho, the rich Count of Ballenstädt, and of Elica, eldest daughter of Magnus, Duke of Saxony. Having proved faithful to the Emperor Lothario, he received from the latter Lusace, to be held as a fief of the empire; but the Duchy of Saxony, to which he had the best claim, was given to Henry of Bavaria (1127), the son of the youngest daughter of the duke. As a compensation, A. was made Margrave (Markgraf) of the Northern March or Marck (Salzwedel); but in the year 1138, Henry having been put under the imperial ban, the duchy reverted to the former, when he took the title of Duke of Saxony. Henry, however, again got the upper hand, and A. was compelled to fly, and to content himself with the margraviate of Northern Saxony, and the government of Swabia, which was given him as an indemnity.

Returning to his own country, he got himself invested with the lands which he had conquered from the Wends as a hereditary fief of the empire, and thus became the founder and first Margrave of the new state of Brandenburg. Under A. the Margravedom was afterwards raised to be an Electorate, and he himself became Elector of Brandenburg. After he had quelled a revolt of the Wends in 1157, he determined to take extreme measures against the vanquished. He almost depopulated their country, and then colonised it with Flemings. On his return from a pilgrimage to Palestine in company with his wife in 1159, he exerted himself to suppress the language and paganism of the Wends, and to introduce Christianity amongst them. He died in 1170, at Ballenstädt, where he was buried. Brandenburg continued in the possession of his descendants for two centuries, and finally (1415) fell to the house of Hohenzollern (q. v.).

ALBERT, last grand-master of the Teutonic Order, and first Duke of Prussia, was born in 1490. He was the son of the Margrave Frederic of Anspach and Baireuth, who, having several children, wished to make him enter the church. He was educated under the care of Archbishop Hermann, of Cologne, where he became canon. He did not, however, neglect knightly exercises. He accompanied the emperor Maximilian I. in his expedition against Venice, and was present at the siege of Pavia. In 1511, when scarcely twenty-one years old, he was chosen grand-master of the Teutonic Order, the knights expecting their feudal allegiance to Poland to be abolished, on account of his near relationship to Sigismund, the monarch of that country, while they also hoped for protection against the latter from his friends in Germany. He was consecrated at Mergentheim with his father's consent. In 1512 he removed to Königsberg, having been acknowledged by Poland likewise; but refusing to take the oath of allegiance, he was plunged into a war with Sigismund in 1520. The year after, a four years' truce was agreed to at Thorn. A. next made his appearance at the imperial Diet at Nürnberg, as a German prince of the empire, to induce the other princes to assist him against the Poles. But Germany could at that time grant no assistance to any one. Disappointed in his hopes, A. threw himself into the cause of the Reformation, which had rapidly spread into Prussia, and broken the last strength of the declining order, whose possessions now appeared a certain prey to Poland. A. still hoped to preserve these, by acting upon Luther's advice, which was, to declare himself secular Duke of Prussia, and place his land under the sovereignty of Sigismund. This was done with great pomp at Cracow, on the 8th April 1525, the duchy being secured to him and his descendants. During the remainder of his life, A. zealously sought to further the welfare of his duchy. He regulated the administration of all affairs, both secular and ecclesiastical, established the ducal library, founded in 1543 the university of Königsberg, gathered many literary men around him, and caused their works to be printed. In 1527, he married Dorothea, daughter of Frederick, king of Denmark. A. earnestly desired peace, but his was not an age in which peace could be purchased. The transition period from the old to the new is always violent, and the duke found himself entangled in conflicts with the nobles, and in theological disputes, which, along with other crosses of a more personal character, saddened the close of his life. He died in 1568. See Prussia.

ALBERT, Archbishop of Mentz, generally younger son of the elector, John Cicero of Brandenburg, was born in 1489. In 1513 he became Archbishop of Magdeburg; in the same year, also, Administrator of the bishopric of Halberstadt, and in the following year, Archbishop and Elector of Mentz. Leo X. having granted him permission to sell indulgences, on condition that he should deliver up half the booty to the papal exchequer, A. appointed the Dominican Tetzel 'indulgence-preacher,' who, by the shameless manner in which he went about his work, first stirred Luther to post up his well-known ninety-five theses. Even in the archbishop's own diocese, the reformer's doctrines found not a few adherents, so that A. was compelled, at the imperial Diet at Augsburg, to act the part of peace-maker. When he joined the Holy Alliance against the Treaty of Schmalkald, Luther made a fierce attack on him in writing. He was the first of all the German princes who received the Jesuits into his dominions. In 1541, he granted religious liberty to his subjects, under the condition that they should pay his debts, amounting to 500,000 florins. He did this, not from any love of religious liberty, but either because of the consideration referred to, or from a dread of popular compulsion. The last days of his life were spent in Aschaffenburg, where he died in 1545.

ALBERT, or **ALBRECHT**, Archduke of Austria, born in 1559, was the third son of the emperor Maximilian II. He was brought up at the Spanish court, and dedicated himself to the church. In 1577 he was made cardinal, in 1584, Archbishop of Toledo, and during the years 1594-96, held the office of viceroy of Portugal. He was next appointed Stadtholder of the Netherlands, where he continued, until his death, the representative of the Spanish monarch, discharging the duties of his function with prudence and dignity. Cardinal Bentivoglio, who resided a considerable time at his court, praises his uprightness, his moderation, his love of serious study, his industry, his perseverance, and his discretion, though he does not conceal the fact that he was a prince better fitted for peace than for war. He displayed at first both courage and enthusiasm, but afterwards he was accused of dilatoriness and timidity. Meanwhile, he did not receive from Spain the promised help; and, moreover, affairs had reached such a pitch, that they could hardly become worse. A., however, did the best that could be done. His mild, moderate, and unpersecuting character, essentially contributed to the re-establishment of the Spanish authority in the Netherlands. Philip employed him to mediate amid the disturbed provinces. A. now abandoned his ecclesiastical profession, and married (1598) the Infanta, Isabella, who received the Netherlands for her dowry. He died in 1621.

ALBERTUS MAGNUS. See Albert of Bollstadt.

ALBI, capital of the department of Tarn in France, is built on a height. It is very old, and suffered greatly during the religious wars which devastated the land in the time of the Albigenses. Besides the usual government offices, it possesses a public library of 12,000 volumes, and a museum. The most remarkable buildings are the cathedral, built in the style of the 13th c., the old palace of the Count of Albigeois, and the theatre. There is considerable trade in corn, wine, anise, prunes, and clover-seed. The chief manufactures are table-linen, cotton and woollen goods, leather, &c. Pop. 13,698.

ALBIGENSES is a name applied loosely to the 'heretics,' belonging to various sects, that abounded in the south of France about the beginning of the 13th c. The chief sect was the Cathari (q. v.); but they all agreed in renouncing the authority of the popes

and the discipline of the Romish Church. The name arose from the circumstance that the district of Albigeois in Languedoc—now in the department of Tarn, of which Albi is the capital—was the first point against which the crusade of Pope Innocent III., 1209, was directed. The immediate pretence of the crusade was the murder of the papal legate and inquisitor, Peter of Castelnau, who had been commissioned to extirpate heresy in the dominions of Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse; but its real object was to deprive the count of his lands, as he had become an object of hatred from his toleration of the heretics. It was in vain that he had submitted to the most humiliating penance and flagellation from the hands of the legate Milo, and had purchased the papal absolution by great sacrifices. The legates, Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux and Milo, who directed the expedition, took by storm Beziers, the capital of Raymond's nephew, Roger, and massacred 20,000—some say 40,000—of the inhabitants, Catholics as well as heretics. 'Kill them all,' said Arnold; 'God will know his own!' Simon, Count of Montfort, who conducted the war under the legates, proceeded in the same relentless way with other places in the territories of Raymond and his allies. Of these, Roger of Beziers died in prison, and Peter I. of Aragon fell in battle. The conquered lands were given as a reward to Simon of Montfort, who never came into quiet possession of the gift. At the siege of Toulouse, 1218, he was killed by a stone, and Counts Raymond VI. and VII. disputed the possession of their territories with his son. But the papal indulgences drew fresh crusaders from every province of France, to continue the war. Raymond VII. continued to struggle bravely against the legates and Louis VIII. of France, to whom Montfort had ceded his pretensions, and who fell in the war in 1226. After hundreds of thousands had perished on both sides, a peace was concluded, in 1229, at which Raymond purchased relief from the ban of the church by immense sums of money, gave up Narbonne and several lordships to Louis IX., and had to make his son-in-law, the brother of Louis, heir of his other possessions. These provinces, hitherto independent, were thus, for the first time, joined to the kingdom of France; and the pope sanctioned the acquisition, in order to bind Louis more firmly to the papal chair, and induce him more readily to admit the inquisition. The heretics were handed over to the proselytising zeal of the order of Dominicans, and the bloody tribunals of the Inquisition; and both used their utmost power to bring the recusant A. to the stake, and also, by inflicting severe punishment on the penitent converts, to inspire dread of incurring the church's displeasure. From the middle of the 13th c., the name of the A. gradually disappears. The remnants of them took refuge in the east, and settled in Bosnia. Compare Fauriel, *Croisade contre les Albigeois* (Par. 1838); Faber, *Inquiry into the History and Theology of the Vallenses and Albigenses* (Lon. 1838).

ALBINOS—called also Leucæthiopes, or white negroes, and by the Dutch and Germans Kakerlaken—were at one time considered a distinct race; but closer observation has shewn that the same phenomenon occurs in individuals of all races, and that the peculiar appearance arises from an irregularity in the skin, which has got the name of *leucopathy* or *leucosis*. It consists in the absence of the colouring matter which, in the normal state, is secreted between the cuticle and the true skin, and also of the dark pigment of the eye; so that the skin has a pale, sickly white colour, while the iris of the eye appears red, from its great vascularity. As the pigment in the coats of the eye serves to diminish the stimulus of the light upon the retina, A. generally cannot bear a strong light; on the other hand, they see better in the dark than others. The colouring matter of the hair is also wanting in A., so that their hair is white. All these differences are of course more striking in the darker varieties of the species, and most of all in the negro albinos.

Albinoism is always born with the individual, and occurs not only in men, but also in other mammalia, in birds, and probably in insects. It is not improbable that the peculiarity may, to some extent, be hereditary. The opinion that A. are distinguished from other men by weakness of body and mind, is completely refuted by facts.

A'LBION is the most ancient name on record of the island of Great Britain. See ALBANY or ALBAINN.

A'LBOIN, the founder of the Lombard dominion in Italy, succeeded his father in 561 A.D., as king of the Lombards, who were at that time settled in Pannonia. His thirst for action first vented itself in aiding Narses against the Ostrogoths; and afterwards, in a war with the Gepidæ, whom he, in conjunction with the Avari, defeated in a great battle (566), slaying their king Cunimond with his own hand. On the death of his first wife, Klodoswinda, he married Rosamond, daughter of Cunimond, who was his prisoner. Some of his warriors, who had accompanied Narses into Italy, brought back reports of the beauties and riches of the country. This determined A., in 568, to enter Italy with his own nation of Lombards, the remains of the Gepidæ, and 20,000 Saxons. He soon overran and subdued the north of the country as far as the Tiber, fixing his principal residence at Pavia—which long continued to be the capital of the Lombards; when his barbarity cost him his life. During a feast at Verona, he made his queen drink out of the skull of her father, which he had converted into a wine-cup. In revenge, she incited her paramour to murder her husband, who fell 574. Strangely enough, A. was a just and beneficent ruler. He was beloved by his subjects, whom he stimulated into that vital activity that characterised their descendants for ages. For several centuries, his name continued to be illustrious among the German nations, who celebrated his praises in martial songs. To escape the fury of the Lombards, Rosamond fled with her associate and the treasure to Longinus, the exarch, at Ravenna. Longinus becoming a suitor for her hand, she administered poison to Helmichis, her paramour, who, discovering the treachery, caused her to swallow the remainder of the cup, and die with him.

ALBORNOZ, Ægidius Alvarez Carillo, a warlike prelate of the middle ages, was born at Cuença. He studied at Toulouse, and subsequently became almoner to Alfonso XI., king of Castile, who appointed him Archdeacon of Calatrava, and finally Archbishop of Toledo. He took part in the wars against the Moors, saved the life of the king in the battle at Tarifa, and was present at the siege of Algeciras, where the king dubbed him knight. On account of the Christian boldness with which he denounced the criminal excesses of Peter the Cruel, he fell into disgrace, and had to flee to Pope Clement VI., at Avignon, who made him a cardinal. Innocent VII. also recognised his political talents, and sent him as cardinal-legate to Rome, where, by his tact and vigour, he secured, in spite of the intricate complication of affairs, the restoration of the papal authority in the States of the Church (1353–62). Pope Urban V. owed the recovery of his dominions to him, and out of gratitude, appointed him legate at Bologna, in 1367. In the same year he died at Viterbo, but

expressing a wish to be buried at Toledo, almost royal honours were rendered to his dead body by the Spanish monarch, Henry of Castile; and Urban even granted an indulgence to all who had assisted in the transference of his remains from Viterbo to Toledo. He left a valuable work upon the constitution of the Romish Church, printed for the first time at Jesi in 1473, and now very rare.

ALBUERA, in the Spanish province of Estremadura, an insignificant hamlet, famous for the battle of May 16, 1811, between the combined English, Spanish, and Portuguese forces under General Beresford; and the French under Marshal Soult, who were scarcely so numerous, but had abundant artillery. The object of the latter was to compel the English to raise the siege of Badajos. The result was, that Soult was obliged to retreat to Seville, with the loss of 8000 men; the loss of the allied forces was about 7000. In proportion to the numbers engaged, the battle was the most sanguinary in the whole contest. The French had at first got possession of a height which commanded the whole position of the allied army, but they were driven from it by 6000 British, only 1500 of whom reached the top unwounded.

ALBUFERA (an Arabic word meaning 'The Lake'), a lake near Valencia, in Spain, about 10 miles in length and the same in breadth, divided from the sea by a narrow tongue of land; a canal connects it with the city of Valencia. It is rich in fish and fowl, and is said to have been excavated by the Moors. From it, Marshal Suchet (q. v.) took the title of Duke.

ALBUM, amongst the Romans, was a white tablet overlaid with gypsum, on which were written the *Annales Maximi* of the pontifex, edicts of the prætor, and rules relative to civil matters. It was so called, either because it was composed of a white material, or because the letters used were of that colour. To tamper with the names written on an A. was regarded by the Romans as a serious offence, and involved a severe penalty. In the middle ages, the word was used to denote any list, catalogue, or register, whether of saints, soldiers, or civil functionaries. In the gymnasia and universities on the continent, the list of the names of the members is called the A. The name is also applied to the 'black board' on which public notifications of lectures, &c., are written up. But its popular signification in modern times is that of a blank book of ornamental exterior fitted for a drawing-room table, and intended to receive fugitive pieces of verse, or the signatures of distinguished persons, or sometimes merely drawings, prints, marine plants, &c.

ALBUMEN is an organic compound, found both in animal and vegetable substances. It forms the chief ingredient in the white of egg, and abounds in the blood and chyle, and more or less in all the serous fluids of the animal body: it also exists in the sap of vegetables, and in their seeds and other edible parts. A. forms the starting-point of animal tissues, for in an egg during incubation all the parts of the chick are formed out of it. The organised substances, fibrine and caseine, have a chemical composition similar to A.; and hence, along with A., they are called albuminous compounds. A. may be considered the raw material of fibrine, and fibrine as animalised A.

The chief component elements of A. are carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen, with small proportions of phosphorus and sulphur. It is believed to be a definite chemical compound, though the exact proportions and the rational formula have not been definitely ascertained. Carbon forms about 54 per cent. of it; nitrogen, 16; and sulphur, 2. It is the sulphur of the A. that blackens silver when brought in contact with eggs, and the smell of rotten eggs arises from the formation of sulphuretted hydrogen during the decomposition.

A. is soluble in water, and in such a state of solution is found in the egg, the juice of flesh, the serum of blood, and the juice of vegetables; but when heated from 140 to 160° it coagulates, and is no longer soluble in water. With bichloride of mercury (corrosive sublimate), sulphate of copper (blue vitriol), acetate of lead (sugar of lead), nitrate of silver (lunar caustic), it forms insoluble compounds, and is therefore used as an antidote to these poisons. The property of coagulating with heat adapts A. for the purpose of clarifying in sugar-refining and other processes. The A. is added to the liquid in the cold state, allowed to mix thoroughly therein, and then, when heated, it coagulates, entangling and separating all the impurities suspended in the liquid. A. is likewise coagulated by the majority of the mineral acids, but not by acetic acid. Alcohol, ether, creasote, and tannic acid likewise cause the coagulation of A., and hence the efficacy of these substances, especially the two latter, in coagulating and thereby killing the nerves which cause so much pain in toothache. The importance of A. as an article of diet, will be discussed under Food.

ALBUMEN, in Botany, a store of nutritive matter, distinct from the embryo, but enclosed along with it within the integuments of the seed. It is also known by the names *Perisperm* and *Endosperm*. When a seed has a store of A. separate from the embryo, it is said to be *albuminous* or *perispermic*. When the nutritive matter is stored up in the cotyledons or lobes of the seed itself, as in the bean, pea, wall-flower, &c., the seed is said to be *exalbuminous* or *aperispermic*. In these the A., as a distinct part of the seed, is wanting, and the entire seed consists of embryo and integument. When the A. is present, it is sometimes very small, as in the nettle; in other instances, on the contrary, it is very much larger than the embryo, as in the cocoa-nut, of which it forms the edible part. It is also the edible or useful part of many other seeds as in the different kinds of corn and in coffee, nutmeg, &c. It is sometimes *mealy* or *farinaceous*, as in the cereals; *oily*, as in the poppy; *horny*, as in coffee; *cartilaginous*, as in the cocoa-nut; *mucilaginous*, as in the mallow. Vegetable ivory is the A. of a palm (genus *Phytelephas*) which grows on the banks of the Magdalena, and is used in place of ivory. The presence or absence, and various peculiarities of A., afford botanical characters of great value. The A. appears to be a store provided for the nourishment of the embryo, and consists of starchy, oily, and albuminous matter. *Vegetable A.*, in a chemical sense, exists, and often in large quantity, even in seeds, which, according to the language of descriptive botany, are exalbuminous or destitute of A.; and to prevent confusion, *perisperm* has begun to be employed as the botanical term; but it is not yet in general use.

ALBUQUERQUE, Alfonso the Great, viceroy of the Indies, and also called the Portuguese Mars, was born, in 1453, near Alhandra, a town not far from Lisbon, of a family of the royal blood of Portugal. In that age, the Portuguese people were distinguished for heroism and a spirit of adventure. They had discovered and subjugated a great part of the western coast of Africa, and were beginning to extend their dominion over the seas and the people of India. A. being appointed viceroy of these new possessions, landed on the coast of Malabar on September 26, 1503, with a fleet and some troops; conquered Goa, which he made the seat

of the Portuguese government, and the centre of its Asiatic commerce; and afterwards the whole of Malabar, Ceylon, the Sunda Isles, the peninsula of Malacca, and (in 1515) the island of Ormuz at the entrance of the Persian Gulf. When the king of Persia sent for the tribute which the princes of this island had formerly rendered to him, A. presented bullets and swords to the ambassador, saying: 'This is the coin with which Portugal pays her tribute.' He made the Portuguese name profoundly respected among the princes and people of the East; and many of them, especially the kings of Siam and Pegu, sought his alliance and protection. All his undertakings bore the stamp of an extraordinary mind. He maintained strict military discipline, was active, far-seeing, wise, humane, and equitable, respected and feared by his neighbours, while beloved by his subjects. His virtues made such an impression on the Indian people, that long after his death, they resorted to his grave, to implore his protection against the misgovernment of his successors. Notwithstanding his valuable services, A. did not escape the envy of the courtiers and the suspicions of King Emmanuel, who appointed Lopez Soarez, a personal enemy of A., to supersede him as viceroy. This ingratitude affected him deeply. Ismaël, the shah of Persia, offered his assistance to resist the arbitrary decree of the Portuguese court; but A. would not violate his allegiance. A few days after, commending his son to the king in a short letter, he died at sea near Goa, December 16, 1515. Emmanuel honoured his memory by a long repentance, and raised his son to the highest dignities in the state. His life is well portrayed in the *Commentarios do Grande Alfonso de A.* (Lisbon, 1576 and 1774), published by his son Blasius.

ALBU'RNUM, or SAP-WOOD, in Botany, is that part of the wood of exogenous trees which is still imperfectly hardened, and, consisting of the woody layers most recently formed, is interposed between the *bark* (q. v.) and the *heart-wood* or *duramen* (q. v.). There is often a very marked division between it and the duramen, in trees whose age is such that the latter has been perfected. The A. differs from the duramen in having its tubes still open for the passage of fluids; and these tubes appear to be the vessels which chiefly serve for the ascent of the sap. (See SAP.) It gradually hardens, and is transformed into duramen, new layers being added externally. It is almost always of a white or very pale colour, whilst in many trees the duramen is highly coloured. The A. is pale even in ebony, in which the duramen is black. In general, the A. is much inferior in value to the hardened or perfected wood, and the different proportions which they bear to each other in the thickness of the stem, go far to determine the relative values of some kinds of trees. These proportions, however, are different not only in trees of different kinds, but even in trees of the same kind at different ages, and according as circumstances have been favourable or otherwise to rapidity of growth. When there is a great proportion of A., the wood dries slowly, and with difficulty, owing to the quantity of sap it contains.

A'LCA and ALCADE. See AUK.

ALCÆ'US, of Mitylene, one of the greatest lyric poets of Greece, flourished about the end of the 7th, or the beginning of the 6th c. B.C. His odes, in the Æolic dialect, are occupied with his grief for the dissensions of his country, his hatred of tyrants, his own misfortunes, and the sorrows of exile; while on other occasions he celebrates the praises of love and wine. He is said to have been an admirer of Sappho, who was a contemporary. A. himself took part in the civil war, first as the coadjutor of Pittacus, but afterwards against him, when he proved tyrannical. Being banished from Mitylene, he endeavoured, at the head of the other exiles, to force his way back; but in this attempt he fell into the hands of Pittacus, who, however, granted him his life and freedom. He was the inventor of the form of verse which after him is called the Alcaic, and which Horace, the happiest of his imitators, transplanted into the Latin language. Of the ten books of A.'s odes, only fragments remain, which are collected in the *Cambridge Museum Criticum*, and in Bergk's *Poetæ Lyrici Græci* (Leip. 1843).

ALCALA' DE HENARES (*El Calaat*, in Arabic, means 'the castle'), a town in Spain, in the province of New Castile, situated on the Henares, 22 miles from the capital, pop. 5300. It is built in the old style, and boasts of a university, which was founded by Cardinal Ximenes in 1510, and once enjoyed a world-wide fame, second to that of Salamanca alone. When Francis I. visited it, while a prisoner in Spain, he was welcomed by 11,000 students. The library contains the original of the celebrated polyglot Bible which was printed in this town, and called the Complutensian, from the ancient name of the place (Complutum). A. has, besides, a military academy, and a celebrated powder and leather factory. It is said to have been the birthplace of Cervantes, and various other distinguished persons. —There are several other towns in Spain which bear the name of ALCALA; as A. of Chisberte, in Valencia (pop. 6000); A. de Guadaira, near Seville (5200), and A. la Real, in Jaen (10,000), with superior wine, fruit, sheep, &c.

ALCA'LDE, a corruption of the Arabic *el-cadi*, 'the judge,' a word introduced by the Moors. It is still used in Spain as the general title of judicial and magisterial office, the special function being denoted by another term. Thus, there are *alcaldes de aldea*, village-justices; *alcaldes pedaneos*, justices of the peace; *alcaldes de corte*, judges of the court, &c.

ALCA'NTARA (*Al-kantarah*, Arabic, 'the bridge'), the Norba Cæsarea of the Romans, an old fortified Spanish town, built by the Moors in the province of Estremadura. The present population is about 4000. It was plundered by the French under General Lapisse in 1809. The bridge from which it takes its name was built for Trajan, 105 A.D. It consists of six arches, the two central ones with a span of 110 feet; the whole length is 670, and the height 210 feet. This remarkable structure was partially blown up by the English in 1812, and was again destroyed during the civil war of 1836; and though it might be easily repaired, it is left in a state of ruin, the lazy Spaniards being ferried over in a lumbering boat.

Order of Alcantara.

THE ORDER OF A. (formerly St Julian), one of the religious orders of Spanish knighthood, was founded (1156) as a military fraternity for the defence of Estremadura against the Moors. In 1197, Pope Celestine III. raised it to the rank of a religious order of knighthood; bestowed great privileges on it, and charged it with the defence of the Christian faith, and the maintenance of eternal war with the infidel. Alphonso IX., having taken the town of Alcantara,

ceded it in 1218 to the order of Calatrava (q. v.); but the knights of this order, unable to hold it along with their other great possessions, yielded it to the knights of St Julian, who transferred to it their seat, and henceforth were known by its name. At length the grand-mastership of the order was, by Pope Alexander VI., united to the Spanish crown in 1495. The order is still richly endowed. The knights, who follow the rule of St Benedict, take now only the vows of obedience and poverty, having, since 1540, been absolved from that of celibacy. A special vow binds them to defend the immaculate conception of the Virgin. At their nomination, they must prove four generations of nobility. For a time, the knights of A. acknowledged the superiority of the knights of Calatrava, but they were latterly absolved from it. Both the costume, however, and the cross are still the same, with the exception of the colour, which is green. The crest of the order is a pear-tree.

ALCE'DO. See KINGFISHER.

ALCHEMI'LLA. See LADY'S MANTLE.

ALCHEMY is to modern chemistry what astrology is to astronomy, or legend to history. In the eye of the astrologer, a knowledge of the stars was valuable only as a means of foretelling, or even of influencing, future events. In like manner, the genuine alchemist toiled with his crucibles and alembics, calcining, subliming, distilling, not with a view to discover the chemical properties of substances, as we understand them, but with two grand objects, as illusory as those of the astrologer - to discover, namely, (1) *the secret of transmuting the baser metals into gold and silver*, and (2) *the means of indefinitely prolonging human life*.

Tradition points to Egypt as the birthplace of the science. Hermes Trismegistus (q. v.) is represented as the father of it; and the most probable etymology of the name is that which connects it with the most ancient and native name of Egypt, *Chemi* (the Scripture Cham or Ham). The Greeks and Romans under the Empire would seem to have become acquainted with it from the Egyptians; there is no reason to believe that, in early times, either people had the name or the thing. *Chemia* (Gr. *chemeia*) occurs in the lexicon of Suidas, written in the 11th c., and is explained by him to be 'the conversion of silver and gold.' It is to the Arabs, from whom Europe got the name and the art, that we owe the prefixed article *al*. As if *chemia* had been a generic term embracing all common chemical operations, such as the decocting and compounding of ordinary drugs, the grand operation of transmutation was denominated *the chemia* (*al*-chemy)—the chemistry of chemistries. The Roman emperor Caligula is said to have instituted experiments for the producing of gold out of orpiment (sulphuret of arsenic); and in the time of Diocletian, the passion for this pursuit, conjoined with magical arts, had become so prevalent in the empire, that that emperor is said to have ordered all Egyptian works treating of the chemistry of gold and silver to be burnt. For at that time, multitudes of books on this art were appearing, written by Alexandrine monks and by hermits, but bearing famous names of antiquity, such as Democritus, Pythagoras, and Hermes.

At a later period, the Arabs took up the art; and it is to them that European A. is directly traceable. The school of polypharmacy, as it has been called, flourished in Arabia during the kalifates of the Abbassides. The earliest work of this school now known is the *Summa Perfectionis*, or 'Summit of Perfection,' composed by Gebir (q.v.) in the 8th c.; it is consequently the oldest book on chemistry proper in the world. It contains so much of what sounds very much like jargon in our ears, that Dr Johnson ascribes the origin of the word 'gibberish' to the name of the compiler. Yet when viewed in its true light, it is a wonderful performance. It is a kind of text-book, or collection of all that was then known and believed. It appears that these Arabian polypharmists had long been engaged in firing and boiling, dissolving and precipitating, subliming and coagulating chemical substances. They worked with gold and mercury, arsenic and sulphur, salts and acids; and had, in short, become familiar with a large range of what are now called chemicals. Gebir taught that there are three elemental chemicals—mercury, sulphur, and arsenic. These substances, especially the first two, seem to have fascinated the thoughts of the alchemists by their potent and penetrating qualities. They saw mercury dissolve gold, the most incorruptible of matters, as water dissolves sugar; and a stick of sulphur presented to hot iron penetrates it like a spirit, and makes it run down in a shower of solid drops, a new and remarkable substance, possessed of properties belonging neither to iron nor to sulphur. The Arabians held that the metals are compound bodies, made up of mercury and sulphur in different proportions. With these very excusable errors in theory, they were genuine practical chemists. They toiled away at the art of making 'many medicines' (polypharmacy) out of the various mixtures and reactions of such chemicals as they knew. They had their pestles and mortars, their crucibles and furnaces, their alembics and aludels, their vessels for infusion, for decoction, for cohabitation, sublimation, fixation, lixiviation, filtration, coagulation, &c. Their scientific creed was transmutation, and their methods were mostly blind gropings; and yet, in this way, they found out many a new body, and invented many a useful process.

From the Arabs, A. found its way through Spain into Europe, and speedily became entangled with the fantastic subtleties of the scholastic philosophy. In the middle ages, it was chiefly the monks that occupied themselves with A. Pope John XXII. took great delight in it, though it was afterwards forbidden by his successor. The earliest authentic works on European A. now extant are those of Roger Bacon (b. 1214, d. 1284) and Albertus Magnus (b. 1205, d. 1280). Roger Bacon (q.v.) appears rather the earlier of the two as a writer, and is really the greatest man in all the school. He was acquainted with gunpowder. Although he condemns magic, necromancy, charms, and all such things, he believes in the convertibility of the inferior metals into gold, but does not profess to have ever effected the conversion. He had more faith in the elixir of life than in gold-making. He followed Gebir in regarding potable gold—that is, gold dissolved in nitro-hydrochloric acid or *aqua regia*—as the elixir of life. Urging it on the attention of Pope Nicholas IV., he informs his Holiness of an old man who found some yellow liquor (the solution of gold is yellow) in a golden phial, when ploughing one day in Sicily. Supposing it to be dew, he drank it off. He was thereupon transformed into a hale, robust, and highly accomplished youth. Bacon no doubt took many a dose of this golden water himself.—Albertus Magnus (q. v.) had a great mastery of the practical chemistry of his times; he was acquainted with alum, caustic alkali, and the purification of the royal metals by means of lead. In addition to the sulphur-and-mercury theory of the metals, drawn from Gebir, he regarded the element water as still nearer the soul of nature than either of these bodies. He appears, indeed, to have thought it the primary matter, or the radical source of all things—an opinion held by Thales, the father of Greek

speculation.—Thomas Aquinas (q.v.) also wrote on A., and was the first to employ the word *amalgam* (q.v.).—Raymond Lully (q.v.) is another great name in the annals of A. His writings are much more disfigured by unintelligible jargon than those of Bacon and Albertus Magnus. He was the first to introduce the use of chemical symbols (q.v.), his system consisting of a scheme of arbitrary hieroglyphics. He made much of the spirit of wine (the art of distilling spirits would seem to have been then recent), imposing on it the name of *aqua vitæ ardens*. In his enthusiasm, he pronounced it the very elixir of life. One of the most celebrated of the alchemists was Basil Valentine (q.v.), (b. 1394), who introduced antimony into medical use. He, along with some previous alchemists, regarded salt, sulphur, and mercury as the three bodies contained in the metals. He inferred that the philosopher's-stone must be the same sort of combination—a compound, namely, of salt, sulphur, and mercury; so pure, that its projection on the baser metals should be able to work them up into greater and greater purity, bringing them at last to the state of silver and gold. His practical knowledge was great; he knew how to precipitate iron from solution by potash, and many similar processes, so that he is ranked as the founder of analytical chemistry.

But more famous than all was Paracelsus (q.v.), in whom alchemy proper may be said to have culminated. He held, with Basil Valentine, that the elements of compound bodies were salt, sulphur, and mercury—representing respectively earth, air, and water, fire being already regarded as an imponderable—but these substances were in his system purely representative. All kinds of matter were reducible under one or other of these typical forms; everything was either a salt, a sulphur, or a mercury, or, like the metals, it was a 'mixt' or compound. There was one element, however, common to the four; a fifth essence or 'quintessence' of creation; an unknown and only true element, of which the four generic principles were nothing but derivative forms or embodiments: in other words, he inculcated the dogma, that there is only one real elementary matter—nobody knows what. This one prime element of things he appears to have considered to be the universal solvent of which the alchemists were in quest, and to express which he introduced the term *alcahest*—a word of unknown etymology, but supposed by some to be composed of the two German words *alle geist*, 'all spirit.' He seems to have had the notion, that if this quintessence or fifth element could be got at, it would prove to be at once the philosopher's-stone, the universal medicine, and the irresistible solvent.

After Paracelsus, the alchemists of Europe became divided into two classes. The one class was composed of men of diligence and sense, who devoted themselves to the discovery of new compounds and re-actions: practical workers and observers of facts, and the legitimate ancestors of the positive chemists of the era of Lavoisier. The other class took up the visionary, fantastical side of the older alchemy, and carried it to a degree of extravagance before unknown. Instead of useful work, they compiled mystical trash into books, and fathered them on Hermes, Aristotle, Albertus Magnus, Paracelsus, and other really great men. Their language is a farrago of mystical metaphors, full of 'red bridegrooms' and 'lily brides,' 'green dragons,' 'ruby lions,' 'royal baths,' 'waters of life.' The seven metals correspond with the seven planets, the seven cosmical angels, and the seven openings of the head—the eyes, the ears, the nostrils, and the mouth. Silver was Diana, gold was Apollo, iron was Mars, tin was Jupiter, lead was Saturn, and so forth. They talk for ever of the powder of attraction, which drew all men and women after the possessor; of the alcahest, and the grand elixir, which was to confer immortal youth upon the student who should approve himself pure and brave enough to kiss and quaff the golden draught. There was the great mystery, the mother of the elements, the grandmother of the stars. There was the *philosopher's-stone*, and there was the *philosophical-stone*. The philosophical-stone was younger than the elements, yet at her virgin touch the grossest calx (ore) among them all would blush before her into perfect gold. The philosopher's-stone, on the other hand, was the first-born of nature, and older than the king of metals. Those who had attained full insight into the arcana of the science were styled Wise; those who were only striving after the light were Philosophers; while the ordinary practisers of the art were called Adepts. It was these visionaries that formed themselves into Rosicrucian Societies and other secret associations. It was also in connection with this mock-A., mixed up with astrology and magic, that quackery and imposture so abounded, as is depicted by Scott in the character of Dousterswivel in the *Antiquary*. Designing knaves would, for instance, make up large nails, half of iron and half of gold, and lacker them, so that they appeared common nails; and when their credulous and avaricious dupes saw them extract from what seemed plain iron an ingot of gold, they were ready to advance any sum that the knaves pretended to be necessary for pursuing the process on a large scale. It is from this degenerate and effete school that the prevailing notion of A. is derived—a notion which is unjust to the really meritorious alchemists who paved the way for genuine chemistry.

It is interesting to observe that the leading tenet in the alchemists' creed—namely, the doctrine of the transmutability of other metals into gold and silver—a doctrine which it was at one time thought that modern chemistry had utterly exploded—receives not a little countenance from a variety of facts every day coming to light. The multitude of phenomena known to chemists under the name of *Allotropy* (q.v.), are leading speculative men more and more to the opinion that many substances hitherto considered chemically distinct, are only the same substance under some different condition or arrangement of its component molecules, and that the number of really distinct elements may be very few indeed. See Kopp's *Geschichte der Chemie*, also *Alchemy and the Alchemists*, by Dr Samuel Brown, in Chambers's *Papers for the People* (No. 66), from which the above sketch is chiefly condensed.

ALCIBI'ADES, a son of Clinias and Dinomache, born at Athens, 450 B.C. He lost his father in the battle of Chæronea; and was in consequence educated in the house of Pericles, his uncle. In his youth he gave evidence of his future greatness, excelling both in mental and bodily exercises. His handsome person, his distinguished parentage, and the high position of Pericles, procured him a multitude of friends and admirers. Socrates was one of the former, and gained considerable influence over him; but was unable to restrain his love of luxury and dissipation, which found ample means of gratification in the wealth that accrued to him by his union with Hipparete, the daughter of Hipponicus. His public displays, especially at the Olympic games, were incredibly expensive. He bore arms for the first time in the expedition against Potidæa (432 B.C.) where he was wounded, and where his life was saved by Socrates—a debt which he liquidated eight years after at the battle of Delium, by saving

ture, the life of the philosopher; but he
to have taken no part in political matters till
he death of the demagogue Cleon, when Nicias
t about a treaty of peace for fifty years
a the Athenians and Lacedæmonians. A.,
of the esteem in which Nicias was held,
led the Athenians to ally themselves with
ple of Argos, Elis, and Mantinea, and did all
power to stir up afresh their old antipathy
rta. It was at his suggestion that they
d in the celebrated enterprise against Sicily,
command of which he was elected, along
icias and Lamachus. But while preparations
ing made, it happened during one night that
statues of Mercury in Athens were mutilated.
emies of A. threw the blame of this mischief
im, but postponed the impeachment till he
t sail, when they stirred up the people
him to such a degree, that he was recalled,
r to stand his trial. On his way home, he
at Thurii, fled, and betook himself to
where, by conforming to the strict manners
people, he soon became a favourite. He
l the Lacedæmonians to send assistance to
cusans, persuaded them to form an alliance
king of Persia, and after the unfortunate
Athenian expedition in Sicily, to support
ple of Chios in their endeavours to throw off
ke of Athens. He went thither himself, and
all Ionia in revolt against that city. But
d the other leading men in Sparta, jealous of
ess of A., ordered their generals in Asia to
assassinated. A. discovered this plan, and
saphernes, a Persian satrap, who had
to act in concert with the Lacedæmonians.
w resumed his old manners, adopted the
ss habits of Asia, and made himself indis-
le to Tissaphernes. He represented to the
hat it was contrary to the interests of Persia
r to disable the Athenians. He then sent
to the commanders of the Athenian forces at
that he would procure for them the friend-
the satrap if they would control the extrava-
f the people, and commit the government to
hy. This offer was accepted, and Pisander
to Athens, where he got the supreme
sted in a council of 400 persons. When it
ed, however, that this council had no intention
ling A., the army at Samos chose him as
mmander, desiring him to lead them on
ly to Athens, and overthrow the tyrants.
did not wish to return to his native country
had rendered it some service, and he accord-
ttacked and defeated the Lacedæmonians
y sea and land. Tissaphernes now ordered
to be arrested at Sardis on his return, the
not wishing the king to imagine that he had
cessory to his doings. But A. found means to
placed himself again at the head of the army;
Lacedæmonians and Persians at Cyzicus;
yzicus, Chalcedon, and Byzantium; restored
Athenians the dominion of the sea; and then
d to his country (407 B.C.), to which he had
formally invited. He was received with
enthusiasm, as the Athenians attributed to
ishment all the misfortunes that had befallen

triumph of A., however, was not destined to
le was again sent to Asia with 100 ships; but
supplied with money for the soldiers' pay,
obliged to seek assistance at Caria, where
nferred the command in the meantime to
bus, who, being lured into an ambuscade by
ler, lost his life and part of the ships. The
s of A. took advantage of this to accuse him
ppoint another commander. A. went to
Thrace, where he lived in voluntary exile in Pactyæ,
one of the castles which he had built out of
his earlier spoils. But being threatened here with
the power of Lacedæmonia, he removed to Bithynia,
with the intention of repairing to Artaxerxes, to gain
him over to the interests of his country. At the
request of the Thirty Tyrants of Athens, and with the
concurrence of the Spartans, Pharnabazus, a satrap
of Artaxerxes, received orders to put A. to death.
He was living at this time in a castle in Phrygia;
Pharnabazus ordered it to be set on fire during
the night, and as his victim was endeavouring to
escape from the flames, he was pierced with a volley
of arrows. Thus perished A. (404 B.C.), about the
forty-fifth year of his age. He was singularly
endowed by nature, being possessed of the most
fascinating eloquence (although he could not articu-
late the letter *r*, and stuttered in his speech), and
having in a rare degree the talent to win and to
govern men. Yet in all his transactions, he allowed
himself to be directed by external circumstances,
without having any fixed principles of conduct.
On the other hand, he possessed that boldness
which arises from conscious superiority, and shrunk
from no difficulty, because he was never doubtful
concerning the means by which an end might be
attained. His life has been written by Plutarch and
Cornelius Nepos.

ALCMAN, an ancient lyric poet, was born at
Sardis, the capital of Lydia, in Asia Minor, but lived
first as a slave, and afterwards as a freeman in Sparta.
He is the earliest erotic poet, and is said to have intro-
duced some new metrical forms called *Alcmanica
metra*. He composed in the Doric dialect a poem
on the Dioscuri, Parthenia, or songs sung by choruses
of virgins, bridal-hymns, verses in praise of love and
wine, &c. We possess only a few fragments of A.,
nor do these justify the high opinion entertained of
his merits by the ancients, though some of them
exhibit considerable beauty. A. died of a loath-
some disease (*morbus pediculuris*).

ALCO, a variety of dog, domesticated in Mexico
and Peru before the discovery of America by
Europeans, and also found in a wild state in these
countries. But whether it is originally a native of
them, or has escaped from domestication, is uncertain,
nor is the variety well known to naturalists. It is
described as having a very small head and pendulous
ears: the latter being in dogs one of the ordinary
results of domestication. Humboldt supposed it to
be allied to the shepherd's dog. It has been
attempted to elevate it into a species under the
name of *Canis A.* It is not improbable that the
name A. was given to more varieties than one.

ALCOHOL is a limpid, colourless liquid, of a
hot pungent taste, and having a slight but agreeable
smell. It is the characteristic ingredient of fer-
mented drinks, and gives them their intoxicating
quality. Looking at the extraordinary consumption
of these liquors, and to the extensive application of
A. for other purposes, it becomes one of the most
important substances produced by art.

There is only one source of A.—namely, the fer-
mentation of sugar or other saccharine matter. Sugar
is the produce of the vegetable world. Some plants
contain free sugar, and still more contain starch,
which can be converted into sugar. The best vegeta-
able substances, then, for yielding A. are those that
contain the greatest abundance of sugar or of starch.
See DIASTASE, FERMENTATION, and DISTILLATION.

Owing to the attraction of A. for water, it is
impossible to procure pure A. by distillation alone.
Common spirits, such as brandy, whisky, &c., contain
50 or 52 per cent. of A.; in other words, they are
about half A., half water. *Proof-spirit*, which is the

standard by means of which all mixtures of A. and water are judged, contains 57·27 per cent. by volume, and 49·50 per cent. by weight of A. The specific gravity of proof-spirit is 918·6; and when a spirit is called *above proof*, it denotes that it contains an excess of A.; thus, *spirit of wine*, or rectified spirit, with specific gravity 838, is 54 to 58 overproof, and requires 54 to 58 per cent. of water to be added to it, to bring the strength down to that of proof-spirit; whilst the term *under-proof* has reference to a less strong spirit than the standard. See ARÆOMETER. The most primitive method of learning the strength of A. was to drench gunpowder with it, set fire to the spirit, and if it inflamed the gunpowder as it died out, then the A. stood the test or proof, and was called proof-spirit. The highest concentration possible by distillation gives 90 per cent. of A., still leaving 10 per cent. of water. In order to remove this, fused chloride of calcium, quicklime, or fused carbonate of potash, is added to the alcoholic liquid, the whole allowed to stand for twelve hours, and then the spirit may be distilled off quite free from water. Spirit of wine may also be deprived of its remaining water by suspending it in a bladder in a warm place; the bladder allows much of the water to pass through and evaporate, but little of the A. The latter method is called Soemmering's process, and depends on the different degrees of rapidity with which the bladder admits of water and A. passing through it. Thus, introduce into one bladder eight ounces of water, and into a second, eight ounces of A., and allow both bladders to be similarly exposed on a sandbath, till all the water has evaporated through the pores of the membrane, which will be accomplished in about four days, and it will then be observed, that whilst eight ounces water have made their exit from the bladder, that only one ounce of A. has thus evaporated, and seven ounces still remain in the bladder. This experiment explains why smugglers, a few generations ago, could supply a whisky which was stronger, and hence esteemed preferable, as they carried the whisky in bladders around their persons, and the water escaping therefrom in much greater proportion than the A., a stronger spirit was left.

A. is used medicinally, both internally and externally. The more common form for internal use is brandy, and is that generally recommended by physicians. As a *stomachic stimulant*, A. is used in sea-sickness and indigestion. As a *stimulant and restorative*, it is employed with advantage in the later stages of fever. It is also employed internally as a *powerful excitant* to prevent fainting during operations, and to assist in restoration in cases of suspended animation. In cases of diarrhœa, unaccompanied by inflammation, it is often of great benefit. Externally, A. is applied to stop hemorrhage, to harden the cuticle over tender parts, as the nipples of females for some time before delivery, and to feet which have been blistered from long walking or tight-fitting shoes.

Absolute or anhydrous A. has a specific gravity of 793 at the temperature of 60°. It boils at 173°, and has not been frozen by any cold hitherto produced. Reduced to a temperature of − 130°, A. becomes of an oily and greasy consistence; at 146°, it assumes the aspect of melted wax; and at 166°, it gets still thicker, but does not congeal at the lowest attainable temperature. This property of non-freezing at any degree of cold to which the earth is subjected, has led to the employment of A. coloured red by cochineal, in the thermometers sent out to the Arctic regions. It acts as a poison by abstracting the water from the parts it touches. It is highly inflammable; its combustion yielding only carbonic acid and water. When mixed with water, heat is evolved, and a condensation takes place. The formula of A. is $C_4H_6O_2$. In 100 pounds, therefore, of A., about 53 are carbon, 13 hydrogen, and 34 oxygen. Besides the A. consumed in wine, beer, and spirits, it is much employed in pharmacy and in the arts. It is a powerful solvent for resins and oils; and hence is employed in the preparation of varnishes. In Germany, a cheap spirit made from potatoes is much used for cooking on a small scale. See METHYLATED SPIRIT.—The use and abuse of alcoholic drinks will be considered under FOOD AND DRINK, and TEMPERANCE.

ALCOHOLO'METRY is the process of estimating the percentage of absolute alcohol in a sample of spirits. See ARÆOMETER.

A'LCORAN. See KORAN.

ALCO'VE (Spanish, *alcoba*, which is derived from the Arabic, *El-kauf*, a tent), an architectural term, denoting a sort of niche or recess in a chamber where one may recline, or where a bed may be placed. An A. is either hung with curtains or closed with doors during the day. It was known to the ancients, and at one time very common in France, when the immoderate size of the apartments rendered it absolutely necessary as a preventive against the cold during sleep. It is no longer fashionable, the most eminent physicians having declared it to be prejudicial to health.

ALCO'Y, a town of Spain, in the province of Alicante, a portion of the former kingdom of Valencia. It is 'built in a funnel of the hills, on a tongue of land hemmed in by two streams, with bridges and arched viaducts.' The houses hang picturesquely over the terraced gardens and ravines. The walls of A. are of clay, and suffered considerable damage during the last war; but the town contains some new edifices, and has numerous manufactories. 'Here is made the *papel de hilo*, the book *Librito de fumar*, which forms the entire demi-duodecimo library of nine-tenths of Spaniards, and with which they make their *papelitos*, or little paper-cigars.' 200,000 reams are annually made, of which 10,000 are used for writing, 10,000 for packing, and 180,000 for the paper-cigars! A. is also famous for its sugar-plums. It has a parish church, schools, consistory, town-hall, poor asylum, public granary, &c. Pop. 15,750.

ALCUDIA, MANUEL DE GODOY, DUKE OF, known as the Prince of Peace, was born at Badajos, in Spain, 12th of May 1767. Poor, but handsome and musical, at the age of twenty, he entered the king's bodyguard at Madrid, and soon became a favourite of the weak Charles IV., as well as of his queen. Honours and emoluments flowed in rapidly. In 1801, he led the Spanish army against the Portuguese, and signed the treaty of Badajos. In 1804, he was made generalissimo of the Spanish forces on sea and land, and invested with unlimited power. The alliance of Spain with France, and the war with England which ensued, in spite of the sums paid by Spain to secure neutrality, the defeat of Trafalgar, and consequent check to commerce – all tended to exasperate the public mind, and a court-party was formed against him, with the Prince of Asturias at its head. A. now resolved to shake off the French alliance, and to treat secretly with the Lisbon court. But however cautiously taken, his warlike measures reached the ears of Napoleon, and determined him to carry out his project of dethroning the Bourbons. Meanwhile, the people had been further exasperated against the favourite by his unprincipled accusations against the Prince of Asturias; and when, in 1808, Charles abdicated in favour of his son, the duke's life was only saved by the promise of his trial.

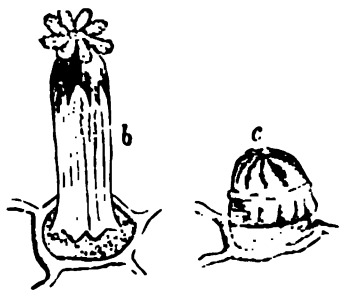
however, never took place. Napoleon, his influence over the minds of their jesties, had him liberated, and brought , where he instigated all measures taken ing and queen, retaining their favour till . After his fall, he lived chiefly in 1808, his income had been estimated at piastres. After the revolution of 1830, subsisting in Paris upon a small pension y Louis-Philippe. In 1847, his return s permitted, and his titles, together with f his wealth, restored. He died at Paris, 1851.

or FLACCUS ALBI'NUS, the most u scholar of the 8th c., the confidant r of Charlemagne, was born at York rear 735. He was educated under the rchbishop Egbert, and his relative, d succeeded the latter as master of the fork. Charlemagne became acquainted Parma, as he was returning from Rome, had gone to bring home the *pallium* for d in the year 782, this monarch invited ourt, and availed himself of his assist- endeavours to civilise his subjects. A. preceptor of Charlemagne himself, whom ed in the various sciences. To render more available, Charlemagne estab- court a school called *Schola Palatina*, ndence of which, as well as of several , was committed to him. In the learned e court, A. went by the name of Flaccus lost of the schools in France were either improved by him. Among others, he school in the Abbey of St Martin, in taking as his model the School of York; school he himself taught after his retire- court (801). While living at Tours, he corresponded with Charlemagne. At his 4, he left, besides numerous theological number of elementary works on phil- thematics, rhetoric, and philology; also a great number of letters. His letters, betray the uncultivated character of the ly, shew A. to have been the most accom- n of his time. He understood Latin, Hebrew. The most complete edition of appeared at Ratisbon in 1777. See the by Lorenz (Halle, 1829), translated into mel. 1837).

'NIUM, a genus of Zoophytes, the type of alled *Alcyonida*, belonging to the class

Alcyonium digitatum:
ed general gure. 2. A portion shewing the polypes protruded, and with extended tentacula

and order *Asteroida*, and consisting of a s with starlike pores and protrusive polypes. *A. digitatum* is extremely common on the British shores, on stones, old shells, &c., in deep water. It sometimes appears as a mere crust, about the eighth of an inch in thickness, but commonly rises up in rounded cones, and often assumes forms which have procured for it the popular name of *Dead Man's Fingers*, and other similar appellations. The polype-mass is gelatinous within, and covered with a sort of leathery skin, the mass being traversed by a multitude of minute canals, terminating on the outer surface in starlike figures, which, if the whole is placed in sea-water, are seen to project considerably from the surface, and appear as polypes with eight tentacula or feelers; so that what seems to be a disgusting fleshy mass in the fisherman's net, proves to be, when placed in its proper element, a structure of wonderful beauty and full of animal life, existing under peculiar and wonderful conditions. The manner in which the polypes protrude and retract themselves, has been likened to that in which the horns of a snail are protruded and retracted. Their tentacula are short, obtuse, and elegantly fringed at the margins. The external part of the body of the polype is a membrane so transparent, that by the employment of a magnifying-glass the whole internal structure can be seen through it. See fig. 3, *b*.



3. Alcyonium digitatum:
b, the polype fully protruded, magnified; *c*, the polype partially protruded, magnified.

This delicate membrane, however, is composed of two very thin membranes, intimately united, the outer of which increases in thickness at the base of the polype, coalesces with that of adjacent polypes, and is continuous with the common leathery skin of the polype-mass. The inner membrane retains its extreme delicacy throughout; it extends into and lines the cell of the polype (see fig. 4) and the tube or canal which proceeds from the cell into the mass, and is thus also continuous with the corresponding membranes of other polypes; for the canals divide into branches in their course from the base of the polype-mass to the surface, and the intimacy of union in the whole is increased by a fine tubular network which occupies the spaces between the principal canals. If a portion of an A. is irritated, not only the particular polypes immediately subjected to irritation retract themselves as to withdraw from danger, but the gradual collapse

4. Alcyonium digitatum:
Section shewing internal structure.

and contraction of the whole polype-mass shews that the irritation has been felt through it all. The contraction of the mass is owing to a discharge of water, which the polypes, when protruded, imbibe, and which circulates through and distends the polype-mass, so that when the polypes are undisturbed, and in full activity, it has twice or three times the size which it has as we find it cast out upon the beach. The stomach of each polype is cylindrical (as may be seen in fig. 3, *b*, immediately under the oval disk or expanded tentacula), and beneath it is a comparatively large cavity, into which hang loosely (as may also be seen in the figure just referred to) eight twisted filaments or threads, the use of which is not well ascertained, and has been the subject of very different opinions among naturalists. In the gelatinous substance of the polype-mass, which fills the interstices of the tubular net-work, numerous crystalline calcareous spicula lie immersed, like the *raphides* (q. v.) found in the intercellular passages of some plants. They are toothed on the sides, but are of various forms, and have no organic connection with any part of the animal structure; their only use apparently being to impart some degree of strength to the whole. These spicula are of general occurrence in zoophytes of this order, and are secreted by the common skin of the polype-mass. The polype-mass increases by *gemmæ* or buds, which grow into new branches; but the propagation of the species takes place by *ova* or eggs, which first appear as minute smooth warts on the membrane of the canals in the interior. The constriction of the neck, by which they grow, separates them from the parent membrane, and they move through the canal by means of very minute vibrating cilia or hairs with which they are furnished, until they reach the stomach of a polype, into which they enter, and through which they more slowly proceed till at last they are ejected by the mouth (the only opening), and committed to the waves and tides. The ova seem as if capable of feeling whilst within the parent mass, and may be observed to move backwards and forwards, and to contract their sides as if by voluntary action in their passage through the body of the polype. These wonderful phenomena of nature are the more easily observed, because the ova are of a deep vermilion colour, beautifully contrasting with the pure white of the polype, through the tunic of which they are seen.—One of the most remarkable known species of A., and the largest, is that called *A. poculum* or Neptune's Cup, which was discovered by Sir Stamford Raffles upon the coral-reefs of Sumatra, and is found in the neighbourhood of Singapore. It grows erect, sometimes attaining nearly three feet in height and eighteen inches in diameter. Specimens are now frequent in museums in this country.

Alcyonidium gelatinosum. Reduced.

The name Alcyonium was formerly also given to many zoophytes now found to be of very different structure, some of which now bear the name *Alcyonidium*, others that of *Alcyonella*. The genus *Alcyonidium* belongs to the class of Zoophytes called *Polyzoa*, order *Infundibulata*. See ZOOPHYTES. The most common British species is *Alcyonidium gelatinosum*. It resembles a sponge in appearance, but is more pellucid and gelatinous, and is full of polypes, each having 15 or 16 long slender tentacula. It is attached to old shells and stones, and is sometimes much lobed, as in the preceding figure, sometimes almost simple. The colour varies from a very pale brown to clear yellow; the surface is speckled with minute dots, from which, when it is placed in sea-water, the polypes protrude. The polype differs widely from that of Alcyonium in having an intestine, which, proceeding from the stomach to the aperture of the cell, opens there by an orifice distinct from the mouth, a difference characteristic of the classes to which they respectively belong. The ova are clothed with cilia, and their motions either are or most strikingly resemble voluntary motions.—*Alcyonella* belongs to the class Polyzoa, order *Hypocrepia*. See ZOOPHYTES. There is one British species, *Alcyonella stagnorum*, found in stagnant waters, especially in autumn, in shapeless, jelly-like masses, of a blackish-green colour, usually adhering to the leaves of aquatic plants. The jelly-like mass is traversed from base to surface by multitudes of tubes, which open by a roundish or 5-angled aperture; the heads of the polypes project a little way from the aperture, and expand into a circle of about fifty tentacula. About 1600 polypes are situated on a square inch of the surface of the mass. The number of tentacula on a specimen of moderate size has been computed at more than 5,000,000. The tentacula are covered with minute cilia, only to be observed with a high magnifying power, by means of which a constant whirlpool is maintained centering in the mouth of the polype, and essential, probably, for breathing as well as for the supply of food. Each polype is organically connected with the mass, its tunic being continuous with the tube. The alimentary canal has two openings. The ova are to be found in vast numbers in the tubes which traverse the mass. They are dark brown, whilst the tubes are colourless or tinted with green, of a lens-like form and destitute of cilia. They are produced from all parts of the inner side of the gelatinous tubes; and as there seems to be no aperture for their escape, it is supposed that they are liberated from the parent mass only on its death and decomposition. The *Alcyonella* is an interesting object in a fresh-water aquarium, but is rather difficult to preserve. It is not, however, always to be found even in ponds where it might be expected, and is abundant in particular seasons and rare in others. The ova are probably capable of remaining long dormant, until some concurrence of circumstances favours the development of the germ of life which they contain. See Johnston's *History of British Zoophytes*, 2 vols., Lond. 1847—a most interesting and valuable work.

ALDE'BARAN, the Arabic name of a star of the first magnitude in the constellation Taurus. It is the largest and most brilliant of a cluster of five which the Greeks called the Hyades. From its position in the constellation, it is sometimes termed 'the Bull's Eye.'

ALDER (*Alnus*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Betulaceæ* (regarded by many as a sub-order of *Amentaceæ*; see BIRCH and AMENTACEÆ). The genus consists entirely of trees and shrubs, natives of cold and temperate climates; the flowers in terminal, imbricated catkins, which appear before the leaves; the male and female flowers in separate catkins on the same plant; the male or barren catkins loose, cylindrical, pendulous, having the scales 3-lobed, and each with three flowers whose perianth is single and 4-partite; the fertile catkins oval, compact, having the scales sub-trifid, and each with two flowers destitute of perianth; styles two; fruit, a compressed

nut without wings.—The COMMON or BLACK A. (*A. glutinosa*) is a native of Britain, and of the northern parts of Asia and America. It has roundish, wedge-shaped obtuse leaves, lobed at the margin and

Alder Tree.

serrated. The bark, except in very young trees, is nearly black. It succeeds best in moist soils, and helps to secure swampy river-banks against the effects of floods. It attains a height of 30—60 feet. Its leaves are somewhat glutinous. The wood is of an orange-yellow colour, not very good for fuel, but affording one of the best kinds of charcoal for the manufacture of gunpowder, upon which account it is often grown as coppice-wood. Great numbers of small A. trees are used in Scotland for making staves for herring-barrels. The wood is also employed by turners and joiners; but it is particularly valuable on account of its property of remaining for a long time under water without decay, and is therefore used for the piles of bridges, for pumps, sluices, pipes, cogs of mill-wheels, and similar purposes. The bark is used for tanning and for dyeing, also for staining fishermen's nets. It produces a yellow or red colour,

Alder leaves, &c.:

a, a branchlet with male and female catkins, reduced; b, a branchlet with leaves and female catkins in a more advanced stage, reduced; c, the fruit-bearing female catkin; d, the same, cut across, to shew the small nuts or seeds.

or with copperas, a black colour. The leaves and female catkins are employed in the same way, by the tanners and dyers of some countries. The bark is bitter and astringent, and has been used for gargles, and also administered with success in ague. The seeds are a favourite food of greenfinches.—The Alder is one of the ornaments of many of the most exquisite landscapes in Britain. The dark green of its foliage, and the still darker hue of its bark, contrast beautifully with the colours of the other trees with which it is usually associated on the banks of our rivers. In boggy grounds it is often almost the only kind of tree that appears, and in many parts of the Highlands, groups of alders are scattered over the lower and moister parts of the mountain-slopes. The individual tree viewed by itself may be regarded as somewhat stiff and formal in appearance; but in groups or clusters, it is always far otherwise.—The common A. ceases on the Swedish shore of the Gulf of Bothnia, in the south of Angermannland, and is there called the *Sea A.*, because it is only in the lowest grounds near the sea that it occurs.—The GRAY or WHITE A. (*A. incana*), a native of many parts of continental Europe, especially of the Alps, and also of North America, and of Kamtchatka, but not of Britain, differs from the common A. in having acute leaves, downy beneath, and not glutinous. It attains a rather greater height, but in very cold climates and unfavourable situations appears as a shrub. It occurs on the Alps at an elevation above that to which the common A. extends, and becomes abundant also where that species disappears in the northern part of the Scandinavian peninsula. The wood is white, fine-grained, and compact, but readily rots under water. The bark is used in dyeing.—*A. cordifolia* is a large and handsome tree, with cordate acuminate leaves, a native of the south of Italy, but found to be quite hardy in England. Some of the American species are mere shrubs. The bark of *A. serrulata* is used in dyeing.—Several species are natives of the Himalayas.—The BERRY-BEARING A., or A. BUCKTHORN, is a totally different plant. See BUCKTHORN.

A'LDERMAN, a title derived from the Anglo-Saxon *ealdorman*, compounded of *ealdor* (older) and *man*. Whether any definite and invariable functions were connected with the ancient rank of *ealdorman*, does not seem to be very clearly ascertained. The term was generally applied to persons of high and hereditary distinction, such as princes, earls, and governors. Its special signification in the titles 'A. of all England' (*Aldermannus totius Angliæ*) and 'King's A.' (*Aldermannus Regis*), is not distinctly indicated. There were also aldermen of counties, hundreds, cities, boroughs, and castles. In modern times, aldermen are officers invested with certain powers in the municipal corporations of England, Wales, and Ireland, either as civil magistrates, or as assessors of the chief civil magistrates in cities and towns corporate. The corresponding title in Scotland is Bailie. The London Court of Aldermen consists of twenty-six aldermen, including the Lord Mayor, and constitutes the bench of magistrates for the city, besides having judicial and legislative authority in the corporation.

A'LDERNEY (Fr. *Auriguy*, Lat. *Aurinia*), an island in the English Channel (see CHANNEL ISLANDS), lat. 49° 45' N., long. 2° 13' W., separated from the coast of Normandy by a strait about 7 miles in breadth, called the Race of Alderney. Through this channel, which is very dangerous in rough weather, the remnant of the French fleet escaped after their defeat at La Hogue in 1692. The distances between Alderney and the nearest points of Guernsey, Jersey, and Great Britain, are respectively about 15, 33, and 60 miles. The length of the island is about 4 miles, the breadth about 1½. The coast to the south-east is bold and lofty, to the north-east and north, it descends, forming numerous small bays, one of which, that of Crabby, affords the only anchorage in the island. A harbour of refuge and breakwater have been constructed on the north side of the island, the extensive works connected with which have greatly increased the population. Six miles to the west are the Casketa, a small cluster of rocks, on which are three light-houses. The soil in the centre of the island is highly productive; and the A. cows, a small but handsome breed, have always been celebrated. The climate is mild and healthy, and good water abounds. The population has been steadily on the decrease for some

time. In 1851, it was 3333; in 1871, it counted 2738. Education to some extent is universal. The population was originally French, but half the inhabitants now speak English, and all understand it. Protestantism has prevailed here since the Reformation. A. is a dependency of Guernsey, and subject to the British crown. The civil power is vested in a judge appointed by the crown, and six *jurats* chosen by the people. These, with twelve popular representatives or *douzainiers* (who do not vote), constitute the local legislature. The court of justice is composed of the judge and jurats, the royal procureur and comptroller and the registrar (*greffier*), nominated by the governor. There is a local militia, consisting of two companies of infantry, and a brigade of artillery. The 'Town,' situated in a picturesque valley near the centre of the island, contains a few public buildings, among which is the old church, said to have been erected in the 12th c., and a new one in the early English style, with a tower 104 feet high. The living is a perpetual curacy in the archdeaconry and diocese of Winchester.

ALDERSHOTT CAMP. When England and France declared war against Russia in 1854, in relation to Turkish affairs, the British army was known to be in an unsatisfactory state. Thirty-nine years of peace had allowed many important elements in military organisation to fall into a state of inefficiency. Among others, the power of acting well together in brigades and divisions had scarcely been taught to our soldiers, who had been familiar with little more than the discipline and tactics of battalions and companies. To remedy in part these defects was the object held in view in establishing the camp at A. It was to be a permanent camp, with barracks and huts, instead of mere canvas tents; and was to be provided with all the appliances for a military school, valuable to officers as well as to privates. A dreary waste, on the confines of Surrey, Hants, and Berks, called A. Heath, was purchased by the government as the locality for the new camp. The area was 7063 acres, and the purchase-price about £130,000. The spot was deemed suitable as being distant from any thickly inhabited district; as being within easy reach of three or four stations on the South-western and South-eastern railways; and as being conveniently placed for the quick transmission of troops to any part of the southern coast. The camp was ready for the reception of troops in 1855. At first, no brick structures were attempted. The soldiers were accommodated in wooden huts, each furnishing living and sleeping room for about twenty-five men. When the camp was inaugurated, in April of the year last named, by a review at which the Queen was present, there were 18,000 troops, regulars and militia, temporarily stationed there. The huts for each regiment were grouped apart, for the better maintenance of regimental discipline. Each hut had a range of iron bedsteads on either side, capable of being doubled up; and a long table through the middle, in a line with two doors at the ends of the huts. The officers' huts, though of course superior in construction and convenience, were as simple as they could well be. The cooking was performed in huts especially set apart for that purpose, provided with efficient cooking apparatus. The wooden huts have gradually been superseded by brick barracks, at a cost of more than a quarter of a million sterling. These will be briefly described in a future article (BARRACKS), as examples of the finest barracks hitherto constructed in this country. The Basingstoke Canal, running directly across the Heath, has occasioned a division into North Camp and South Camp; but each of these is susceptible of a good deal of extension. On various occasions between the spring of 1855 and that of 1859, the Queen has been present at grand 'field-days' and reviews at the camp; but the more important operations are those which are carried on daily, and are known to very few besides those immediately concerned. There are many square miles of plain, heath, shrub, morass, valley, and hill surrounding the camp, on which soldiers, and especially the militia regiments, are exercised in the various evolutions and strategic movements connected with the battle-field and siege-works. It is no child's play; the men are often severely worked, and gain a foretaste of some of the fatigues of military life. On other days, they are exercised in various quiet duties of tents and huts, barracks and kitchens, intended to teach them many of the useful knacks in which French soldiers are acknowledged to be more skilled than the English. Different regiments, regulars as well as militia, artillery as well as cavalry and infantry, take it in turn, to experience camp-life at A. There are usually about 15,000 troops at the camp, comprising infantry, cavalry, artillery, and militia. The war authorities some years ago purchased or leased a portion of forest-land between A. and Winchester; camping arrangements of a temporary kind will be made, and the troops will be occasionally exercised with a tough march of a dozen miles. One unfortunate circumstance connected with the camp is, that the barracks have been built at the very edge of the ground belonging to the government; as a consequence, private speculators built beer-houses and haunts of dissipation close to the barracks, greatly to the demoralisation of the soldiers; and it is not easy to buy up these people, owing to the rise in value of the land. Some alleviation has arisen from the operation of the Contagious Diseases Acts of 1866 and 1869.

ALDINE EDITIONS, the name given to the works that issued from the press of Aldo Manuzio (q.v.) (Lat. Aldus Manutius) and his family in Venice (1490–1597). Recommended by their intrinsic value, as well as by their handsome exterior, they have been highly prized by the learned and by book-collectors. Many of them are the first editions (*editiones principes*) of Greek and Roman classics; others contain corrected texts of modern classic writers, as of Petrarch, Dante, Boccaccio, &c., carefully collated with the MSS. All of them are distinguished for the remarkable correctness of the typography; the Greek works, however, being in this respect somewhat inferior to the Latin and Italian. The editions published by Aldus, the father, form an epoch in the annals of printing, as they contributed in no ordinary measure to the perfecting of types. No one had ever before used such beautiful Greek types, of which he got nine different kinds made, and of Latin as many as fourteen. It is to him, or rather to the engraver, Francesco of Bologna, that we owe the types called by the Italians *Corsivi*, and known to us as Italics, which he used for the first time in the 8vo edition of ancient and modern classics, commencing with Virgil (1501). Manuzio's impressions on parchment are exceedingly beautiful; he was the first printer who introduced the custom of taking some impressions on better paper - that is, finer or stronger than the rest of the edition. The first example of this is afforded in the *Epistolæ Græcæ* (1499). It would be difficult to name another who has brought so much zeal, disinterestedness, taste, and knowledge to the furtherance of literature, especially classical literature. After his death, in 1515, his business was superintended by his father-in-law, Andreas Asulanus. Paul, the son of Aldus, possessed the same enthusiasm for Latin classics that his father had for

Greek. He died at Rome in 1597. The printing establishment founded by Aldo continued in active operation for 100 years, and during this time printed 908 different works. The distinguishing mark is an anchor, entwined by a dolphin, generally with the motto, *Sudavit et alsit*. Under the direction of the grandson of the founder, it lost the superiority which it had formerly maintained over all the other printing-presses in Italy. The demand which arose for editions from this office, and especially for the earlier ones, induced the printers of Lyon and Florence, about 1502, to begin the system of issuing counterfeit Aldines. The Aldo-mania has considerably diminished in later times. Among the A. works which have now become very rare may be mentioned the *Horæ Beatæ Mariæ Virginis* of 1497; the *Virgil* of 1501; and the *Rhetores Græci;* not to mention the editions from 1494 to 1497, which are now extremely rare. The most complete collections known are those of the former Grand Duke of Tuscany, and of Renouard, the bookseller of Paris. In 1834 appeared a third edition of the monograph published by Renouard, *Annales de l'Imprimerie des Aldes, ou Histoire des Trois Manuces, et de leur Editions: par A. Renouard* (Paris, 1834). Ebert has published a catalogue of all the authentic A. E. in the supplement to the first volume of his *Bibliographical Dictionary*.

ALE would seem to have been the current name in England for malt liquor in general before the introduction of hops. This took place, according to Johnston (*Chemistry of Common Life*), as late as the reign of Henry VIII., about the year 1524. As the use of hops was derived from Germany, the German name for malt liquor (*bier*), *beer*, was used at first to distinguish the hopped liquor from *ale*, the unhopped. The word *ale* had in all likelihood been introduced by the Danes and other Scandinavian settlers – for *öl* (allied probably to *oil*) is still the name for malt liquor in the Scandinavian tongues—and must have driven out the *beor* of the Anglo-Saxons, which that people had in common with the other Teutonic nations. As now used, ale signifies a kind of beer (q. v. and FERMENTATION), distinguished chiefly by its strength and the quantity of sugar remaining undecomposed. Strong ale is made from the best pale malt; and the fermentation is allowed to proceed slowly, and the ferment to be exhausted and separated. This, together with the large quantity of sugar still left undecomposed, enables the liquor to keep long without requiring a large amount of hops. The Scotch ales are distinguished for the smallness of the quantity of hops they contain, and for their vinous flavour. They are fermented at an unusually low temperature. The ales of Edinburgh and Prestonpans have a high reputation. Burton ale is the strongest made, containing as much as 8 per cent. of alcohol; while the best brown stout has about 6 per cent., and common beer only 1 per cent. India pale ale differs chiefly in having a larger quantity of hops.

A-LEE, expressed by the French *sous le vent*, or 'under the wind,' is a maritime term applied to the position of the helm when so worked, as to bring the head of the ship to windward.

ALEMAN, MATEO, a famous Spanish novelist, was born about the middle of the 16th c., at Seville, and died in Mexico during the reign of Philip III. In [illegible] he published a poetical biography of St [illegible] of Padua: and in 1608, while in the New [illegible] Ciudad Mexicana, written during his [illegible] *Guzman de Alfarache*, [illegible] like some of the [illegible] first published popular, and twenty-six editions, consisting of not less than 50,000 copies, in Spain and other countries. Both as regards the delineation of manners and the purity of style, this masterly creation of A. ranks next to that most celebrated of all the Spanish novels of the same character – the *Lazarillo de Tormes* of Mendoza. It displays keen powers of observation; and is readily recognised as the work of a ripe and cultivated mind. Mendoza's hero has the advantage in originality, freshness, and vivacity; but Guzman exhibits a richer variety of gifts in the various characters he is compelled by circumstances to assume, such as stable-boy, beggar, thief, coxcomb, mercenary, valet, pander, merchant, &c. The manners of the author's own age are hit off with great skill and effect, a wide knowledge of human nature is manifested, and the whole narrative is interspersed with shrewd and solid reflections and moralisings. A. is considered to rank with Mendoza, Cervantes, &c., as one of the masters of the Castilian style.

ALEMANNI (that is, *all-men*), the name of a military confederacy of several German tribes which began to appear on the Lower and Middle Maine about the beginning of the 3d c. Caracalla fought with them first on the Maine in 211 A.D., but without conquering them; Alexander Severus was equally unsuccessful; but Maximinus at length succeeded against them, and drove them beyond the Rhine. After his death, they again invaded Gaul, but were defeated by Posthumius, who pursued them into Germany, and fortified with ramparts and ditches the boundary of the Roman territory, called the *Agri Decumates*. The mounds near Pförung, on the Danube, the rampart extending through the principality of Hohenlohe to Jaxthausen, and the ditch with palisades on the north side of the Maine, are remains of these works. The A., however, did not desist from their incursions, although they were repeatedly driven back. After 282, being pressed upon from the north-east by the Burgundians, they took up permanent settlements within the Roman boundary from Maintz to Lake Constance. At last, Julian came (357) to the relief of Gaul, which had been suffering from the incursions of the A., and soon compelled eight of their chiefs to sue for peace. Their united force, in their principal battle with Julian, amounted to 35,000 men. After the 5th c., the confederated nation is spoken of as A. and Suavi or Suevi. In the course of the 4th c., they had crossed the Rhine, and extended as far west as the Vosges, and south to the Helvetian Alps. At length, Clovis, king of the Franks, broke their power in 496, and made them subject to the Frankish dominion. The south part of their territory was formed into a duchy, called Alemannia. The name of Swabia came afterwards to be applied to the part of the duchy lying east of the Rhine. From the A., the French have given the name of *Allemands* and *Allemagne* to Germans and Germany in general, though the inhabitants of the north of Switzerland, with those of Alsace and part of Swabia, are the proper descendants of the Alemanni.

ALEMBERT, JEAN LE ROND D', one of the most distinguished mathematicians and writers of the 18th c., was born in Paris, November 16, 1717. He was the illegitimate son of Madame de Tencin, a lady of considerable notoriety in the time of the Regency, and of a M. Destouches. He was exposed by his mother on the steps of the church of St Jean-le-Rond, and the policeman who found him committed the seemingly dying infant to the care of the wife of a poor glazier, thinking it too weak to be taken to the depôt. The father, without publicly avowing the child, secured to him an allowance of

1200 francs a year. At the age of twelve, he entered the College Mazarin, where he soon gave indication of that inclination, or rather passion for mathematical studies which distinguished him through life. On leaving college, he returned to the humble home of his kind foster-mother, where he continued to live and pursue his favourite studies for nearly forty years, sharing with her household his small revenue. Although the good woman loved him as a son, so little did she encourage his exclusive devotion to science, that when he spoke of his discoveries or writings, she replied with a sort of pity: 'You will never be anything but a philosopher; and what is a philosopher, but a fool who torments himself during his life, that people may talk about him when he is dead.' At first, his friends urged him to qualify himself for some profitable career; but after trying for a time the study of law, and then of medicine, he gave up the attempt as hopeless, and abandoned himself without reserve to his passion for science. In 1741, at the age of 23, he was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences, having already attracted attention by several physico-mathematical tracts. Two years later appeared his *Treatise on Dynamics*, founded on a new and fertile principle which makes an epoch in mechanical philosophy. 'This principle consists,' says Condorcet, 'in establishing the equality, at every instant, between the changes which the motion of the body has undergone, and the forces which have been employed to produce them;' in other words, it reduces all the laws of motion to the consideration of Equilibrium. Among the more important of his other scientific works are: his *Theory of the Winds*, which gained the prize of the Academy of Berlin, 1746, and which contains the first conception and use of the Calculus of Partial Differences; a treatise on the *Precession of the Equinoxes*, 1749, giving for the first time an analytical solution of that phenomenon, as well as of the nutation of the earth's axis; *Essay on the Resistance of Fluids*, 1752; *Researches on some Important Points in the System of the Universe*, 1754 and 1756. His *Mathematical Opuscules* contain an immense number of memoirs, some on new subjects, some containing developments of his previous works.

But A. did not confine himself to physical science. Diderot (q. v.) having conceived the idea of the famous *Encyclopédie*, enlisted the services of A., who wrote the *Preliminary Discourse*, which is allowed by all to be a noble tribute to literature and philosophy—a model of lucid and eloquent exposition, and displaying an immense extent of knowledge combined with rare judgment. Besides numerous articles in the *Encyclopédie*, he published *Elements of Philosophy*, 1759; *Mélanges of Literature and Philosophy*; *The Destruction of the Jesuits*, &c. He also wrote a great many *éloges* of members of the Academy of Sciences, of which he was elected secretary in 1772. His literary works have been published in a collected form, new edition, by Bossange (Paris, 1821, 5 vols. 8vo). This edition contains the correspondence of A. with Voltaire and the king of Prussia. His scientific works have never been collected.

A. gave striking proof of how little he regarded riches and distinctions, or the flatteries of the great, and how genuine was his love of independence. Frederick II. of Prussia offered him the presidency of the Academy of Berlin, 1752, but he declined to leave France, and only accepted a subsequent offer of a pension of 1200 francs. The king of France granted him a similar sum. In 1762, Catharine II. of Russia invited him, through her ambassador, to undertake the education of her son, with a salary of 100,000 francs; and when he declined, she wrote him a letter with her own hand, urging that to refuse to contribute to the education of a whole nation was inconsistent with his own principles; and inviting him, if he could not reconcile himself to the breaking-off of his pursuits and friendships, to bring all his friends with him, and she would provide both for them and for him everything they could desire. But A. remained steadfast. When the Grand Duke afterwards visited Paris, he good-humouredly reproached A. with his refusal; and to the excuse of the rigour of the climate and feeble health, the prince replied, with the compliment: 'In truth, monsieur, it is the only false calculation you have made in your life.' A. was never married. He was tenderly attached for many years to a Mademoiselle Espinasse, although their intimacy, it is believed, never went beyond a warm friendship. The death of the lady was a severe blow to A. His own health began to give way; for he was suffering from the stone, and would not consent to an operation. He died, October 29, 1783.

A. was truthful, frank, and extremely benevolent. He held it as a principle of morals that a man has no right to dispose at will of his own superfluous means while there are others in want of the necessaries of life. A stigma has attached to the name of A. from his intimate association with Voltaire and other assailants of Christianity; but A. never attacked religion in his published writings, which might be read without knowing what his opinions regarding revelation were. It is only from his private correspondence that it appears that he thought the probabilities were in favour of theism.

ALE'MBIC (formed by the Arabs from their article *al* and Gr. *ambix*, a goblet), is a form of still introduced into chemistry by the alchemists, and used by the more ancient experimenters in manipulative chemistry for the distillation and sublimation of substances, such as alcohol, or formic acid obtained by heating a decoction of red ants in water. The vessel consisted of a *body*, *cucurbit* or *matrass* (A), in which the material to be volatilised was placed; a *head* or *capital* (B) into which the vapours rose, were cooled, and then trickled down to the lower part (C), from whence by a *pipe* (D) the distilled product passed into the *receiver* (E). Where very volatile liquids were being distilled, it was customary to introduce the receiver (E) into a vessel with cold water, so as to increase the perfectness

Alembic.

of the condensing part of the arrangement. The A. has now been entirely superseded by the retort and receiver, or by the flask attached to a Liebig's condenser. See RETORT.

ALEMTE'JO, a large province of Portugal, containing (1868) 332,237 inhabitants, is the second most southerly province of the country. It is partly washed by the Atlantic on the west, and stretches to the Spanish frontier on the east. It is traversed by a number of mountain-chains, and is watered by the Tagus, Guadiana, and Sasalo or Sado. In the south

and west, the climate is hot and dry; the plains are covered with brown heath, unrelieved by a tree or a shrub, and only broken at intervals by marshy wastes, while the vegetation is extremely scanty. In the east, on the contrary, the valleys are fertile, and the mountains adorned with forests. The productions are singularly abundant. They consist of wheat, barley, rice, maize, the vine, and a variety of choice fruits—such as the citron, the lemon, the fig, the pomegranate. In the valleys, the principal trees are the oak with edible fruits, the evergreen-oak, the cork-oak, the chestnut, and the pine; in the plains, we find lavender, rosemary, juniper, the myrtle. The pasturage, also, is extraordinarily fine. Great attention is paid to the rearing of swine, goats, and sheep, and in a less degree, of horned cattle, asses, and mules. As the population is sparse, more grain is produced than is consumed; but manufactures are in a backward condition. Even mining, which might be very profitably carried on, is neglected. The chief towns are Evora (the capital), Elvas, Portalegre, Beja, Estremos, and Mertola.

ALENÇON, chief town of the department of Orne, in France, is situated on the Sarthe, in lat. 48° 25′ N., and long. 0° 5½′ E. The town-church—a structure of the 16th c., containing the remains of the tombs of the A. family, which were almost completely destroyed at the Revolution—is built in the Gothic style. It has a fine porch and exquisitely painted windows. A. is a clean and handsome town, with good streets and a delightful public walk. The inhabitants produce excellent woollen and linen stuffs, embroidered fabrics, straw-hats, lace-work, artificial flowers, hosiery, &c. The manufacture of A. point-lace (*points d'A.*), although still important, is not carried on to the same extent as formerly. The cutting of the so-called A. diamonds (quartz-crystals), found in the vicinity of the town, is a branch of industry which has also greatly declined. Pop. (1872) 13,434.

The old DUKES OF A. were a branch of the royal family of Valois, and were descended from Charles of Valois, who perished at the battle of Crecy in 1346. His grandson, John I., fell at Agincourt in 1415. His successor, John II., allying himself with the enemies of the court, was twice condemned to death, but pardoned both times. René, son of John II., also excited, not without cause, the suspicion of the French monarch, Louis XI., who confined him for three months in an iron cage at Chinon; but as the parliament had never condemned him, he was released at the death of Louis, and restored by Charles VIII. to his title and estate. René's son, who had married the sister of Francis I., was general of the advance-guard of the French army in the Netherlands. He commanded the left wing at the battle of Pavia, where, instead of supporting the king at a critical moment, he fled with his troops; and to him, therefore, has been attributed both the disastrous defeat sustained by the French, and his sovereign's falling into the hands of the enemy. With him expired the old House of A. The duchy was then given to the Duke of Anjou. Louis XIV. conferred it upon the Duke of Berri, and Louis XVI. on the Count of Provence.

ALEPPO, a town in the north of Syria, between the Orontes and the Euphrates, on the banks of the little desert stream, Nahr-el-Haleb, at the north-west entrance of the great Syro-Arabian waste. It stands in a large hollow, surrounded by rocky hills of limestone. The fruitful gardens, celebrated for their excellent plantations of pistachios, are the sole contrast to the desolation which environs the city, whose numberless cupolas and minarets, clean, well-paved streets, and stately houses, make it even yet one of the most beautiful in the east. It is a telegraph station in connection with Damascus, and with Diarbekir, on the Indo-European line, and contained, in 1873, 100,000 inhabitants. Formerly, it supplied a great part of the east with fabrics of silk, cotton, and wool, and gold and silver stuffs; but in 1822 an earthquake swallowed up two-thirds of the inhabitants, and transformed the citadel into a heap of ruins. The plague of 1827, the cholera of 1832, and the oppression of the Egyptian government, all but completed its destruction. During the sway of the last, however, a new citadel and some other edifices were erected; but scarcely half of the mosques and baths have been rebuilt. The aqueduct is the oldest monument of the town. A. is one of the principal emporiums of the inland commerce of Asia. Its port is Iskanderoon (q. v.), situated 60 miles to the N.E., on the bay of the same name. A. has a large trade in cotton and silk goods, skins, tobacco, wine, oil, &c. It was once the centre of Saracenic power, still retains much of the Arabic character, and its citizens are famed throughout the east for their elegant manners.

ALESIA, a town of ancient Gaul, the siege and capture of which form one of Cæsar's greatest exploits. The Gauls were making a last effort to shake off the Roman yoke; and Vercingetorix, their bravest leader, after several defeats, had shut himself up with 80,000 men in A., there to await the reinforcements which he expected from a general insurrection of the country. The town was situated on a lofty hill, and well calculated for defence. Cæsar, with his army of 60,000 men, completely surrounded the place, with the view of starving it into a surrender. He fortified his position by two lines of rampart of prodigious extent and strength; one towards the town, for defence against the sallies of the besieged; the other towards the plain, against the expected armies of relief. Before they could assemble, 250,000 strong, he was ready for them; and all their assaults, combined with the desperate efforts of the besieged, were of no avail. A. was obliged to surrender, and Vercingetorix was made prisoner. A. was afterwards a place of some note under the empire, but was destroyed by the Normans in 864. Near the site of the ancient A., west from Dijon, stands the modern village of Alise or Sainte-Reine.

ALESSANDRIA, the principal fortress and town of the province of the same name in the north of Italy, is situated in a marshy country near the confluence of the Bormida and Tanaro. It was built in 1168 by the inhabitants of Cremona, Milan, and Placentia, as a bulwark against the emperor Frederick I. Its original name was Cæsarea, but it was afterwards called A. in honour of Pope Alexander III., who established a bishopric in it. Designed at first as a fortress to guard the passage of the Bormida and Tanaro, and being the central point of intercourse between Genoa, Milan, and Turin, the town has frequently been the object of sanguinary strife. It was taken and plundered in 1522 by Duke Sforza; besieged, but without success, by the French, under the Prince of Conti, in 1657; and again taken, in spite of an obstinate resistance, by Prince Eugene in 1707. After the prostration of Austria at the battle of Marengo in 1800, Bonaparte concluded an armistice at A. with his enemies, according to which, Upper Italy, as far as the Mincio, was ceded to the French, with twelve fortresses. It was the principal armory of the Piedmontese during the insurrection of the Lombardo-Venetian states in 1848—9, when many new fortifications were added to it. At present, the citadel is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe;

of enormous size, larger, it is said, than many a town, and in the event of a war in Italy, the whole surrounding country can be inundated by means of the sluices of the Tanaro. A. contains, exclusive of the garrison, (1872) 57,079 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable trade in linens, woollens, silk fabrics, stockings, hats, &c. The culture of flowers is also much attended to. Two fairs are held in A. annually, which are largely frequented.

ALEUTIAN ISLANDS, or the CATHERINE ARCHIPELAGO, is the name of a group of islands, numbering above 150, and consisting of several clusters, most of which belong to the United States, and form an insular continuation of the North American peninsula of Alaska, in the shape of an arch or bridge between the former continent and Asia. They lie in 55° N. lat., separating the Sea of Kamtchatka from the Pacific, and naturally subdivide themselves into five groups: 1. Behring's Islands (where Behring died in 1741); 2. the Sasignan, or 'Nearest' Islands, so called because nearest to the coast of Kamtchatka; 3. the Rat Islands; 4. the Andreianowsky, which are very small and little frequented; 5. the Fox Islands, among which is Unimak, the largest in the archipelago. The islands are all craggy, and have a desolate appearance from the sea. They exhibit traces of violent internal commotion. Several volcanoes are still periodically active; and warm volcanic springs are numerous. The whole chain or group forms a connecting-link between the volcanic range of the west coast of America and Kamtchatka. On account of the numerous rocks which lie off their shores, they are not very accessible to ships. Under a climate which exchanges only for a short time the monotonous rigour of winter for a cloudy spring and a hot summer, little can be expected of so niggardly a soil. There are plenty of low scrubby bushes, grasses, moss, and lichens, but no strong and stately growth of trees. An experiment tried at Unalaska of planting pines had very little success. Here and there, however, European kitchen-gardens have been attempted with better results; and the cultivation of the potato has likewise succeeded. The islands abound in springs, and are overrun with foxes, dogs, and reindeer, while the coasts swarm with fish, seals, and otters. The inhabitants, who are extremely rude, and of Kamtchatkan origin, were converted to Christianity by Russian priests. They are reckoned about 9000. Their occupation is hunting and fishing. Their trade is chiefly in furs and fish, of which the principal *entrepôt* is Alexandria, in the island of Rojak. (See UNITED STATES in Supp.)

ALEXANDER THE GREAT, son of Philip of Macedon and Olympias, daughter of Neoptolemus of Epirus, was born at Pella, 356 B.C. Endowed by nature with a happy genius, he early announced his great character. Philip's triumphs saddened him. On one occasion he exclaimed: 'My father will leave nothing for me to do.' His education was committed first to Leonidas, a maternal relation, then to Lysimachus, and afterwards to Aristotle. This great philosopher withdrew him to a distance from the court, and instructed him in every branch of human learning, especially in what relates to the art of government, while at the same time he disciplined and invigorated his body by gymnastic exercises. As Macedon was surrounded by dangerous neighbours, Aristotle was anxious to inspire his pupil with military ardour, and with this view recommended him to study the *Iliad*, a revision of which he himself undertook for his use. A. was 16 years of age when his father marched against Byzantium, and left the government in his hands during his absence. Two years afterwards, he displayed singular courage at the battle of Chæronea (338 B.C.), where he overthrew the Sacred Band of the Thebans. 'My son,' said Philip, as he embraced him after the conflict, 'seek for thyself another kingdom, for that which I leave is too small for thee.' The father and son quarrelled, however, when the former repudiated Olympias. A. took part with his mother, and fled, to escape his father's vengeance, to Epirus; but receiving his pardon soon afterwards, he returned, and accompanied him in an expedition against the Triballi, when he saved his life on the field. Philip being appointed generalissimo of the Greeks, was preparing for a war with Persia, when he was assassinated (336 B.C.), and A., not yet twenty years of age, ascended the throne. After punishing his father's murderers, he went into the Peloponnesus, and in a general assembly of the Greeks he caused himself to be appointed to the command of the forces against Persia. On his return to Macedon, he found the Illyrians and Triballi up in arms, whereupon he marched against them, forced his way through Thrace, and was everywhere victorious. But now the Thebans had been induced, by a report of his death, to take up arms, and the Athenians, stimulated by the eloquence of Demosthenes, were preparing to join them. To prevent this coalition, A. rapidly marched against Thebes, which, refusing to surrender, was conquered, and razed to the ground: 6000 of the inhabitants were slain, and 30,000 sold into slavery; the house and family of the poet Pindar alone being spared. This severity struck terror into all Greece. The Athenians were treated with more leniency, A. only requiring of them the banishment of Charidemus, who had been most bitter in his invectives against him.

A., having appointed Antipater his deputy in Europe, now prepared to prosecute the war with Persia. He crossed the Hellespont in the spring of 334 B.C., with 30,000 foot and 5000 horse, attacked the Persian satraps at the river Granicus, and gained a complete victory, overthrowing the son-in-law of Darius with his own lance. The only real resistance the Macedonians met with was from the Greek auxiliaries of the Persians, who were marshalled in phalanxes, under the command of Memnon of Rhodes, but finally they were all slain except 2000, who were taken prisoners. A. celebrated the obsequies of his fallen warriors in a splendid manner, and bestowed many privileges on their relations. Most of the cities of Asia Minor, Sardis not excepted, opened their gates to the conqueror, nor did Miletus or Halicarnassus offer longer resistance. A. restored democracy in all the Greek cities, cut the Gordian-knot (q. v.) with his sword as he passed through Gordium, and proceeded to the conquest of Lycia, Ionia, Caria, Pamphylia, and Cappadocia. His career was checked for a time by a dangerous illness, brought on by bathing in the Cydnus. On this occasion he displayed his magnanimity in the following circumstances. He received a letter from Parmenio, insinuating that Philip, his physician, intended to poison him, having been bribed by Darius. A. handed the letter to Philip, and at the same time swallowed the draught which had been prepared for him. As soon as he recovered, he advanced towards the defiles of Cilicia, in which Darius had stationed himself, with an army of above 500,000 men. He arrived in November 333 B.C. in the neighbourhood of Issus, where a battle took place, between the mountains and the sea. The disorderly masses of the Persians were thrown into confusion by the charge of the Macedonians, and fled in terror. On the left wing, 30,000 Greeks, in the pay of the Persian king, held out longer, but they, too, were at length compelled to yield. All the treasures as well as the family of Darius fell into the hands of the conqueror, who treated the latter with the greatest

magnanimity. The king, who fled towards the Euphrates, twice made overtures of peace, which A. haughtily refused, saying that Darius must regard him as the ruler of Asia, and the lord of all his people. One of the conditions of the second overture was that A. should possess all Asia to the Euphrates. On hearing which his general, Parmenio, exclaimed: 'I would do it, if I were A.' 'So would I,' replied the monarch, 'if I were Parmenio.' The victory at Issus opened the whole country to the Macedonians. A. now turned towards Syria and Phœnicia, to cut off Darius's escape by sea. He occupied Damascus, where he found princely treasures, and secured to himself all the cities along the shores of the Mediterranean. Tyre, confident in its strong position, resisted him, but was conquered and destroyed, after seven months of incredible exertion (332 B.C.). Thence he marched victoriously through Palestine, where all the cities submitted to him except Gaza, which shared the same fate as Tyre. Egypt, weary of the Persian yoke, welcomed him as a deliverer; and in order to strengthen his dominion here, he restored all the old customs and religious institutions of the country, and founded Alexandria in the beginning of 331 B.C., which became one of the first cities of ancient times. Thence he marched through the Libyan Desert, in order to consult the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, whose priest saluted him as a son of Jove; and at the return of spring went against Darius, who had assembled an army in Assyria. A battle ensued, in October 331 B.C., on the plains of Arbela, or rather Gaugamela, for Arbela, the point to which A. pursued the Persians, is 50 miles from the scene of the fight. See ARBELA. Notwithstanding the immense superiority of his adversary, who had collected a new army of 500,000 men, A. was not for a moment doubtful of victory. Heading the cavalry himself, he rushed on the Persians, and put them to flight; but as soon as he had entirely dispersed them, he hastened to the assistance of his left wing, which, in the meanwhile, had been sorely pressed. He was anxious to make a prisoner of the Persian king himself, but the latter escaped by flight on horseback, leaving his baggage and all his treasures a prey to the conqueror. Babylon and Susa, the storehouses of the treasures of the east, opened their gates to the conqueror, who next marched towards Persepolis, the capital of Persia, which he entered in triumph.

The marvellous successes of A. now began to dazzle his own judgment, and to inflame his passions. He became a slave to debauchery, and his caprices were as cruel as they were ungrateful. In a fit of drunkenness, and at the instigation of Thais, an Athenian courtezan, he set fire to Persepolis, the wonder of the world, and reduced it to a heap of ashes; then, ashamed of the deed, he set out with his cavalry to pursue Darius. Learning that Bessus, the satrap of Bactriana, held the king a prisoner, he hastened his march, in the hope of saving him, but he found him mortally wounded on the frontiers of that country (330 B.C.). He mourned over his unfortunate enemy, and caused his body to be buried with all the usual rites observed in Persia; but he pursued Bessus, who himself aspired to the throne, through Hyrcania, Iran, Bactriana, over the Oxus to Sogdiana (now Bokhara), whose satrap, Spitamenes, surrendered Bessus to him. Having discovered a conspiracy in which the son of Parmenio was implicated, he put both father and son to death, though Parmenio himself was innocent of all knowledge of the affair. This cruel injustice excited universal displeasure. In 329 he penetrated to the furthest known limits of Northern Asia, and overthrew the Scythians on the banks of the Jaxartes. In the following year, he subdued the whole of Sogdiana, and married Roxana, whom he had taken prisoner. She was the daughter of Oxyartes, one of the enemy's captains, and was said to be the handsomest of the virgins of Asia. A new conspiracy broke out against A., at the head of which were Hermolaus and Callisthenes, a pupil of Aristotle, which occasioned the death of many of the culprits; while Callisthenes himself was mutilated, and carried about in an iron cage through the army, till some one put an end to his sufferings by poison.

In the year 327 B.C., A. proceeded to the conquest of India, then known only by name. He crossed the Indus near to the modern Attock, and pursued his way under the guidance of a native prince to the Hydaspes (modern Jelum), where he was opposed by Porus, another native prince, whom he overthrew after a bloody contest. Thence he marched as lord of the country through that part of India which is now called the Punjab, establishing Greek colonies. He then wished to advance to the Ganges, but the general murmuring of his troops obliged him, at the Hyphasis (modern Sutledge), to commence his retreat, which was accomplished under circumstances of extreme danger. When he had again reached the Hydaspes, he built a fleet, and sent one division of his army in it down the river, while the other followed along the banks, fighting its way through successive Indian armies. At length, having reached the ocean, he ordered Nearchus, the commander of the fleet, to sail thence to the Persian Gulf, while he himself struck inland with one division of his army, in order to return home through Gedrosia (now Beloochistan). Here he had to traverse immense deserts, where a great part of his army perished for want of food and water, and were buried in the sand. The other division marched through Arachosia and Drangiana (Afghanistan) under Craterus, but they united again in Carmania. Of all the troops, however, which had set out with A., only about a fourth part arrived with him in Persia (325 B.C.). At Susa he married Stateira, the daughter of Darius, and he bestowed presents on those Macedonians (about 10,000 in number) who had married Persian women, his design being to unite the two nations as closely as possible. He also distributed liberal rewards among his soldiers. At Opis on the Tigris he declared it to be his intention to send home the invalids richly rewarded; and this he accomplished, but not till he had with some difficulty repressed the mutiny which broke out on the occasion. Soon afterwards he was deprived, by death, of his favourite Hephæstion, on which occasion his grief was unbounded, and he interred the deceased with kingly honours. As he was returning from Ecbatana to Babylon, it is said that the Magi foretold that the latter city would prove fatal to him; but A. despised their warnings, and, in spite of the advice of his friends, marched to Babylon, before reaching which, however, he was met by ambassadors from all parts of the world. Libya, Italy, Carthage, Greece, the Scythians, Celts, and Iberians. Here he again occupied himself with gigantic plans for the future, both of conquest and civilisation, when he was suddenly taken ill after a banquet, and died eleven days afterwards, on the 11th or 13th of May or June, 323 B.C., in the 32d year of his age, having reigned twelve years and eight months. His body was deposited in a golden coffin at Alexandria, by Ptolemæus, and divine honours were paid to him, not only in Egypt, but in other countries. A. had appointed no heir to his immense dominions; but to the question of his friends: 'Who should inherit them?' he replied: 'The most worthy.' After many disturbances, his generals recognised as kings the weak-minded Aridæus a son of Philip by Philinna, the dancer – and A.'s posthumous son by Roxana, while they

shared the provinces among themselves, under the name of satraps. Perdiccas, to whom A. had, on his death-bed, delivered his ring, became guardian of the kings during their minority.

It is but right to observe that A. did something more than shed blood during his life. He diffused the language and civilisation of Greece wherever victory led him, and planted Greek kingdoms in Asia, which continued to exist for some centuries. At the very time of his death, he was engaged in devising plans for the drainage of the unhealthy marshes around Babylon, and a better irrigation of the extensive plains. It is even supposed that the fever which he caught there, rather than his famous drinking-bout, was the real cause of his death. To A., the ancient world owed a vast increase of its knowledge in geography, natural history, &c. He taught Europeans the road to India, and gave them the first glimpses of that magnificence and splendour which has dazzled and captivated their imagination for two thousand years.

ALEXANDER SEVĒRUS, a Roman emperor (222—235 A.D.), was the cousin, adopted son, and successor of Heliogabalus. The excellent education which he received from his mother, Julia Mammæa, rendered him one of the best princes in an age when virtue was reckoned more dangerous than vice in a monarch. He sought the society of the learned; Paulus and Ulpian were his counsellors, Plato and Cicero were, next to Horace and Virgil, his favourite authors. Although a pagan, he reverenced the doctrines of Christianity, and often quoted that saying: 'Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye so also to them.' Beloved as he was by the citizens on account of his equity, he soon became an object of hatred to the unruly prætorian guards. His first expedition, against Artaxerxes, king of Persia, was happily terminated by a speedy overthrow of the enemy. But during one which he undertook against the Germans on the Rhine, to defend the frontiers of the empire from their incursions, an insurrection broke out among his troops, headed by Maximin, in which Alexander was murdered, along with his mother, not far from Mentz. The grateful people, however, placed him among the gods. After his death, military despotism obtained the ascendency, and the Roman power rapidly declined.

ALEXANDER NEWSKI, or NEVSKI, a Russian hero and saint, born at Vladimir in 1219 A.D., was the son of the Grand Duke Jaroslav, of Novgorod. In order to defend the empire, which was attacked on all sides, but especially by the Mongols, his father quitted Novgorod, leaving the cares of the government to his sons, Fedor and Alexander, the former of whom died soon afterwards. The latter vigorously resisted the enemy; yet Russia was forced to submit to the Mongol dominion in 1238 A.D. A. now fought to defend the western frontier against the Danes, the Swedes, and the Teutonic knights. He received the surname of Newski, on account of the splendid victory over the Swedes, which he achieved in 1240, on the Newa (Neva), in the province where St Petersburg now stands. In 1243 A.D., on the ice of Lake Peipus, he defeated the Livonian Knights of the Sword, who had been stimulated by the pope to attack the Russian heretics. At the death of his father in 1247, he became Grand Duke of Vladimir. Pope Innocent IV. now made a diplomatic attempt to reunite the Greek and Roman churches, since his military scheme had failed, and with this view, sent an embassy to A., which, however, proved as ineffectual as the former. To the end of his life, however, he remained a vassal of the Tatars or Mongols. Thrice had he to renew his oath of fealty to the Asiatic barbarians, making in each instance a journey to their camp. He died in 1263 A.D., at Kassimcow, on his return from the last of these journeys; and the gratitude of the nation perpetuated his memory in popular songs, and even canonised him. Peter the Great honoured his memory by building a magnificent convent on the spot where A. had fought his great battle, and by founding the knightly order of A. N.

ALEXA'NDER VI. (Borgia), 1492—1503, the most celebrated of the eight popes (see Popes) of this name, but at the same time the most infamous one that ever lived, as well as the most vicious prince of his age. His most conspicuous qualities were a cunning and insidious cruelty, united with great fearlessness in danger, an unwearied perseverance and vigilance in all his undertakings, a soft and plausible manner towards his inferiors, a harsh and grasping spirit towards the rich. In spite of his talents and his love of art and science, he disdained, throughout his dissolute career, no means of gratifying his lust—not even perjury, murder, and poisoning. He was born at Valencia, in Spain, 1430. His own name was Rodrigo Lenzuoli, but he assumed the ancient and famous one of his mother's family, Borgia. He had five children by Rosa Vanozza, a woman celebrated for her beauty, two of whom equalled himself in criminality, Cæsar and Lucretia (see Borgia). A. was made a cardinal by his uncle Calixtus III., and on the death of Innocent VIII., was elevated to the papal chair, which he had previously secured by flagrant bribery. The long absence of the popes from Italy had weakened their authority and curtailed their revenues. To compensate for this loss, A. endeavoured to break the power of the Italian princes, and to appropriate their possessions for the benefit of his own family. To gain this end, he employed the most execrable means. He died in 1503, from having partaken, by accident, as is commonly believed, of poisoned wine, intended for his guests. Under his pontificate, the censorship of books was introduced, and Savonarola, the earnest and eloquent Florentine priest, who had advocated his deposition, was condemned to be burned as a heretic.

ALEXANDER I., Paulowitsch, Emperor and Autocrat of All the Russias (1801—1825), was born December 23, 1777. His education, in which his father, Paul I., had no hand, was conducted by his grandmother, Catharine II., and Colonel Laharpe and other tutors. He always shewed great affection for his mother, Maria, daughter of Eugene, Duke of Würtemberg. With a humane and benevolent disposition, the 'northern Telemaque' was imbued by Laharpe with the enlightened principles of the age. Professor Kraft instructed him in experimental physics, and Pallas in botany. It was thought better not to devote his attention to poetry and music, as it would have required too much time to make any great acquirements. In 1793 he married Elizabeth, daughter of Karl Ludwig, Crown Prince of Baden, and, on the assassination of his father Paul (q. v.), on the 24th of March 1801, succeeded him upon the throne. Although A. doubtless knew of the conspiracy to dethrone his father, there is no reason to believe that he contemplated the crime of murder. His accession was celebrated by Klopstock in an ode, *To Humanity*, indicative of the high expectations formed of him. The young ruler seemed deeply penetrated with a sense of his obligation to make his people happy and to promote their civil station and prosperity. He was the first to lay the foundation of the national culture and popular instruction on a regular plan, to introduce

organisation into the internal administration, unshackle the industry of the nation, raise the foreign commerce of Russia, and awaken in the people a feeling of unity, and a spirit of patriotism.

Of specific internal improvements effected by A., his exertions on behalf of the language, literature, and general culture of the Slavonic nations deserve special notice. Seven universities, at Dorpat, Kasan, Charkow, Moscow, Wilna, Warsaw, and St Petersburg, were either instituted or remodelled by him; 204 gymnasiums and normal schools, and above 2000 district elementary schools, were erected; and fresh life and activity given to the higher scientific institutions in St Petersburg and Moscow. He did more than any other sovereign in Europe for the spread of the Bible, by supporting the Bible Society (which was suppressed, however, in 1826); and in 1820, he had a bishop instituted for the evangelical Lutheran church, and a general consistory in St Petersburg for the whole empire. He devoted large sums to the printing of important works, such as Krusenstern's *Travels*, and Karamsin's *History of Russia*, and prized and rewarded scientific merit both at home and abroad. Several scientific collections were purchased by him, and in 1818 he invited two orientalists, Demange and Charmoy, from Paris to St Petersburg, to promote the study of the Arabic, Armenian, Persian, and Turkish languages. Young men of talent were sent to travel at his expense. By the ukase of 1816 he prepared the way for the abolition of slavery in the Baltic provinces; he also declared that no more gifts of peasants would be made on the crown-lands. As early as 1801 he had abolished the secret tribunal which is said to have extorted confession from political offenders by means of hunger and thirst. The practice of slitting the nose and branding, which had been customary in connection with knouting, was also done away with. Laws were enacted to prevent the abuses of power by governors. The privilege of the nobles, that their inherited property could not be confiscated as a punishment, was raised by him to a common right for all subjects; and much was done in composing a code of civil law. He promoted the manufactures and trade of the empire by amending the laws regarding debt and mortgages; and by the institution of an imperial bank, the construction of roads and canals, making Odessa a free port, and, above all, by the ukase of 1818, permitting all peasants in the empire to carry on manufactures, which was before only allowed to nobles and to merchants of the first and second guilds.

A.'s far-sighted policy with regard to the foreign commerce of Russia is shewn in various expeditions round the world sent out by him; in the embassy to Persia in 1817, in which was the Frenchman Gradanne, who was acquainted with all the plans of Napoleon respecting India and Persia; in the missions to Cochin China and to Khiva; in the treaties with the United States, Brazil, and Spain; in the naval and commercial treaties with the Porte; and in the settlement on the north-west coast of America.

A.'s foreign policy was characterised at the outset by a desire for peace; in 1801 he concluded a convention, putting an end to hostilities with England, and made peace with France and Spain. He next entered, along with France, into negotiations respecting the indemnification of the minor states in Germany and Italy, but soon discovered how little the French ruler intended any real compensation. As Bonaparte encroached more and more, took possession of Hanover, and annihilated Holland, A. broke with France, and joined the coalition of 1805. He was present at the battle of Austerlitz, when the allied armies of Austria and Russia were defeated, and retired with the remains of his forces into Russia, declining to enter into the treaty that followed. Next year, he came forward as the ally of Prussia; but after the disastrous battles of Eylau and Friedland, in 1807, he was obliged to conclude the peace of Tilsit, in which he managed to prevent the restoration of the kingdom of Poland, and to mitigate the hard fate of the king of Prussia. During the war with France, A. had also had to carry on hostilities with Persia and with Turkey.

Dazzled by the fortune and genius of Napoleon, A., in pursuance of the stipulations of Tilsit, acceded with his huge empire to the French continental system, thus altering entirely the foreign policy of Russia. He began by declaring war on England in 1808, and attacking her ally Sweden, wrested from that country, by the peace of Friedrichshamm (1809), the province of Finland. On the other hand, the Russian fleet sent to the aid of the French at Lisbon, fell into the hands of the British. In the autumn of 1808, the two great potentates held a meeting at Erfurt, attended with great splendour, at which A. represented, as it were, the empire of the east of Europe, while Napoleon assumed the dominion of the west. In the war of France against Austria in 1809, A. took only a lukewarm part, although at the peace of Vienna he received the circle of Tarnopol as his share of the spoil of Galicia. Against the Porte, which had not observed the armistice of Slobosta, he renewed the war, which was continued till the peace of Bucharest in 1812.

The alliance, however, of A. with the Corsican conqueror involved such an inconsistency, and was so contrary to the real interests of Russia, that a rupture and a complete change of the Russian policy were inevitable. The pressure of the continental system on the material resources of Russia, the despotic changes made by Napoleon, the augmentation of the duchy of Warsaw, the proffers of alliance by England and Sweden, awoke in A. first discontent and aversion, and soon the thought of a decisive contest against the subjugator of Europe and the disturber of the peace of the world. When this gigantic struggle at last began (1812), Russia brought into the field an army of nearly 900,000 men. During this war (see RUSSO-GERMAN WAR), A. repeatedly exposed himself to personal danger, in order to fire the courage and patriotism of his troops. His magnanimity towards France after the taking of Paris facilitated the negotiations for peace, and won for him great personal regard, amounting to a kind of enthusiasm. He was received with the same feeling in London, which he visited after the treaty of Paris in June 1814. When he returned to St Petersburg, his first care was to provide for the wounded, and for the families of the soldiers that had fallen. The senate wished to give him the title of 'Blessed,' which, from Christian humility, he declined. After a short residence in his own capital, he repaired to the Congress of Vienna. Here he laid claim to Poland as essential to the interests of Russia, but promised to confer on it a constitution, and, on the whole, appeared to act for the good of humanity and the freedom of nations.

In the return of Napoleon, A. saw the confusion of Europe begun again, and therefore urged the fulfilment of the treaty of Chaumont and the outlawry of the common enemy. His appearance in the French capital after the battle of Waterloo raised less enthusiasm than previously; yet on this occasion, too, France owed much to his generosity. It was about this time that the tendency of A. to pietism, fostered by intercourse with Madame Krüdener (q. v.), was most strongly manifested, and exercised decided influence on his political views. It was under the influence of this religiosity

that he founded the Holy Alliance (q. v.), the ostensible object of which was to make the principles of Christianity be recognised in the political arrangements of the world, but which became, in fact, a mere handle for political reaction.

In the end of October 1815, A. returned to his own dominions. His policy, and the march of events, had completely changed the internal condition of Russia and her foreign relations. Her weight in European politics had become powerful; the limits of the empire had extended in all directions; and notwithstanding the war, the earlier legislative reforms had begun to act favourably on the industry and well-being of the nation. After 1805, A. had remodelled the army after the fashion of the western powers, and raised it to a condition that menaced Europe. When peace was attained, he not only sought to heal the wounds inflicted by the war, but to carry forward the work of reform formerly begun. Numerous administrative abuses were done away with, and the condition of the peasants was more and more alleviated. In 1816, the Jesuits, who were causing a great deal of disturbance, were made to leave St Petersburg and Moscow, and in 1820 were sent out of the empire. On the other hand, proselytism was rigidly prohibited, and the Duchoborzes, a sect of the Russo-Greek church, were allowed the free exercise of worship.

But however good A.'s intentions might be, his internal policy met with obstructions, partly arising from his personal views and character, partly from the nature of his position. Affected with a morbid religiosity, worn out and shaken perhaps in body and mind by the vast events in the vortex of which he had moved for the last ten years, the emperor became possessed by the dread of another European revolution; and the political struggles against reaction in Germany, and the outbreaks against despotism in Italy and Spain, appeared to him as the beginning of a new and terrible catastrophe. The attention now bestowed by A. on foreign relations threw internal improvements into the background; and the liberal reformer and pupil of Laharpe found himself involved in hopeless inconsistency, when he fully concurred in the policy of the Austrian cabinet, and, at the congresses of Troppau, Laybach, and Verona, helped to crush, along with the insurrections, the just requirements and political progress of the nations.

This complete reversal of policy could not fail to produce fruits, especially as Russia peculiarly abounded in fermentable materials. Poland saw itself completely disappointed in its national expectations, and required the actual carrying out of the promised constitution. The contact into which the Russians had come during the war with the civilisation and institutions of the western nations, had excited in different classes of Russian society wishes and views by no means compatible with their condition at home. On the other hand, there had long existed in the most influential circles an Old-Russian party, who either found their interests hurt by the enlightened measures of the emperor, or saw in them the downfall of the national church, and of the nation itself. Besides, the army was kept up on the war-footing, and in 1821 numbered about 830,000 regular troops; and this pressed severely on the people, and produced discontent, along with exhaustion and disorder of the finances. To meet this evil, A. began the planting of military colonies, which, however, met with insuperable obstacles in the execution, and did not attain the end in view. But to exorcise the spirit of political discontent and the phantom of a Russian revolution, the emperor adopted the same measures that were very generally applied over the rest of Europe with similar views. The censorship of the press, and a rigid guard over the importation of books, were again introduced; restrictions were put on science, literature, and education; inquiries instituted into all democratic movements; mason-lodges and missionary societies suppressed; and gradually all plans for reform and progress given up. Over all the provinces of the empire, a net of police, open and secret, was spread, which interfered with the ordinary intercourse of society.

The experience that, in spite of this system of repression, public opinion could not be stifled, and that parties and individuals only expressed themselves more bitterly; the variance with his former self in which A. found himself involved; and the difficulties of governing the huge empire, which were now becoming more manifest and startling—all this tormented and imbittered his morbid mind, and led him to complain of ingratitude and of a want of recognition of his good intentions. Sometimes he sought to forget his position in the dissipations of a splendid court, in which luxury and piety were strangely blended; at other times, he plunged into the darkness of religious mysticism. The progress of the revolt in Greece brought the policy of the emperor into complete opposition to public opinion and the most sacred sympathies of the nation. The Russian people, restrained from all participation in political movements, were profoundly affected by the religious element of the Greek struggle; but the emperor condemned the rising as insurrection, disclaimed the favour he had formerly shewn to the Greek cause, and confined himself to exhortations to the Porte to act with humanity. The death of his only and much-loved natural daughter, the terrible inundation suffered by St Petersburg in 1824, in which he exposed himself to personal danger, and the alarm caused by a Russo-Polish conspiracy against all the members of the House of Romanow, contributed not a little to break the heart of the emperor, and completely destroy the composure of his mind. Sick in body, weary of life, and possessed by thoughts of death, he commenced, in September 1825, a journey to the Crimea, with a view to benefit the health of the empress, who was ailing, and that he himself might enjoy retirement. Leaving the empress at Taganrog, he continued his journey, but was suddenly seized by a fever peculiar to the country, and obliged to return to Taganrog. Here, in spite of all care, he became worse, and died, December 1, 1825. The rumour that he had been poisoned is altogether groundless. He is said to have learned, shortly before his death, the details of the conspiracy which his brother and successor, Nicholas I. (q. v.), had to begin his reign by putting down. Interesting notices of the life and character of A. are given in Choiseul-Gouffier's *Mémoires Historiques sur l'Empereur Alexandre et la Cour de Russie* (Par. 1829).

ALEXANDER II., Emperor of Russia, was born April 29, 1818. He was carefully educated by his father, Nicholas, who professed himself delighted with the manifestations of 'true Russian spirit' in his son. At sixteen, he was declared of age, made commandant of the Lancers of the Guard, Hetman of the Cossacks, first aide-de-camp of the emperor, and subjected daily to a life of manœuvring, reviewing, and military parade, which at last seriously injured his health. He then travelled through Germany to recruit his energies, and while there, concluded a marriage with the Princess Maria, daughter of the Grand Duke of Darmstadt, in 1841. He now vigorously applied himself to his duties as chancellor of the university of Finland. By his dexterous and subtle manners, he insinuated himself into the affections of the Finns, and weakened

their love of independence. He founded a chair of the Finnish language and literature, patronised the academy for the culture of Finnish literature, and defrayed the expenses of remote explorations undertaken by their *savans*, such as Cygnæus, Wallin, and Castren. In 1850, he visited Southern Russia, Nicolaieff, Sebastopol, Tiflis, Erivan, &c. It is said that he witnessed with regret the attitude which his father assumed towards Europe, and that he altogether disapproved of the Crimean war. On his accession to the throne, March 2, 1855, he found himself in a very critical position. He had two parties to conciliate at home—the old Muscovite party, blindly zealous for war, and the more peaceable and intelligent portion of the nation, who possessed his personal sympathies. He pursued a course calculated to encourage both; spoke of adhering to the policy of his 'illustrious ancestors,' and at the same time concluded peace. Since then, he has shewn a strong desire to purge the internal administration of its impurities; he has sharply rebuked the corruption of functionaries, and severely punished some, as a warning to the rest. An honourable recognition has been given to public instruction, which he has placed under his own superintendence. His moderation has even raised the hopes of the Poles. By a ukase of May 27, 1856, he granted to all Polish exiles who were willing to express repentance for the past, permission to return home; but though desirous of preserving the nationality of Poland, he will not have it separated from the 'great Russian family.' The grand achievement of his reign, however, as yet, is the emancipation of the serfs—23,000,000 souls—by a ukase of March 3, 1861. This marks an epoch in the national history. In 1865, A. established elective representative assemblies in the provinces. He carried on a war against the Ameer of Bokhara in 1866; and during the year 1873, a war against the khan of Khiva.

ALEXANDER I., king of Scotland, a younger son of Malcolm Ceannmor (big-head), succeeded his brother, Edgar, in 1107, and amidst incessant disturbances, governed Scotland for seventeen years with great ability. In addition to good natural powers, he had enjoyed, through his mother, Margaret of England, the advantages of a higher mental cultivation than any of his predecessors. One of the most formidable insurrections which his prompt energy enabled him to quell, was that excited in 1120 by Angus, great grandson of the wife of Macbeth; in allusion to which, old Wynton says:

> Fra that day forth his lieges all
> Used him Alexander the Fierce to call.

His determined resistance to the pretensions of the English hierarchy secured the independence of the Scottish church, while his liberal patronage of the monasteries promoted her strength at home. In 1123 he founded the Abbey of Inchcolm. He died at Stirling in 1124.

ALEXANDER II. was born in 1198; succeeded his father, William the Lion, in 1214. He early displayed that wisdom and strength of character, in virtue of which he holds so high a place in history among Scottish kings. The first act of his reign was to enter into a league with the English barons who had combined to resist the tyranny of King John. This drew down upon him and his kingdom the papal excommunication; but two years subsequently (1218), the ban was removed, and the liberties of the Scottish church were even confirmed. On the accession of Henry III. to the English throne, A. brought the feuds of the two nations to a temporary close by a treaty of peace (1217), in accordance with which he married Henry's eldest sister, the Princess Joan (1221). The alliance thus established was broken after the death, without issue, of Queen Joan (1238), and the second marriage of A. with the daughter of a nobleman of France. In 1244, Henry marched against Scotland, to compel A.'s homage. In this emergency, the Scottish king received the steady support of the barons, whose ordinary policy was opposition to the crown, and is said, in a short time, to have found himself at the head of 100,000 foot, and 1000 horse. A peace was concluded without an appeal to arms. While engaged in one of those warlike expeditions which the turbulence of his subjects so frequently rendered necessary, A. died of fever at Kerrera, a small island opposite Oban, on the west coast of Argyleshire, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign.

ALEXANDER III. succeeded his father, A. II., on the Scottish throne at the age of eight, and, two years later, in 1251, he married the Princess Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry III. of England. The tender age of the sovereign enabled Henry to prosecute successfully for some time his schemes for obtaining entire control over the Scottish kingdom; but long before he reached manhood, A. displayed so much energy and wisdom as to give assurance that when the administration of affairs should come under his personal direction, it would be vain to think of reducing him to submission. Very shortly after he had come of age, his energies were summoned to the defence of his kingdom against the formidable invasion of Haco, king of Norway (1263), who claimed the sovereignty of the Western Isles. In attempting a landing at Largs, on the coast of Ayr, the Norwegian prince sustained a total defeat; and A., as the result of this important victory, secured the allegiance both of the Hebrides and of the Isle of Man. The alliance between Scotland and Norway was strengthened in 1282 by the marriage of A.'s only daughter, Margaret, to Eric, king of Norway. This princess died in the following year, leaving an infant daughter, Margaret, commonly designated the Maiden of Norway, whose untimely death, on her way to take possession of her throne, was the occasion of so many calamities to Scotland. During the concluding years of A.'s reign, the kingdom enjoyed a peace and prosperity which it did not taste again for many generations. The justice, liberality, and wisdom of the king, endeared his memory to his subjects, while the misfortunes that followed his death, heightened the national sense of his loss. His only son, A., who had married the daughter of Guy, Count of Flanders, died without issue in 1284. A. contracted a second marriage in 1285 with Joleta, daughter of the Count de Dreux. The hopes of the nation were soon after clouded by his untimely death. Riding on a dark night between Burntisland and Kinghorn, he fell with his horse over a precipice, and was killed on the spot.

ALEXANDER OF HALES (in Latin, Alexander Halensis), a famous theologian, known as the 'Irrefragable Doctor' (d. 1245). He was originally an ecclesiastic in Gloucestershire, but had attended the schools of Paris, got the degree of doctor, and had become a noted professor of philosophy and theology there, when (1222) he suddenly entered the order of the Minorite Friars. From that time, he lived the life of a studious recluse. His chief and only authentic work is the *Summa Universæ Theologiæ* (best ed., Venice, 1576, 4 vols.), written at the command of Pope Innocent IV., and enjoined by his successor, Alexander IV., to be used by all professors and students of theology in Christendom. A. gave the doctrines of the church a more rigorously syllogistic form than they had previously had, and may thus be considered as the author of the scholastic

theology. Instead of appealing to tradition and authority, he deduces with great subtlety, from assumed premises, the most startling doctrines of Catholicism, especially in favour of the prerogatives of the papacy. He refuses any toleration to heretics, and would have them deprived of all property; he absolves subjects from all obligation to obey a prince that is not obedient to the church. The spiritual power, which blesses and consecrates kings, is, by that very fact, above all temporal powers, to say nothing of the essential dignity of its nature. It has the right to appoint and to judge these powers, while the pope has no judge but God. In ecclesiastical affairs, also, he maintains the pope's authority to be full, absolute, and superior to all laws and customs. The points on which A. exercises his dialectics are sometimes simply ludicrous; as when he discusses the question, whether a mouse that should nibble a consecrated wafer would thereby eat the body of Christ. He arrives at the conclusion that it would.

ALEXANDERS (*Smyrnium olusatrum*), a biennial plant of the natural order *Umbelliferæ* (q. v.), found in waste ground, near ruins, &c., in Britain and the south of Europe. The stem is 3—4 feet high, very stout and furrowed; the leaves twice or thrice ternate, stalked, serrate, of a bright yellowish-green colour; the leaflets very large. The flowers are yellowish-green, in very dense, numerous rounded umbels, destitute of involucres; the fruit almost black. The plant has an aromatic taste, strong and pungent, but becomes rather pleasant when blanched, and was formerly much cultivated and used in the same way as celery, although at present it is little regarded. The frequency of its occurrence near ruins in Britain, may probably be referred to its former cultivation. The fruit is carminative.—*S. perfoliatum*, a native of Italy, with the upper stem-leaves embracing the stem, is used in the same way.—The genus *Smyrnium* contains only a few known species, chiefly natives of the temperate parts of the northern hemisphere. It has compound umbels; is variable in the involucres; the calyx is obsolete; the petals inflected at the point; the fruit consists of two nearly globose carpels, each with three prominent sharp dorsal ribs; the lateral ones distant and obsolete; several vittæ in the interstices; the albumen involute.

ALEXA'NDRIA (called Skanderi'eh by the Turks and Arabs) was founded by Alexander the Great in the autumn of the year 332 B.C. It was situated originally on the low tract of land which separates the lake Marcotis from the Mediterranean, about 14 miles west of the Canopic mouth of the Nile. Before the city, in the Mediterranean, lay the island of Pharos, upon the north-east point of which stood the famous light-house (Pharos), and which was connected with the mainland by a mole, called, from its length, the Heptastadium, or 'Seven Furlong' mole, thus forming the two harbours. The plan of A. was designed by the architect Dinocrates, and its original extent is said to have been about 4 miles in length, with a circumference of 15 miles. It was intersected by two straight main streets, crossing each other at right angles in the middle of the city. Colonnades adorned the whole length of these streets, which were in general very regularly built. The most magnificent quarter of the city was that called the Bruchcium, which was situated on the eastern harbour. This quarter of the city contained the palaces of the Ptolemies, with the Museum and the old library; the Soma or mausoleum of Alexander the Great and of the Ptolemies, the Poseidonium, and the great theatre. Further west was the emporium or exchange. The Serapeion, or temple of Serapis, stood in the western division of the city, which formed the Egyptian quarter, and was called Rhacōtis; a small town of that name had occupied the site before the foundation of A. To the west of the city lay the great Necropolis, and to the east the race-course, beyond which was the suburb of Nicopolis. The greater part of the space under the houses was occupied by vaulted subterranean cisterns, which were capable of containing a sufficient quantity of water to supply the whole population of the city for a year. From the time of its foundation, A. was the Greek capital of Egypt. Its population, in the time of its prosperity, is said by Diodorus to have amounted to about 300,000 free citizens, and if we take into account the slaves and strangers, that number must be more than doubled. This population consisted mostly of Greeks, Jews, and Egyptians, together with settlers from all nations of the known world. After the death of Alexander the Great, A. became the residence of the Ptolemies. They made it, next to Rome and Antioch, the most magnificent city of antiquity, as well as the chief seat of Grecian learning and literature, which spread hence over the greater part of the ancient world. The situation of the city, at the point of junction between the east and west, rendered it the centre of the commerce of the world, and raised it to the highest degree of prosperity.

A. had reached its greatest splendour, when it came into the possession of the Romans, about 30 B.C. From this moment its prosperity began to decline—at first almost imperceptibly, but afterwards more rapidly, in consequence of the removal of the works of art to Rome, the massacres of Caracalla, the laying waste of the Bruchcium by Aurelian, the siege and pillage of the city by Diocletian, and, lastly, the rising prosperity of the rival city of Constantinople. All these causes combined to destroy A. so speedily, that, in the 4th c. no building of any importance was left in it except the temple of Serapis. The strife between Christianity and heathenism gave rise to bloody contests in A. The Serapeion, the last seat of heathen theology and learning, was stormed by the Christians in 389 A.D., and converted into a Christian church. This put an end to heathenism, and A. became henceforward a chief seat of Christian theology, and continued to be so till it was taken by the Arabs, under Amru, in June 638 A.D. This siege, and, still more, its conquest by the Turks in 868 A.D., completed the destruction of the city. It revived, indeed, in some degree under the Egyptian califs, and continued during the middle ages to be the most important emporium of trade between the east and west; but the discovery of America, and of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, very much diminished the trade of A.; and the dominion of the Mamalukes, and the conquest of the Osmanli, annihilated even the little which the Arabs had restored. The result was, that in 1778 A.D. A. contained no more than 6000 inhabitants. After the conquest of Egypt by the French in the end of the 18th c., A. once more began to revive, and under Mehemet Ali, who resided in it a part of every year, it prospered to such a degree, that it may now be reckoned one of the most important commercial places on the Mediterranean. As steam-navigation has increased, the city has assumed more and more a European aspect.

The present city is not situated exactly on the site of the old one, but is built on the mole called the Heptastadium, which has been increased by alluvial deposits till it has become a broad neck of land between the two harbours, of which the eastern is called the New Port, and the western the Old Port. A. is connected with Cairo by rail and by the canal of Mahmoudieh. Although originally,

like other oriental cities, dirty and ill-built, it is in this respect rapidly improving. In 1869, 2884 vessels of 1,263,144 tons, entered and cleared. In 1870, the population was 238,888—Arabians, Turks, Jews, Copts, Greeks, and Franks. Of the few remains of antiquity still to be seen in A., the most prominent is Pompey's Pillar, as it is erroneously called, the shaft of which, of red granite, is 73 feet long. According to the Greek inscription on the base, which is still legible, this Pillar was erected by the Egyptian prefect, Publius, in honour of the Emperor Diocletian. There are also the so-called Cleopatra's Needles, two obelisks of the time of King Thothmes III., who lived in the 16th c. before the Christian era. One of the Needles lies prostrate on the ground, half covered with sand; the other, a monolith, of about 72 feet in height, is still standing. The other antiquities of A. are, some catacombs of the ancient city of the dead, and some of the cisterns below the city, which are almost entirely filled up.

ALEXANDRIA, a port of entry on the right or Virginian bank of the Potomac, U. S., about 7 miles below Washington, on the opposite side of the river, lat. 38° 49′ N., long. 77° 4′ W. Though A. is fully 100 miles from the entrance of the Potomac into Chesapeake Bay, yet the stream in front of it, which forms its harbour, is still a mile wide. The place is accessible, all the way from the sea, to the largest vessels. In this commanding position with respect to the coast, A. has, since 1852, facilitated its communications with the interior, being connected by a branch-canal with the Chesapeake and Ohio, and by a branch-railway with the Virginia Central. A canal also connects A. with Georgetown, and railways have been opened to Gordonsville, on the Central Railroad, and to Washington. Owing to these combined advantages, the trade of the city is steadily increasing, while cotton manufactures also have been introduced on an extensive scale. Pop. in 1870, 13,570.

ALEXA'NDRIAN CODEX, an important manuscript of the sacred Scriptures in Greek, now in the British Museum. It is written on parchment, in finely formed uncial letters, and is without accents, marks of aspiration, or spaces between the words. Its probable date is the latter half of the 6th c. With the exception of a few gaps, it contains the whole Bible in Greek (the Old Testament being in the translation of the Septuagint), along with the epistles of Clemens Romanus. For purposes of biblical criticism, the text of the Epistles of the New Testament is the most valuable part; for with respect to the Gospels, it is clear that the original text which the copyist had before him must have been far inferior. This celebrated manuscript belonged, as early as 1098, to the library of the patriarch of Alexandria. In 1628 it was sent as a present to Charles I. of England by Cyrillus Lucaris, patriarch of Constantinople, who declared that he had got it from Egypt; and that it was written there appears from internal and external evidence. Grabe made this manuscript the foundation of his edition of the Septuagint (4 vols., Oxf. 1717–1720). Fac-similes have been published, of the New Testament, by Woide (Lond. 1786, fol.); of the Old Testament, by Baber (Lond. 1816, fol.).

ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY. This remarkable collection of books, the largest of the ancient world, was founded by Ptolemy Soter, in the city of Alexandria, in Egypt. Even in the time of its first manager, Demetrius Phalereus, a banished Athenian, the number of volumes or rolls already amounted to 50,000; and during its most flourishing period, under the direction of Zenodotus, Aristarchus of Byzantium, Apollonius Rhodius, and others, is said to have contained 400,000, or, according to another authority, 700,000. The greater part of this Library, which embraced the collected literature of Rome, Greece, India, and Egypt, was contained in the Museum, in the quarter of Alexandria called Brucheium. During the siege of Alexandria by Julius Cæsar, this part of the Library was destroyed by fire; but it was afterwards replaced by the collection of Pergamos, which was presented to Queen Cleopatra by Mark Antony, to the great annoyance of the educated Romans. The other part of the Library was kept in the Serapeion, the temple of Jupiter Serapis, where it remained till the time of Theodosius the Great. When this emperor permitted all the heathen temples in the Roman empire to be destroyed, the magnificent temple of Jupiter Serapis was not spared. A mob of fanatic Christians, led on by the Archbishop Theophilus, stormed and destroyed the temple, together, it is most likely, with the greater part of its literary treasures, in 391 A.D. It was at this time that the destruction of the Library was begun, and not at the taking of Alexandria by the Arabians, under the Calif Omar. The story, at least, is ridiculously exaggerated which relates that the Arabs found a sufficient number of books remaining to heat the baths of the city for six months. The historian Orosius, who visited the place after the destruction of the temple by the Christians, relates that he then saw only the empty shelves of the Library. See Petit-Radel, *Recherches sur les Bibliothèques Anciennes et Modernes* (Paris, 1819); and Ritschl, *Die Alexandrinischen Bibliotheken* (Berlin, 1838).

ALEXA'NDRINE AGE. After liberty and intellectual cultivation had declined in Greece, Alexandria in Egypt became the home and centre of science and literature. The time in which it held this position is styled the A. A., and may be divided into two periods: the first including the reigns of the Ptolemies, from 323 to 30 B.C; the second, from 30 B.C. to 640 A.D., or from the fall of the Ptolemæan dynasty to the irruption of the Arabs.

Ptolemæus Soter, the first ruler who introduced and patronised Greek science and literature in Alexandria, was followed by that yet more munificent patron, Ptolemæus Philadelphus, who regularly established the celebrated Alexandrian Library and Museum, which had been probably begun by his father. This Museum contained porticos, a lecture-room, and a large hall, in which the learned men - the professors and fellows, as they might be called - dined together. The A. school consisted of Egyptians, Greeks, Jews, and latterly, Romans. The grammarians and poets made the greatest figure. The grammarians were both philologists and *littérateurs*, who explained things as well as words, and were thus a kind of encyclopædists. Among these rank Zenodotus of Ephesus, Eratosthenes of Cyrene, Aristophanes of Byzantium, Aristarchus of Samothrace, Crates of Mallus, Dionysius the Thracian, Apollonius the Sophist, and Zoilus. Their chief service consists in having collected the writings then existing, prepared corrected texts, and preserved them for future generations. The most noted of the poets of the A. school were Apollonius Rhodius, Lycophron, Aratus, Nicander, Euphorion, Callimachus, Theocritus, Dionysius, and the seven tragedians called the A. Pleiades.

The A. school has a spirit and character altogether different from the previous intellectual life of Greece. From the attention paid to the study of language, it was natural that correctness, purity, and elegance of expression should become especially cultivated; and in these respects many of the A. writers are distinguished. But what no study and no efforts could give—the spirit, namely, that animated the earlier

Greek poetry, was, in most of these works, wanting. In place of it, there was displayed greater art in composition; what had formerly been done by genius, was now to be done by the rules furnished by criticism. Only a few display real genius; the works of the rest, faultless according to rule, are destitute of life and soul. In a school, where imitation and rule thus took the place of inspiration, each generation of disciples became more artificial and lifeless than their masters. Criticism degenerated into frivolous fault-finding, and both prose and poetry became laboured affectation.

The ALEXANDRINE PHILOSOPHY is characterised by a blending of the philosophies of the East and of the West, and by a general tendency to *eclecticism*, as it is called, or an endeavour to reconcile conflicting systems of speculation, by bringing together what seemed true in each. Not that the A. philosophers were without their sects; the most famous of which were the Neoplatonists (q. v.). Uniting the religious notions of the East with Greek dialectics, they represent the struggle of ancient civilisation with Christianity; and thus their system was not without influence on the form that Christian dogmas took in Egypt. The amalgamation of eastern ideas with Christian, gave rise to the system of the Gnostics (q. v.), which was elaborated chiefly in Alexandria.—The A. school was no less distinguished for the culture of the mathematical and physical sciences, which here reached a greater height than anywhere else in ancient times. As early as the 3d c. B.C., Euclid had here written his great work on geometry. The astronomers of the A. school were distinguished from all their predecessors by their setting aside all metaphysical speculation, and devoting themselves to strict observation. Among the distinguished physicists and mathematicians of the A. school, were Archimedes, Eratosthenes, Aristarchus of Samos, Ptolemæus, &c. For about four centuries, the A. school was the centre of learning and science in the ancient world. Counting from its origin to its complete extinction, it lasted 1000 years.

ALEXA'NDRINES are rhyming verses consisting each of twelve syllables or six measures. The name is most probably derived from an old French poem on Alexander the Great, belonging to the 12th or 13th c., in which this measure was first used; according to others, it was so called from the name of one of the authors of that poem being Alexander. The Alexandrine has become the regular epic or heroic verse of the French, among whom each line is divided in the middle into two hemistichs, the sixth syllable always ending a word. In English, this rule is not always observed, as in the following verse from Spenser:

> That all the woods shall answer, and their echo ring.

The only considerable English poem wholly written in A. is Drayton's *Polyolbion;* but the Spenserian stanza regularly ends in an Alexandrine, and the measure occurs occasionally in our common heroic verse, as the last line of a couplet:

> When both are full, they feed our blest abode,
> Like those that watered once the paradise of God.—*Dryden.*

ALEXANDROVSK, a town in the south of Russia, capital of the district of the same name, situated on the left bank of the Dnieper, below the cataracts. It is 48 miles south of Ekaterinoslav, is fortified, and has considerable trade. Inland productions are shipped here for the Black Sea. Pop. 4601. There are various other towns and districts of the same name in Russia; the most important of which is that in the government of Vladimir, in the centre of the empire. It was a favourite summer residence of the Czar Ivan Vasiliewitch, who introduced there the first printing-press known in Russia. It has also a magnificent imperial *stud*, commenced by the Empress Elizabeth in 1761, and completed about twenty years after. Pop. (1867) 5810.

ALEXE'I MICHA'ILOWITCH, the second Russian czar of the House of Romanow (b. March 10, 1629—d. January 29, 1676), succeeded his father, Michael Fedorowitch, in 1645. The young Czar A. yielding himself to the control of his chancellor, Plessow, and his tutor, Morosow, the avarice of these bad advisers caused an insurrection in 1648, in which Plessow lost his life. Popular discontent favoured the plans of two pretenders to the throne—Demetrius III. (q. v.) and Ankudinow. The latter, professing to be a son of the Czar Wasili Shuiskoi, was executed at Moscow in 1653. A. possessed good qualities, which appeared when he came to riper years. In his two campaigns against the Poles (1654—1656, and 1660—1667), he took Smolensko, conquered and devastated almost the whole of Lithuania, and even secured for himself the possession of several provinces. He also gained a part of the Ukraine; and though his war with Sweden (1656—1658) was unfortunate, he lost nothing by the following peace. A. conferred great benefits on his countrymen, by the introduction of various important reforms into the Russian laws; he ordered translations of numerous scientific works, chiefly of a military nature, into Russian; and even ventured on some ecclesiastical changes. In his private character, he was amiable, temperate, and pious. His second wife, the beautiful Natalia Narischkin, was the mother of Peter the Great.

ALEXEI, PETRO'WITCH. The eldest son of Peter the Great of Russia, was born at Moscow, February 18, 1690. Having shewn himself opposed to the reforms and innovations made by the emperor, he was excluded by Peter from the line of succession to the throne. With this decision, he appeared to be satisfied, and declared his intention of spending the remainder of his days in a monastery. But when Peter the Great undertook his second tour in Northern Europe, A., under the pretence of following the czar, escaped in 1717 to Vienna, and thence went to Naples. He was induced to return to Russia, where, by the ukase of February 2, 1718, he was disinherited, and an investigation was ordered to detect all parties concerned in his recent flight from Russia. His mother, Eudoxia, with Marie Alexiewna, step-sister to the czar, and several other eminent persons, were made prisoners, and either executed or otherwise punished. A. was condemned to death, but soon afterwards received a pardon. However, the terror and agitation of the trial so affected his health, that he died June 26, 1718. The czar, to avoid scandal, ordered the trial to be published. Other accounts assert that A. was beheaded in prison. By his wife, Charlotte Christine Sophie, Princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, A. left a son, who, as Peter II., was elevated to the throne.

ALEXIUS COMNENUS, one of the eldest rulers of the Byzantine empire, was born at Constantinople in 1048. He was the third son of Johannes Comnenus, the brother of the emperor, Isaac Comnenus. The family came originally from Italy, and settled in Asia Minor. His father having refused the purple on the abdication of Isaac, it was given to one Ducas, the son of a distinguished general. A. in his youth gave brilliant promise of the vigorous military genius which he afterwards manifested; and at length, after a series of anarchic reigns of brief duration, his soldiers succeeded in elevating him to the throne, while the old and feeble Nicephorus Botaniates, his predecessor, was obliged

to retire to a monastery. Gibbon graphically paints the position and achievements of A. in the 48th chapter of his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. Everywhere he was encompassed with foes. The Scythians and Turks were pouring down from the north and north-east; the fierce Normans, who had violently effected a lodgment in Sicily and Italy, were menacing his western provinces; and, finally, the myriad warriors of the first crusade had burst into his empire on their way to Palestine, and had encamped around the gates of his capital. Yet he contrived to avoid all perils and disgraces by the wisdom of his policy, the mingled patience and promptitude of his character, his discipline in the camp, and his humanity on the throne. He reigned for 37 years; and if it had been possible to preserve the weak and corrupt Byzantine empire in its integrity, a ruler like A. might have done it. He could only delay its inevitable destruction. Undoubtedly, the great interest which attaches to A. arises from his relation to the crusaders. Historians differ as to the purity and sincerity of his conduct towards them. His daughter Anna, who wrote his life, defends his 'policy' with filial piety; but it seems clear that he entertained a profound dread and suspicion of the half-civilised Franks, and, knowing the weakness of his own empire, was compelled to dissimulate. He certainly promised them help, and persuaded them to go off into Asia; it is equally certain that he did not fulfil his promises, and that he simply used them as instruments to reconquer from the Turks the islands and coasts of Asia Minor. Perhaps, however, little apology is needed for a monarch who 'subdued the envy of his equals, restored the laws of public and private order, caused the arts of wealth and science to be cultivated, and transmitted the sceptre to his children of the third and fourth generation.' He died in 1118.

ALFIERI, VITTORIO, COUNT, a modern Italian dramatic poet, was born at Asti, in Piedmont, on the 17th January 1749. He received a very defective education in his father's house, and was then sent to the academy of Turin, which he quitted, as ignorant and uninformed as he had entered it, to join a provincial regiment. After a hurried tour through the greater part of Europe, he returned to Turin in 1772. He then left the military service, and renouncing idleness and unworthy amours, devoted himself to literary occupation. The applause which his first attempts received, encouraged him in his determination to win fame as a dramatic author. But as he clearly saw the deficiencies of his education, he began at a mature age to learn Latin, and also to study the Tuscan dialect, for which purpose he went to Tuscany. On his journey thither, A. made the acquaintance of the Countess of Albany (q. v.), to whom he became deeply attached. To render himself worthy of her esteem, he strove with unremitting earnestness after poetic excellence; and in order to be perfectly free and independent of all other cares, he transferred his whole property to his sister, in exchange for an annuity. A. now lived alternately in Florence and in Rome. Afterwards, when his friend the Countess was released from other ties by the death of her husband, they lived together in the closest intimacy in Alsace or in Paris, where A. was incessantly occupied in writing, revising, and publishing his works. There appears to have been a marriage, although it was never made public. On the first outburst of the French Revolution, A. went to England, but soon returned to Paris. In 1792 he was again forced to flee from France, and he then settled with his inseparable companion in Florence. Here he died, on the 8th October 1803. The ashes of A. and those of his friend repose in the church of Santa Croce, in Florence, under a beautiful monument by Canova, between the tombs of Michael Angelo and Macchiavelli. As a dramatic author, A. has attempted three different departments of his art. He published 21 tragedies, 6 comedies, and 1 'tramelogedia,' a name invented by himself. His dramatic works shew a want of fresh imaginative vigour, and betray the laborious perseverance with which he did violence both to himself and to art. A. was inspired more by politics than by poetry. He wished to breathe a spirit of freedom into the dormant minds of his countrymen, and considered the theatre as a school in which the people might learn to be 'free, strong, and noble.' In order to preserve the purity of his muse, A. had resolved to read no other poet. He wished to produce an effect by the very simplest means, and, renouncing the aid of ornament, to please by manly strength and earnestness alone. His works are on this account cold and stiff, his plots simple even to poverty, his verse hard and unpleasing, and his language destitute of that magic splendour of colouring which stirs the inmost soul. Notwithstanding this, A. did good service to Italian tragedy. He corrected the effeminate taste which had before prevailed, as well as the pedantry of an affected imitation of Attic models. Succeeding writers endeavoured to imitate his strength and simplicity. A. was more unsuccessful in his comedies than in his tragedies. They manifest the same serious political tendency; the invention is poor, the development of the plot uninteresting, and the characters are only general sketches, without individuality. The most successful of his dramatic works is *Abel*, a mixture of tragedy and opera, invented by himself, which he designated by the singular name of 'tramelogedia.' Besides the dramatic works of A., we possess an epic poem, in four cantos, written by him, also many lyrical poems, 16 satires, and poetical translations of Terence, Virgil, and portions of Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes. After his death, appeared his *Misogallo*, a memorial of his hatred to the French. The Countess of Albany had a collected edition of his works published (35 vols. 4to, Pisa, 1805–1815) containing his autobiography; Centofanti published *Tragedie e Vita d'Alfieri* (Florence, 1842).

ALFONSO I., earliest king of Portugal, was the son of Henry of Burgundy, conqueror and Count of Portugal. He was born in 1110 A.D., and being only two years of age at his father's death, the management of affairs fell into the hands of his ambitious and dissolute mother, Theresa of Castile, from whom he was compelled forcibly to seize it, on attaining his majority. He then entered on a war with Castile, whose supremacy he did not recognise, and leaguing himself with Navarre, made several conquests in Galicia, after which he proceeded to attack the Moors, whose invasions he had already begun to check by building the fortress of Leiria. A battle was fought in the plains of Ourique, July 25, 1139, when victory declared for the Portuguese, after a bloody struggle, in which, it is said, not less than 200,000 Moors perished. From that day, A. assumed the title of king, which the pope confirmed. On the 25th October 1147, he took Lisbon, by the help of the English fleet of crusaders; and in 1158, after a siege of two months, made himself master of Alcazar-de-Sal and Evora. In 1171, he took by assault the fortress of Santarem from the Saracens, and annihilated the garrison; and at the same place he defeated the Almohadian ruler, Jusuf-ben-Jakub, in 1184. He invited to his land the Knights-Templars and Knights of St John, and established the orders of Avis, and of St Michael. The Portuguese style him *El Conquistador* (the Conqueror). But he was also a

legislator, establishing the Cortes of Lamego, and promulgating a code of laws relating to the order of succession, the privileges of the nobility, the administration of justice, &c. He died at Coimbra, December 6, 1185.

ALFONSO VI., king of Portugal, second son of John IV., was at first destined for the church, but the death of his elder brother in 1656 altogether changed his circumstances. Being then a minor, the government of the kingdom was intrusted to his mother, Louisa de Guzman, a woman of great wisdom and prudence, who felt it her duty to retain the power in her own hands, even after A. had reached his majority; for the sickly and dissolute prince displayed little aptitude for business. But the court minions, who had their own reasons for wishing him to rule, urged him to remove his mother from her office. This was accomplished in 1662. The minister, Count Castel-Melhor, a mere trifler, possessed supreme authority. Nevertheless, Portugal was victorious in the war which she undertook against Spain, although for this she had to thank her English and French allies. In 1666, A. married Maria-Francisca-Elizabeth of Savoy, who, however, soon conspired with his brother Pedro against him. The plot succeeded. A. was seized and imprisoned at Cintra, where he died on the 12th of September 1683. Pedro then obtained the throne, and married the widow of his deceased brother.

ALFONSO III., surnamed THE GREAT, king of Leon, Asturias, and Galicia, born 848 A. D. He succeeded his father, Ordoño I., in 866, but had to maintain his rights by force of arms against Count Froila, who had usurped the throne. Having caused the latter to be murdered, he proceeded sternly to reduce to obedience the powerful nobility of the kingdom, who looked with a jealous eye on the monarchy remaining in one family; and then, carrying his arms against other enemies, he fought through more than 30 campaigns, and gained numerous victories over the Moors. He crossed the Douro, broke down the walls of Coimbra, penetrated to the Tagus and Estremadura, enlarged his territories by a portion of Portugal and Old Castile, and re-peopled the conquered and desolated Burgos. But these wars entailed great expense and misery on the nation. In 888, A. had to endure the pain of beholding, at the head of a rebel army, his own son Garcias, who wished to seize the crown, although pretending a simple desire for the prosperity of the commonwealth. A. collected his forces, conquered his son, and threw him into prison. But Garcias' mother, by the help of several of the grandees, excited a new conspiracy, which resulted in the abdication of the monarch in favour of his imprisoned son. In order, however, to be still useful to his country, A. became commander of Garcias' forces in an expedition against the Moors. After returning in triumph, he died at Zamora, 910.

ALFONSO V., king of Aragon, Naples, and Sicily (1416–1458 A. D.), received the surname of 'the Magnanimous,' because on his accession to the throne he destroyed a document containing the names of all the grandees who were hostile to him. His historical importance arises from his having brought Southern Italy under the dominion of Aragon. In 1420, he attacked Corsica, but speedily hastened to Naples, at the request of Queen Joanna II., who besought his assistance against Louis of Anjou. For some time he enjoyed the highest favour; but, in 1423, having thrown into prison her minion Caracciolo, who was his enemy, the queen declared for his rival, Louis. At her death, in 1435, A. resolved to claim the kingdom, but René of Anjou, whom Joanna had appointed her successor after the death of Louis, opposed him. Rome and Genoa sided with René, and the Genoese fleet attacked and defeated that of A., the monarch himself being taken prisoner. He was sent to Duke Philip of Milan, who, charmed by his manner and talent, set him at liberty, and even formed an alliance with him. After several battles, and a long mountain-war in the Abruzzi, A. overthrew his adversary, and entered Naples in triumph. Having once firmly established his power, he proceeded to suppress the disorders which had sprung up during the worthless reign of Joanna, and honourably distinguished himself by his patronage of letters. He died at Naples while his troops were besieging Genoa, June 27, 1458.

ALFONSO X., surnamed 'the Astronomer,' 'the Philosopher,' or 'the Wise' (*El Sabio*), king of Leon and Castile, born 1221, succeeded his father, Ferdinand III., in 1252. As early as the storming of Seville in 1248, he had given indications of his courageous spirit. But, instead of wisely attempting to expel the Moors and subdue the nobility, he lavished the resources of his kingdom in fruitless efforts to secure his election to the imperial throne of Germany. Rudolf of Hapsburg was chosen in opposition to him. Nor would Pope Gregory X. recognise his claims even to the Duchy of Swabia. Soon after, his throne was threatened by the turbulence of the nobility, and his wars with the Moors. The latter, however, he defeated in 1263, in a bloody battle, and took from them Xeres, Medina-Sidonia, San-Lucar, and a part of Algarve, uniting at the same time Murcia with Castile. In 1271, an insurrection broke out in his dominions, at the head of which was his son Philip. Three years elapsed before it was finally quelled. In the mildness with which he treated the rebels, men saw only indications of his weakness. But afterwards determining to employ more stringent measures, his son Sancho also rebelled, and in 1282 deprived him of his throne. He now sought the help of the Moors; but after fruitless efforts to recover his power, he died at Seville, April 4, 1284. He was the most learned prince of his time, and has acquired lasting fame through the completion of the code of laws commenced (though this is disputed) by his father, and called *leyes de las Partidas*, which in 1501 became the universal law of the land. There are still extant several long poems of his, besides a work on chemistry, and another on philosophy. He is also credited with a history of the church and of the crusades, and is said to have ordered a translation of the Bible into Spanish. He laboured much to revive knowledge, increasing both the privileges and professorships of the university of Salamanca. He sought to improve the Ptolemaic planetary tables, whose anomalies had struck observers even at that early time. For this purpose, in 1240, he assembled at Toledo upwards of fifty of the most celebrated astronomers of that age. His improved tables, still known under the name of the Alfonsine Tables, were completed in 1252 at the cost of 40,000 ducats—an unprecedented sum to be expended on such a work in those days. The results obtained by means of the Alfonsine Tables were no more accurate than those of the older ones, for both were based on the same erroneous hypothesis of Epicycles (q. v.). The *Opusculos Legales* of A. were published by the Royal Historical Society of Madrid in 1836.

ALFORD, REV. HENRY, D.D., a biblical critic of the highest reputation, and also a poet of considerable genius, was born in London in 1810, but was educated first at Ilminster grammar-school in Somersetshire, and finally at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his degree, and entered the church. His first volume, published at Cambridge in 1831, was

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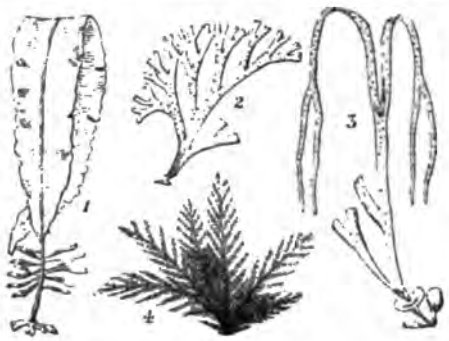
book distinguished by extreme simplicity and affection. The best edition is that of Wise (Oxford, 1782). Of the recent Lives, the most complete and careful is that of Dr Pauli, edited by T. Wright; published by Bentley.

ALGA MARI'NA. See GRASS WRACK.

A'LGÆ, a natural order of plants, belonging to the class *Cryptogamia* of Linnæus, and to the *Acotyledones* of the natural system. It contains a great number of species, about 2000 being known and described, and among these there is a great variety of forms. They grow for the most part in water, some in fresh, and some in salt water, but some also on moist rocks or ground; whilst others are frequently found covering the glass and pots of hothouses. Some species occur even upon diseased animal tissue, as *Achlya prolifera* upon the gills of fish, whilst *Sarcinula ventriculi* (q. v.) appears to be formed in the human stomach. They are most numerous in still or stagnant water and in warm climates. Their structure is very various; they are

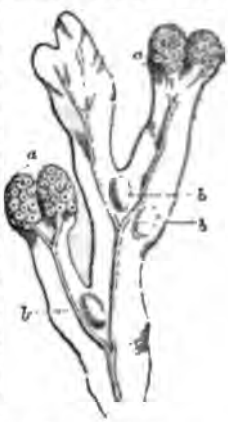


Algæ.

1. Alaria esculenta.
2. Dictyota dichotoma.
3. Himanthalia lorea.
4. Rytiphlœa thuyoides.

found of all grades, from the little microscopic vesicle, to great sea-weeds, which ramify like trees. The diversity in size is as great as in form; some species being visible only through the microscope, and resembling mould or rust; some a few inches, others several feet in length; whilst the *Laminaria*, which float in the South American seas, measure more than 100 feet; and *Macrocystis pyrifera* of the Pacific Ocean reaches the length of 1500 feet. Yet they are seldom to be found as thick as the finger, or as broad as the hand, although some far exceed these dimensions, the trunk of *Lessonia fuscescens* attaining the thickness of a man's thigh. Some species are firmly fixed at the bottom of the water, some adhere to rocks and stones left dry by the retiring tide; some frequently break loose, and float about upon and beneath the surface. They have in no case proper roots, but merely processes for their attachment to the surfaces on which they are fixed; they seem to derive their nourishment by all parts of their surface from the water or moist air in which they grow. The Gulfweed (*Sargassum*) floats in long pieces in the Atlantic Ocean and all the great seas; a large portion of the sea between the West Indies and the Canary Islands, is specially called the *Mer de Sargasse*. The weed is carried in such quantities by the current into the Gulf of Mexico, that it covers the sea in tracts of many miles in breadth, and gives it the appearance of a meadow. Many fabulous stories were related of this Gulfweed by the mariners of the 15th c. Ships were said to have been stopped in their course, and the crews obliged to cut their way through with hatchets. The discoveries of Columbus put an end to these exaggerated reports.

A. are entirely cellular in their structure, however elongated may be their fronds, having no proper vessels, but consisting of an irregular tissue of utricular cells. The fronds of many are articulated. Some of the simplest or lowest organisation are propagated by spontaneous separation; in others, the reproductive organs consist of spores (see ACOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS) enclosed in *perispores*, and variously disposed in receptacles of different kinds; sometimes in the interior of the cells. *Antheridia* (q. v.) also occur in some; and *zoospores*, or spores with moving *cilia*, which exhibit phenomena of motion resembling those of animal life. The *Diatomaceæ*, in which the ordinary mode of reproduction is by spontaneous separation, have by some been referred to the animal kingdom. They are entirely microscopic, resemble the animalcules called *Infusoria*, and are generally found in still waters and moist places, but occur in prodigious numbers in some parts of the Antarctic Ocean, where they give a colour to the water.



Fucus vesiculosus: shewing the receptacles of the fructification *a*, *a*, at the ends of the branching frond; *b*, *b*, *b*, large air-cells which help to float the plant.

A. differ from Fungi (q. v.) in deriving their nourishment exclusively, as it would seem, from the medium by which they are surrounded, and not from the substance upon which they grow. The substance of which they are composed is also very different. Yet it has been felt not a little difficult to determine to which order some of the lowest forms of vegetable life should be referred.

As to their substance, A. consist chiefly of vegetable gelatine, which dissolves in water when they are boiled in it. The harder parts of their fronds are sometimes coriaceous, or horny, or cartilaginous, but never really ligneous. Their colour is not always green, but mostly brown or yellow, sometimes purple or violet, or rose-colour; and many of them present a very beautiful appearance when examined through a microscope. Many contain an abundance of iodine. Different species of WRACK (*Fucus*), (q. v.), which are cast on shore in vast confused masses by the waves, are gathered and burned in the Orkney Islands, in Normandy, and other parts of the world, the ashes forming an article of commerce under the name of KELP (q. v.), and containing much of the iodide of sodium. Sea-weeds of all kinds are an excellent manure. None of the species are poisonous, and some of them are used for food, as CARRAGEEN (q. v.) or Irish-moss, DULSE (q. v.), LAVER (q. v.), &c. The edible swallows' nests of the Indian Archipelago are composed of a species of sea-weed. Several kinds are eaten as articles of luxury by the Chinese. *Plocaria tenax*, one of the species so used, furnishes them also with an admirable glue, of which great quantities are prepared and brought to the market. *Plocaria helminthocorton*, Corsican moss, a native of the Mediterranean, and found principally around the shores of Corsica, is used as a vermifuge. See PLOCARIA.

This natural order is divided into five sub-orders, regarded by some as distinct orders—namely,

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The oldest work in the West on A. is that of Diophantus of Alexandria, in the 4th c. after Christ. It consisted originally of 13 books, and contained arithmetical problems; only six books are now extant. They are written in Greek, and evince no little acuteness. The modern Europeans got their first acquaintance with A., not directly from the Greeks, but, like most other knowledge, through the Arabs, who derived it, again, from the Hindus. The chief European source was the work of Mohammed Ben Musa, who lived in the time of Calif Al Mamun (813–833); it has been translated into English by Dr Rosen (Lond. 1831). An Italian merchant, Leonardo Bonaccio, of Pisa, travelling in the east about 1200, acquired a knowledge of the science, and introduced it among his countrymen on his return; he has left a work on A., not yet printed. The first work on A. after the revival of learning is that of the Minorite friar Paciolo or Luca Borgo (Ven. 1494). Scipio Ferreo in Bologna, discovered, in 1505, the solution of one case of cubic equations. Tartaglia of Brescia (died 1557) carried cubic equations still further, and imparted his discoveries to Cardan of Milan, as a secret. Cardan extended the discovery himself, and published, in 1545, the solution known as 'Cardan's Rule.' Ludovico Ferrari and Bombelli (1579) gave the solution of biquadratic equations. A. was first cultivated in Germany by Christian Rudolf, in a work printed in 1524; Stifel followed with his *Arithmetica Integra* (Nürnb. 1544). Robert Recorde, in England, and Pelletier, in France, wrote about 1550. Vieta, a Frenchman (died 1603), first made the grand step of using letters to denote the known quantities as well as the unknown. Harriot, in England (1631), and Girard, in Holland (1633), still further improved on the advances made by Vieta. The *Géométrie* (1637) of Descartes makes an epoch in A.; it is rich in new investigations. Descartes applied A. to Geometry, and was the first to represent the nature of curves by means of equations. Fermat also contributed much to the science; and so did the *Arithmetica Universalis* of Newton. To these names may be added Maclaurin, Moivre, Taylor, and Fontaine. Among the chief promoters of A., in more recent times, are Euler, Lagrange, Gauss, Abel, Fourier, Peacock, De Morgan, &c.

ALGECI'RAS, or ALGEZIRAS, a town in Spain, in the province of Cadiz, on the Gulf of Gibraltar. Its harbour is bad, but it possesses a good dock, and the inhabitants are supplied with fine aqueducts. The citadel is in a very dilapidated condition, and the trade in corn and brandy is no longer important. The place, however, which is pleasantly situated, has a picturesque appearance. It was the first town in Spain taken by the Moors (713), in whose possession it remained for 7 centuries; but in 1344, after a siege of 20 months, it was retaken by the brave Alfonso XI., king of Castile. It is said that crusaders from all parts of Europe were present at this siege, which was *the* siege of the age, and is spoken of as such. Edward III. of England purposed coming in person to the assistance of the Spanish monarch, whom he greatly admired. Alfonso destroyed the old Moorish town; the modern one was built by Charles III. in 1760. On the 6th of June 1801, between Algeciras and Tarifa, the English admiral Saumarez attacked the combined French and Spanish fleets under Rear-admiral Luinois. He was defeated, but renewed the engagement a few days after, and gained a complete victory. A. is 5 miles from Gibraltar, across the bay or gulf, and 10 round by land. Pop. 11,500.

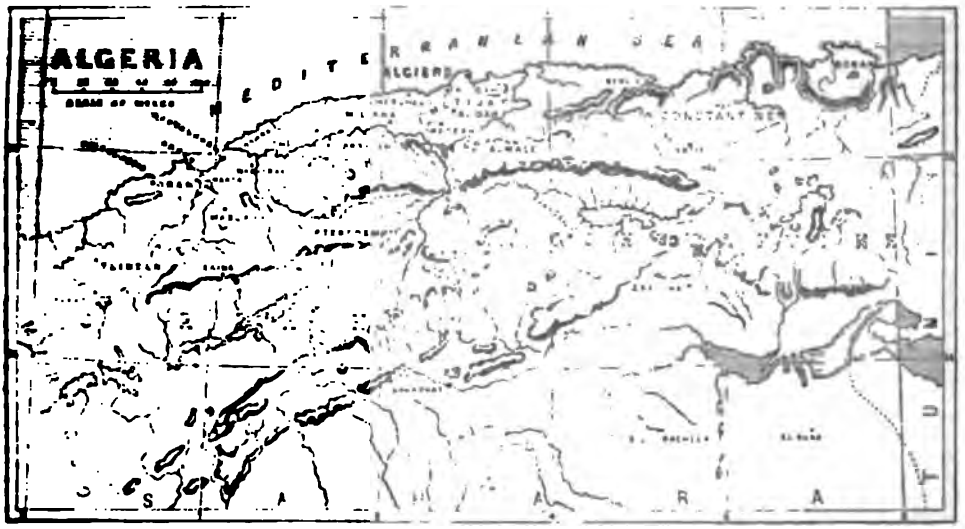
ALGE'RIA (in French, ALGÉRIE), a country on the north coast of Africa, which was a subordinate part of the Turkish Empire till 1830, and is now a French colony. It lies between 2° 8′ W. long. and 8° 32′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Tunis, on the south by Sahara, and on the west by Marocco. The French have extended their dominions more than 200 miles into the interior, but those of the deys—the former rulers of A.—comprehended territories lying nearly twice as far south. The area of A., now that the southern limit is defined, is about 173,000 sq. miles; and the pop. 2,904,014, including 217,990 Europeans. The chief towns are Algiers, Bona, Constantine, and Tlemzen. Upwards of 5,000,000 acres are under cultivation. Physically, A. forms a part of the northern border of the great plateau of North Africa, which here rises from the sea in three terraces. The Atlas Mountains run parallel to the coast-line. Behind these, a vast tract of heathy plains, called the *Sebkhas*, interspersed with salt-lakes, stretches southwards, until bounded by a second chain of mountains of various heights; beyond which, again, lies the great desert of Sahara, extending to the banks of the Niger. The plains and valleys which open out towards the sea in the north of A., such as those round Bona, Algiers, Oran, &c., are extremely fertile, abound in wood and water, consist mostly of a calcareous soil, and are well adapted for agriculture. They form the *Tell*, which was once one of the granaries of Italy. In strong contrast to these are the *Sebkhas* or lesser deserts, covered with herbs and brushwood, but almost destitute of fresh water, except where here and there they are interrupted by an oasis. The most southern part of the country beyond the Atlas partakes of the nature of the Sahara, but contains oases covered with palm-trees, and well peopled. This is a part of the 'date-country,' or 'Blad-el-Djerid.' There are no rivers of any importance in the entire colony, nothing beyond mere coast-streams, which rise in the neighbouring Atlas. The largest is the Shelif, about 230 miles in length. With respect to the climate, the heat in the *Tell* is sometimes very great. On the coast it is mitigated by the sea-breeze; and among the high mountains of the interior, the winters are even cold. The average temperature of Algiers is about 63° F. A. is not unfrequently visited by the *simoom*, or hot wind, called by the Italians *sirocco*, and by the Spaniards *solano*. Its mineral wealth is considerable; iron, lead, copper, and manganese are found. The marble of Numidia was in requisition in ancient times. Extensive forests of oaks, cedars, pines, and pistachio-nut trees cover large portions of the country, and furnish an abundant supply of timber and resin. The cereals and the olive are cultivated in the Tell; and the oases of Sahara are famed for their dates. The domestic animals of A. are the ox, the sheep, the goat, and the camel; but the once noble race of Numidian horses is degenerated. The population is composed of various elements. Besides Europeans, there are Kabyles and Arabs, who compose the bulk of the people; also Moors, Negroes, and Jews.

Language.—Four languages are spoken in A. The Berber, the Arabic, the Turkish, and the Negro dialects. The Berber, which is the most ancient of all, has a variety of dialects, and is spoken by all the Kabyle tribes. It possesses no literature written in its own alphabet, Arabic characters alone being used. The Arabic is of course an importation from the East, and has borrowed expressions and idioms from the various native languages with which it came into contact; but its differences are comparatively slight. The Koran is the great bond of union. The Turkish, since the French conquest, has become almost extinct. The Negro dialects are of little consequence.

History.—In the most ancient times we find the Numidians settled in the eastern part of the regency, and the Moors (or Mauri) in the west. Under the Romans, the former was included in the province of Africa, while the latter was called Mauritania Cæsariensis. Like the rest of North Africa, it had then reached its highest prosperity. It had numerous cities, which were principally Roman colonies. But its conquest by the Vandals, under the famous Genseric about 440, threw it back into a state of barbarism, from which it only partially recovered after the Mohammedan immigrants had established their dominion. About the year 935, the city, Al-Jezira, *i. e.*, the island, and later Al-Gasie, *i. e.*, the warlike, now called Algiers, was built by an Arabian prince, Zeiri, whose successors ruled the land till 1148, after which it was governed by the Almohades (q.v.) till 1269. It was then split up into many small territories. In 1492, the Moors and Jews who had been driven out of Spain, settled in A., and began to revenge themselves on their persecutors by piracy. Ferdinand, the Spanish monarch, attacked them on this account, took the city of Algiers in 1509, and erected fortifications on the island which forms its harbour. One of the Algerine princes, the Emir of Metidja, whose territories were threatened by the Spaniards, now invited to his assistance the Greek renegade, Horuk or Harude Barbarossa, who had made himself famous as a Turkish pirate chief. This laid the foundation of the Turkish dominion; for when Barbarossa arrived in 1516, he treacherously turned his corsair bands against the emir, whom he murdered, and then made himself Sultan of Algiers. His subsequent successes alarmed the Spaniards, who marched an army against him from Oran. Barbarossa was defeated in many encounters, and, at last, being taken prisoner, was beheaded in 1518. His brother was then chosen sultan. He put himself under the protection of the Ottoman court, by the help of a Turkish army drove the Spaniards out of the country, and established that system of military despotism and piracy which lasted till 1830, and which sunk A. into a state of ruinous degradation. In 1541, the Emperor Charles V. made a bold attempt to crush this nation of corsairs. He landed in A. with a fleet of 370 ships, and 30,000 men; but a fearful storm, accompanied by earthquakes and water-spouts, destroyed the greater portion of the

former, and rendered the latter destitute of victuals, &c.; so that the expedition proved a failure, and Charles was glad to re-embark, which he managed to do with extreme difficulty.

The history of A., under the Moslems, offers few episodes worthy of notice. The Algerines continued to carry on their piratical war against the powers of Christendom, venturing even to land on the Italian and Spanish coasts. Inland, too, they were constantly fighting to extend their territories. Before the end of the 16th c., they had subdued the whole country to the verge of Marocco, with the exception of Oran, which belonged to Spain. The Spaniards were invariably unsuccessful in their attempts at



reprisals. Emboldened by success, the Algerines pushed their piratical expeditions even beyond the Straits of Gibraltar. In the year 1600, the Turkish janissaries of Algiers obtained from the Constantinopolitan court the right to choose a dey from among themselves, who should share the power with the pacha appointed by the Sultan, and be their commander-in-chief. The result of this divided authority was internal strife and confusion. Nevertheless, the insolence of the Algerines at sea increased. They attacked even the coasts of Provence, compelling Louis XIV. to chastise them thrice; which he did, however, with very little effect. An incident occurred during the first bombardment of Algiers by the French fleet in 1682, which illustrates the reckless ferocity of these corsairs. By way of answer to the cannonading of his enemies, the dey caused the French consul, Vacher, to be shot off from the mouth of a mortar! After the third bombardment in 1687, the dey scornfully inquired of the French how much money the burning of Algiers had cost their master, and on being told, coolly replied that 'he would have done it himself for half the sum, and spared their king the trouble.' No more decisive result followed the attack of Admiral Blake in 1655, nor of the English and Dutch fleets in 1669 and 1670; yet the English were the first to form treaties with the Algerines. In 1708, the dey, Ibrahim, made himself master of Oran; and his successor, Baba-Ali, succeeded in effecting the virtual emancipation of the country from the dominion of the Porte. He banished the Turkish pacha; craftily persuaded the Sultan of Turkey to leave the power solely in his hands; carried on war, and concluded peace at his own pleasure, and paid no more tribute.

A. was now ruled by a military oligarchy, at the head of which stood the dey, and after him the powerful Turkish militia, recruited from Constantinople and Smyrna, because their children by native mothers could not enjoy the same privileges as themselves. Besides these, there was a divan, or council of state, chosen from the sixty principal civil functionaries. The internal history of the country henceforth presents nothing but a bloody series of seraglio revolutions, caused by the lawless janissaries, who permitted few of the deys to die a natural death. In the year 1775, Spain undertook her last great expedition against A., with 44 ships of war, 340 transports, and 25,000 soldiers. This, however, was as singularly unfortunate as all her previous ones. Everything went wrong, and the Spaniards had to re-embark as speedily as possible, leaving behind them 1800 wounded, and all their artillery. Thus A. continued to defy the greater Christian powers, and to enforce tribute from the lesser. During the French Revolution, and the time of the Empire, its piracies were much diminished in consequence of the presence of powerful fleets in the Mediterranean Sea; but at the close of the war, they were recommenced as vigorously as ever. This brought down upon 'the nation of corsairs' the vengeance of the Christian powers. The Americans took the lead, attacked the Algerine fleet off Carthagena, on the 20th June 1815; defeated it, and compelled the dey to acknowledge the inviolability of the American flag. About the same time, the English admiral, Lord Exmouth, extorted from the other states of Barbary the recognition of an international law respecting the treatment of prisoners. A. alone refused to consent to it; and after a delay of six weeks, the English and Dutch fleets, under the command of Lord Exmouth, fiercely bombarded the capital. The batteries of the pirates were soon silenced; and in a few hours the half of the city lay in ruins; its naval force and its magazines being all destroyed. The dey, an ignorant and obstinate barbarian, still wished to protract the fight, but his soldiery forced him to yield, and a treaty was concluded (1816), by which all Christian slaves were released without ransom (the number was 1211), and a promise was given that both piracy and Christian slavery should cease for ever. But nothing

could keep these wretches from piracy. As early as 1817, they ventured as far as the North Sea, and seized all ships in their course not belonging to any of the powers who sent them tribute or presents, as was done by Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, Spain, Naples, Tuscany, and Sardinia. Nor did even treaties avail to protect European vessels at all times. The Spanish, the Papal, and, in particular, the German shipping, suffered severely; while the dey mocked by his insolent replies the remonstrances addressed to him.

Meanwhile, the internal condition of A. continued to present the spectacle of a cruel prætorian despotism. In the year 1817, the power of the janissaries was greatly weakened by the skilful tactics of the dey, Ali. Upon his death, which was occasioned by the plague in the following year, Hussein was chosen in his stead, under whom the Moslem dominion was terminated by a conflict with France. The causes of this conflict were various. A French trading-brig was plundered in Bona in 1818; the dwelling of the French consul was attacked in 1823; Roman ships sailing under the protection of the French flag were seized; and even French ships were detained and plundered. But the chief cause of the quarrel was a dispute about the payment of a debt incurred by the French government to two Jewish merchants of Algiers at the time of the expedition to Egypt. This debt was fixed at seven millions of francs; four and a half millions were immediately paid; the rest was reserved until the counter-claims of certain French creditors should be decided in the French law-courts. For three years the lawsuit dragged its slow length along, till the dey became impatient—being himself a principal creditor of the Jewish-Algerine house—and angrily demanded payment from the King of France. To his letter no answer was returned. The feast of Beiram occurring soon after, when it was customary for the dey to receive all the consuls publicly, he asked the French consul why his master had remained silent. The latter haughtily replied that 'a king of France could not condescend to correspond with a dey of Algiers.' Upon this, the dey struck him on the face, and fiercely abused his sovereign. In consequence of this insult, a French squadron was sent to Algiers, which received the consul on board, and blockaded the city (12th June 1827). Six days after, the dey caused the French coral-fisheries at Bona to be destroyed. For three years the blockade was listlessly carried on; but in April 1830, during the ministry of Polignac, a warlike manifesto appeared; and a month later, a fleet sailed for the African coast, consisting of 100 ships of war, and 357 transports, having on board an army of 37,000 infantry, 4000 cavalry, and a proportionate number of artillery, under the command of Lieutenant-general Bourmont. The landing was effected under trifling opposition. A perpetual skirmishing then took place previous to the bombardment of Algiers, which commenced on the 4th July. Next day, a capitulation was agreed to. The Turkish soldiers marched out - for such were the conditions—with their families and private possessions, and the French took possession of the place. Fifteen hundred guns, 17 ships of war, and 50,000,000 francs fell into their hands as spoil. The dey retired to Port Mahon, with his private property and a train of 118 persons, while the greater number of the Turkish janissaries were conveyed to Asia Minor. The conduct of the French soldiery, however, it must be confessed, tarnished the glory of their conquest. They went about plundering remorselessly the beautiful villas and gardens in the neighbourhood of Algiers, as well as the ancient valuables and works of art; thus exciting a universal spirit of hostility in the natives, who kept up an incessant guerilla warfare outside the capital.

After the revolution of July, Marshal Bourmont resigned, and General Clausel was appointed his successor. The latter, who was a prompt and vigorous man, set about subduing the country, and giving it a regular government. His predecessor had committed a great mistake in driving out the Turks, who might have been usefully employed in subordinate functions of authority. After their banishment, the Kabyles and Bedouins, believing themselves emancipated from all subjection, and stimulated by intense fanaticism against the new conquerors, rose in rebellion, or rather commenced a series of petty struggles, which obstructed the colonisation of A. for many years, and which cannot be said to have altogether ceased even yet. The imposition of French laws and institutions was made not in the wisest spirit, most of the old Turkish regulations being summarily abrogated. Besides this, the natives were wounded in their most susceptible point. Their mosques and burying-grounds were frequently desecrated and destroyed; and Clausel, whose vigour was more remarkable than his justice or prudence, confiscated—in direct contradiction to the very words of the capitulation—all the immovable property of the deys, and other exiled Turks, and of the townships, besides various religious institutions. The effect of these political crimes was instant. The entire provinces determined obstinately to resist; some even of the provincial rulers who had previously submitted, now appeared in arms again. Clausel was compelled to undertake a military expedition against the refractory beys; but his uncertain successes only inflamed the hatred and patriotism of the Kabyles and Arabs, who opposed him energetically. A young emir at last appeared on the scene, Abd-el-Kader (q.v.), who soon became the rallying-point of the *Jad* ('holy war'), which the Marabouts had begun to preach. Under these circumstances, it became impossible for Clausel to carry out his scheme of colonisation, and only a reckless speculation in land took place, which was in every way injurious. To strengthen his position, the French general, whose army was now greatly reduced, made a treaty with the Bey of Tunis; but the home-government disapproving of it, he was recalled in consequence. His successor, General Berthezène, having achieved nothing but defeat and disgrace in spite of his cruelties, was also speedily recalled, and Lieutenant-general the Duke of Rovigo appointed to the command. He arrived in Algiers on the 25th of December 1831, and established a most severe and relentless system. He scrupled not to perpetrate the most arbitrary acts, cruelties, and treacheries. His two most remarkable actions were, first, the complete annihilation of the whole Arab tribe El-Uffia, when even old men, women, and children were massacred during the night, on account of a robbery committed by some of the members of the tribe; second, the execution of two Arab chiefs who were hostile to him, and whom he had treacherously allured into the city by the written promise of a safe-conduct. Such monstrous proceedings fired the entire nation. The most peaceful tribes flew to arms, and the French were attacked on all sides. The Emperor of Marocco, who secretly fomented the strife, and even meditated the conquest of Oran, assisted the fierce and impetuous Abd-el-Kader in his designs. The health of the duke now declined. He returned to France in March 1833, and the administration of affairs was provisionally intrusted to General Avizard, who gained some credit by establishing the *Bureau Arabe*. After the death of the duke, General Voirol, a man exactly the reverse of his predecessor, was made interim commander-in-chief. His

efforts were more directed to promote the material interests of the colony, than to extend the power of France. He met with little opposition in the province of Algiers, and in the eastern districts; but, on the other hand, the war raged fiercely in the west, where Abd-el-Kader had either gained over or subdued all the tribes between Mascara and the sea. At length a treaty was effected with him, in which he pledged himself to make peace, and to deliver up all his prisoners. In return, he received a monopoly of the corn-trade, and the right to buy arms and ammunition in the French ports. Towards the end of 1834, the French government, having resolved to retain permanent possession of the colony, organised its administration anew, placing the supreme power, both civil and military, in the hands of a governor-general, who received his orders from the minister of war. General Drouet d'Erlon was the first appointed to this high dignity. Under him there were a commander of the troops, a commander of the naval force, a military intendant, a civil intendant, and a director of finance. The administration of justice was also regulated by the erection of many tribunals. Frenchmen and foreigners were to be subject to French laws, but the natives to their own. Moreover, the old Algerine courts of justice were still to be kept up. D'Erlon apparently desired, at first, to occupy himself with the internal administration of the regency, and, in truth, deserved much credit for the introduction of French municipal institutions, and the French system of education and police arrangements; but a disgraceful defeat suffered by the French army at Makta, on an expedition against Abd-el-Kader, who had secretly broken the treaty, caused the recall both of the officer in command and of D'Erlon himself. Clausel was now sent back to A. with the title of marshal. He arrived on the 10th of August 1835, his first anxiety being to wipe away the disgrace of the defeat at Makta. About three months after, he marched out at the head of 11,000 men, to attack Mascara, the centre of Abd-el-Kader's power: he had to fight many petty battles on his way, but was always successful. On reaching Mascara, he resolved to set it on fire, which he did on the 8th December, and then commenced his retreat, in which his army suffered severely from bad weather, and from perpetual harassments by the enemy. Abd-el-Kader was soon more powerful than ever, and General Bugeaud had to be sent out from France with reinforcements; but nothing came of this save a few fruitless victories over Abd-el-Kader, which did the latter no real harm. Bugeaud was at length compelled to make peace on the 30th May 1837. Abd-el-Kader recognised the sovereignty of France over the regency: he received, in return, the government of the provinces of Oran, Titeri, and Algiers, with the exception of the cities of Oran, Arzeu, Massagran, Mostaganem, Algiers, Blidah and Koleah, Sahel (or the 'sea-coast'), and the plain of Metidja. In exchange for the city of Tlemzen, he delivered to the French army 60,000 sacks of corn, and 5000 oxen: he was likewise permitted to buy arms and ammunition in France. In February 1837, Marshal Clausel was recalled, and Lieutenant-general Damrémont succeeded him. The condition of the colony was at this moment desperate, for the disgraces which followed the rash and even reckless measures of Clausel had everywhere lowered the *prestige* of the French army. The duty of the new governor-general was clear, but difficult: he had to wipe out the stain which attached to the honour of his soldiery, and to re-create the conviction of their superiority. He first attacked the Kabyles of the province of Algiers, and chastised them with considerable severity, and then commenced his great work of taking Constantine, from which his predecessor had been compelled ignominiously to retire. In the month of May, with an army of 12,000 disciplined troops, besides *Zuavi* (originally light infantry raised among the natives), *Bataillons d'Afrique* (convict-battalions at first), the *Tirailleurs d'Afrique*, and the *Chasseurs d'Afrique*, as well as the Spahis (a cavalry corps composed of native soldiers commanded by French officers), Damrémont marched to the attack of Constantine, and in spite of fearful weather, succeeded in storming the city on the 13th. This victory laid the foundation for the entire subjugation of the province of Constantine, which was completed in the course of the two following years without any great effort.

On December 1, 1837, General Valée was appointed governor-general in the stead of Damrémont, who had fallen at the storming of Constantine. He, like the others, misunderstood the character of Abd-el-Kader when he considered it possible for him to remain quiet. New treaties were made, which only delayed hostilities. Meanwhile, the work of colonisation went on in spite of numerous obstacles. The province of Constantine was much improved by the building of towns and the making of roads; but suddenly, in October 1839, Abd-el-Kader, whose power had now become formidable to an unprecedented extent, violated the treaty on an insignificant pretext, and fell upon the unprepared French with an overwhelming force. The European settlements in the open plain were attacked and laid waste, bodies of French troops were surprised on their march and cut to pieces, small outposts and encampments were taken in a moment, and by the 24th of November, the dominion of the French was confined to the fortified cities and camps. Even the settlements in the plain of Metidja were lost. Forty thousand Arabs swept over it, and threatened Algiers itself. This state of things demanded energetic measures. The spring campaign was vigorously opened on both sides: everywhere the French gained splendid successes; while the heroic defence of the fort of Masagran, near Mostaganem (garrisoned by only 123 men), against from 12,000 to 15,000 Arabs, who stormed it incessantly, and with the utmost fury, for three days, raised the *prestige* of the invaders higher than ever. Still, however, nothing was really accomplished. After repeated bloody defeats, the native tribes again rushed to arms, swept the plains, and rendered life insecure at the very gates of Algiers. The only thing of any practical importance which took place during the whole year, was the beginning of the circumvallation by which the fertile plain of Metidja was to be secured against the hostile incursions of the Arabs. Marshal Valée was now recalled, and Lieutenant-general Bugeaud appointed his successor. The latter arrived at Algiers on February 22, 1841, and adopted a new system, which was completely successful. A brave, inexorable, and unscrupulous man, he resolved to employ any and every means for the attainment of his purpose. He wearied out the enemy by incessant *razzias* (predatory excursions) against individual tribes, corrupted them (not a difficult thing to do) by all the arts of bribery, and on special occasions undertook great expeditions to annihilate the regular power of Abd-el-Kader, whose strong defensive positions he destroyed, and whose authority he spared no pains to undermine. The French army was raised to 80,000 or 100,000 men. Its operations were carried on from three principal points. Victory followed Bugeaud wherever he went. He relieved and victualled hard-pressed garrisons; intimidated the

surrounding country; penetrated to Tekedempt—the very stronghold of Abd-el-Kader himself—which he laid in ashes; marched thence to Mascara, which was also taken; and on all sides received the submission of the terrified Arabs. Even the hottest period of the summer was made use of. Bugeaud bribed and seduced from their allegiance those Arabs who were under the sway of Abd-el-Kader. The autumn campaign was for the time decisive. Saida, the last fortress belonging to the gallant emir, was utterly destroyed, and now almost the entire country was subdued. Abd-el-Kader retired into Marocco, where he raised a new army, for his old one had been completely annihilated. He was, however, defeated by General Bedeau, and again compelled to retreat into Marocco, from which, however, he issued a second time, in the summer of 1842, and contrived to maintain a fierce but desultory warfare, for two or three years, aided by the Sultan of Marocco. At last, however, deserted by most of his followers, pursued by his late ally, and, in fact, hemmed in on all sides, he was forced to surrender to General Lamoricière, at the close of December 1847. See ABD-EL-KADER.

The revolution of February 1848, somewhat disturbed the progress of conquest and subjugation in A. That superb race of mountaineers, the Kabyles, descendants of the ancient Numidians, and possessed of the same fiery and dauntless spirit, broke out into a new insurrection, which, however, was speedily quelled. The National Assembly now offered to the European population of A. to incorporate the country with the republic of France, and to grant it all the accompanying political privileges of a French province; but intelligent men of all parties acknowledged the uselessness and danger of this step. It was, therefore, simply declared to be a permanent possession of the republic. Four deputies from the colony were permitted to take a part in all discussions in the National Assembly on Algerian affairs. Meanwhile, the work of conquest, colonisation, and, in some respects, civilisation went on. The French troops penetrated into the far south, almost to the borders of Sahara, sternly reducing to obedience the desert tribes, who manifested a not unnatural antipathy to these inroads, and in some cases fiercely resisted the invaders. Various tribes of the Kabyles, too, opposed every attempt at organised taxation, and the imposition of civilised discipline; the result of which patriotic obstinacy was, a new campaign against them by the French general, Bugia. Fortune again declared for the invaders; but the most alarming insurrection was that excited by the Cherif Bou-zian, who fled for freedom to Zaatcha in the oases. The French pursued him thither; but were beaten, and had to retreat. Some months after, they returned, largely reinforced, and in spite of the broad belt of palm-trees which hindered their operations, and the wild and strenuous heroism of the besieged, the place was stormed and destroyed. The defenders all perished.

In 1853—1854, and again in 1856—1857, expeditions were organised against the Kabyles; though not altogether with the will of the colonists, who could not but recognise the great intelligence and industry displayed by that highland race. The struggle was sanguinary and barbarous on both sides, but the French at last subdued their enemies. For two years (1858—1860 the military government of A. was superseded by the institution of a special ministerial department for A. and the colonies, which was first of all intrusted to Prince Napoleon. In December 1860, however, a military government was re-instituted, and Marshal Pélissier made Governor-general, with a Vice-governor under him, a Director-general for Civil Affairs, and a Council of thirty members. In 1863, the Emperor Napoleon announced that he was willing to give the colony a new constitution, with a Chamber of Representatives for provincial affairs: he also addressed a letter to the governor-general, in which he explained that A. was no colony in the strict sense of the word, but an Arabian kingdom; and that the natives had the same right to protection as the colonists. In 1864, however, strife again arose between the colonists and the Arabs; and it was only after several engagements, during the months of April and May, that peace was restored by the submission of the conquered tribes. Pélissier having died in May 1864, Marshal MacMahon was appointed to succeed him. In the following year the emperor himself made a journey to A., and, on March 5, issued a proclamation, in which, although explaining to the Arabs that A. must continue to be united to France, he promised to maintain their nationality; and at the same time gave them assurance that they should always remain in undisturbed possession of their territories. Yet these and other measures for conciliating the Arabs were all in vain; for, shortly after the emperor's return to France, insurrections broke out in the province of Oran and elsewhere. Si-Hamed, a native chief, with 12,000 horsemen at his command, began to harrass those tribes which remained in submission, until he was routed by Colonel Colomb of Geryville, and forced to escape into Sahara: after which, in the beginning of 1867, two expeditions, led by Colomb and Souis, succeeded in reducing to submission the other tribes which had revolted. In 1867 and 1868, a severe and general famine checked the military enterprises of the Arabs; and there was peace till 1870, when, the Franco-Prussian war having begun, the emperor found it necessary to withdraw to Europe the greater part of the forces in Africa. MacMahon's place was then taken by General Durieu, as interim governor-general; and the natives began to entertain hopes of freeing themselves from the yoke of France. Movements were begun in the provinces of Constantine and Oran, which it required all General Durieu's vigilance and activity to hold in check. After this, again, some disorder arose among the colonists themselves, who strongly desired the abolition of the military government—a change which the new republican government at Paris soon gratified them by effecting. To Durieu's place was appointed a civil governor, and under him prefects for each of the three provinces. A council was formed—composed of the prefects, archbishop, commander of the army, and other members appointed by the French government—with which, in all important cases, the governor has to take counsel. The territory of the Sahara and adjoining districts remain under exclusively military rule.

The French troops still stationed in A. consist of one 'corps d'armée,' numbering 60,000. It is said that the possession of A. has cost France the lives of 150,000 men, besides £120,000,000 in money. The revenue of A. is derived chiefly from indirect taxes, licenses, and customs duties on imports. In 1870, it amounted to 45,360,859 francs, and the expenditure to 51,762,316 francs. The cost of maintaining the army, however, the outlay for public works, and other large sums disbursed—amounting in 1873 to 24,496,109 francs—are not included in the expenditure, being provided out of the French budget.

Since the subjugation of A., the French have conferred various benefits on the colonists and native tribes, not the least important of which has been the digging of Artesian wells (q. v.). In May 1856, a 'boring' was commenced in an oasis of the Sahara or desert of the province of Constantine. A civil engineer, a sergeant of Spahis, and a detachment of

soldiers of the Foreign Legion, succeeded in bringing to light a splendid fountain or river, yielding not less than 4010 quarts of water per minute. The work was considered a miracle. From all quarters the Arabs flocked to behold and enjoy it. The native priests blessed it, naming it the 'Fountain of Peace.' Another well was termed the 'Fountain of Benediction.' In the oasis of Sidi-Rached, unproductive for want of water, a well was dug, and at a depth of 54 mètres, yielded 4300 quarts per minute. It is known as the 'Fountain of Gratitude,' and the enthusiasm excited at its opening was boundless. The idea of providing such wells has rightly been considered 'a stroke of strong political wisdom.'

The government has done service to the colonists by encouraging the formation of banking-companies, &c. In July 1860, arrangements were made with the state, and a great company formed, to construct railways throughout the colony: difficulties occurred, however, and, of all the projected lines, that from the sea to Constantine was the only one approaching completion by the beginning of 1870. A telegraph cable was laid in 1870 between Bona and Marseille.

It would be too much to affirm that the colonisation of A. has advanced rapidly. The French government has acted neither very promptly nor very liberally towards settlers; and the number of formalities which require to be gone through before one can properly secure the land which he has purchased, often disgusts the poor farmer. However, great efforts have been made for the improvement of agriculture: altogether, 5,139,136 acres are stated as being under cultivation; 413,112 acres being cultivated by Europeans. The total exports of A. amounted in 1870 to £4,978,250; the imports to £8,907,628. Large quantities of 'esparto' for making paper are exported to Great Britain. A number of Mohammedan schools for instruction in French and Arabic have been established, and are regularly attended by pupils of both sexes, who learn to read and write fluently in the French language, and to keep accounts. In Algiers itself there are several of these schools where the female children are taught the art of sewing. Thus, although progress is slower than might have been anticipated, it is real, and its pace accelerating. When fierce memories have been softened by time, and such atrocities as those of Dahra (q. v.) have been forgotten in the substantial blessings which an enlightened civilisation cannot fail to bestow, the presence of the French in A. will cease to be deplored by the natives.

ALGHERO, or ALGHERI, a seaport on the west coast of the island of Sardinia, 15 miles S.W. from Sassari. It is well defended towards the sea, being built on a rocky point, and surrounded by thick walls, but is commanded by some hills which overhang the town. A. has a cathedral, several convents, a college, and public schools. It exports wine, tobacco, anchovies, skins, coral, bones, &c. It was a favourite residence of Charles V., in whose time it belonged to Spain. Pop., 8000.

ALGIERS (Arabic, Al-jezira, the island), the capital of Algeria, was built about 935 A.D. by an Arab chief. It rises from the sea-shore up the side of a precipitous hill in the form of an equilateral triangle. The apex is formed by the Casbah, the ancient fortress of the deys, which is 500 feet above the sea-level, and commands the whole town. The base is a mile in length. The present city may be regarded as divided into two parts: the old, or high town; and the new, or low town. With the exception of some mosques, the latter consists of wharfs, warehouses, government houses, squares, and streets, principally built and inhabited by the French; while the former is almost wholly Moorish both in its edifices and inhabitants. The great centre of bustle and activity in A. is the Place Royale—a large oblong space in the centre of the town, planted with orange and lime trees, and surrounded by houses in the European style. Here may be found as motley a crowd as anywhere in the world, denizens of all nations—Arabs, Moors, Jews, French, Spaniards, Maltese, Germans, Italians, &c. The city is intersected by two large parallel streets, Bab-el-Ouad and Bab-azoun, running north and south for more than half a mile. They are flanked by colonnades, but are very narrow, and therefore inconvenient for traffic; as promenades, however, nothing could be more agreeable. In 1833, A. had upwards of 100 mosques and marabouts. The mosques are divided into two classes—the djamas, or principal mosques, and the mesjids, or inferior mosques. The marabouts are the tombs and sanctuaries of saints. Everywhere A. wears the aspect of a rising colonial city. Other towns in the province still retain their oriental character, with the exception of a few military buildings; but the new town of A. might deceive the traveller into the belief that he is still in Europe, were it not for the throng of swarthy faces he meets. The streets are regular, spacious, and elegant; some of them as handsome as the Parisian Boulevards, and adorned with arcades. The shops, too, are occasionally very good. The houses are in some instances five stories high, which, though it gives a massive and imposing appearance to the city, is yet a very perilous innovation in a place which has suffered dreadfully from earthquakes.

But perhaps greater interest attaches to the old Moorish town, which is connected with the new by a steep, narrow, jagged-looking street called the Casbah, leading down from the fortress of the deys. The houses are square, substantial, flat-roofed; rise irregularly one over the other; and have no windows, but only peep-holes, which are intended to exclude impertinent eyes, and are therefore fortified with iron gratings instead of glass, so that the houses have a very prison-like appearance. Although the streets at first contrast unfavourably with those of Europe, on account of their narrowness, the coolness which this secures soon reconciles the traveller to other inconveniences. The inhabitants have recourse to their flat roofs or terraces in the evening, to enjoy the delicious sea-breeze. The French have introduced many useful reforms. There are conduits in every part of the city, public baths, coffee-houses, hotels, omnibuses, &c. The markets are held in the Squares de Chartres, Mahon, and d'Isly. Horse-racing is the great amusement. The Arabs are passionately fond of it. The French have also improved, at great expense and labour, the port, which was in a precarious condition. The town has supreme courts of justice, a chamber and tribunal of commerce, a college and schools, a Catholic cathedral and several churches, a French Protestant church, a synagogue, a bazaar for the exhibition of native industry, theatres, and banks.

A., which had been wretchedly misgoverned by a long succession of Turkish deys, fell into the hands of the French in 1830 (see ALGERIA), who swept away every trace of the ferocious despotism that had prevailed. The Turks withdrew in great numbers to Tunis and Alexandria; a small remnant, however, is still left. Pop. in 1866, 52,614, of whom about 34,000 were Europeans.

ALGOA BAY, an extensive inlet at the east extremity of the south coast of Africa, being intersected by the parallel of Cape Town, from which it is distant about 8 degrees of longitude. Its anchorage is sheltered, excepting on the south-east, the holding-ground being excellent. It receives two rivers, the

Sunday and the Baasher. At the mouth of the latter is Port Elizabeth. A. B. is the harbour of the eastern province, by far the most flourishing section of the colony; and it will ever be locally memorable as the landing-place of about 4000 souls in 1820, the first British emigration to this once Dutch possession. Since then, the trade of the bay has steadily and rapidly increased. See further, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

ALGO'NQUINS. The A. formed the most prominent of the three aboriginal races that the French found in the great basin of the St Lawrence. They were then the lords not merely of the best part of Canada, but of much adjacent territory to the north and west. At the present day, the A., as well as the Hurons and the Iroquois, exist, at least within the pale of settlement, only as the shadow of a mighty name, being chiefly confined to several miserable villages, with hardly anything of civilisation but its individual helplessness. This deplorable result, from whatever causes it may have arisen, is certainly not to be imputed either to oppression or to indifference on the part of the French, who, politically, religiously, and socially, have always treated the red man with consideration and humanity. On this interesting subject, see further under the general head of AMERICA.

A'LGUACIL, or ALGUAZIL (derived from the Arabic *Wasil*, i. e., the 'power' derived from the king), is the general name in Spain of the officers intrusted with the execution of justice. There are 'Alguaciles mayores,' who either inherit the office of executing justice in a town as a hereditary right belonging to their families, or are chosen to the office by the municipality; formerly, the name was also given to the officers that executed the sentences or orders of tribunals, such as the tribunal of the Inquisition, and of the various orders of knights. But usually, under the name of A., is understood the 'Alguaciles menores,' or 'ordinarios,' that is to say, the attendants or officers of the courts of justice, gens d'armes, bailiffs—in short, all the inferior officers of justice and police.

ALHA'GI. See MANNA.

ALHA'MBRA is the name given to the fortress which forms a sort of acropolis or citadel to the city

Entrance to the Court of the Lions, Alhambra.

of Granada, and in which stood the palace of the ancient Moorish kings of Granada. The name is a corruption of the Arabic *Kal'at al hamra*, 'the red castle.' It is surrounded by a strong wall, more than a mile in circuit, and studded with towers. The towers on the north wall, which is defended by nature, were used as residences connected with the palace. One of them contains the famous *Hall of the Ambassadors*. The remains of the Moorish palace are called by the Spaniards the Casa Real. It was begun by Ibnu-l-ahmar, and continued by his successors (1248—1348). The portions still standing are ranged round two oblong courts, one called the *Court of the Fish-pond*, the other the *Court of the Lions*. They consist of porticos, pillared halls, cool chambers, small gardens, fountains, mosaic pavements, &c. The lightness and elegance of the columns and arches, and the richness of the ornamentation, are unsurpassed. The colouring is but little altered by time. The most characteristic parts of the Casa Real have been reproduced in the 'Alhambra Court' of the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. A great part of the ancient palace was removed to make way for the palace begun by Charles V., but never finished. It is long since any part of the Moorish palace was inhabited; but it is kept in a state of preservation as a work of art, and as a memorial of the tragic legend of the Abencerrages (q. v.).

ALI PASHA, one of the most ferocious and unscrupulous men that even the east has produced, was descended from an Albanian pasha, who perished at the siege of Corfu in 1716. He was born at Tepelen, a small place at the foot of the Klissoura Mountains, in Albania, in 1741. His mother was a vindictive and merciless woman, who never hesitated to employ the most revolting means of accomplishing her purposes. Having lost his father, a comparatively quiet and enlightened man, his education necessarily devolved upon her; and she did not fail to inspire him with the same remorseless sentiments that animated herself. His youth was passed in extreme peril and hardship, for the neighbouring pashas combining, had robbed his father of nearly all his possessions, in the effort to recover which, young Ali was repeatedly defeated, and at last had to betake himself to the mountains, and even to pledge his sword to save himself from dying of hunger. These calamities were not calculated to soften the native ferocity of his disposition; they only nurtured a mingled boldness and cunning, which afterwards developed itself in a variety of qualities, such as subtlety, dissimulation, foresight, treachery, vigour, and diabolical cruelty. It is said that the change in his fortune arose from his having accidentally discovered a chest of gold, with which he raised an army of 2000 men, gained his first victory, and entered Tepelen in triumph. On the very day of his return, he murdered his brother, and then imprisoned his mother in the harem on the charge of poisoning him, where she soon after died. He next reconciled himself to the Porte by helping to subdue the rebellious Vizier of Scutari; and thus acquired not only the lands that had been wrested from his father, but likewise several Greek cities. He also attacked and slew (with the permission of the sultan) Selim, Pasha of Delvino, and, as a reward, was appointed lieutenant to the new Pasha of Derwend; but instead of attending to the security of the high roads (which was his office), he rendered them more insecure than ever, by participating in the plunder which the *klephtis* (robbers) were allowed to make. The result was, his deposition by the Porte; but he speedily purchased back its favour, for he was a master-hand at bribery. Shortly after this, he acquired a high reputation as a soldier, and did such good service to the Turks in their Austro-Russian war of 1787, that he was named Pasha of Trikala in Thessaly; at the same time he seized Janina or Joannina, of which he

got himself appointed pasha by the instrumentality of terror, a forged firman, and bribery. It must be admitted that, as a ruler, he now displayed many excellent qualities. He swept his old friends, the robbers, from the mountain-roads, incorporated them into military troops, quelled the wretched factions that prevailed, and everywhere introduced order in the place of anarchy, by the vigour and vigilance of his administration.

A short time after this, he entered into an alliance with Napoleon Bonaparte, who sent him engineers. When Bonaparte was defeated in Egypt, Ali, in 1798, took the places in Albania possessed by the French. After a three years' war, he subdued the Suliotes, for which the Porte promoted him to be governor of Romania. About this time, he revenged upon the inhabitants of Gardiki an injury done to his mother forty years before, by the murder of 739 male descendants of the original offenders, who themselves were all dead.

In the interior of his dominions, Ali maintained the strictest order and justice. Security and peace reigned, high roads were constructed, and industry flourished, so that the European travellers, with whom he willingly held intercourse, considered him an active and intelligent governor. From the year 1807, when he once more entered into an alliance with Napoleon, the dependence of Ali on the Porte was merely nominal. Having failed, however, in his principal object, which was to obtain, at the peace of Tilsit, through the influence of Napoleon, Parga, on the coast of Albania, and the Ionian Islands, he now entered into an alliance with the English, to whom he made many concessions. In return for these, they granted Parga, nominally to the sultan, but really to Ali. As he now considered his power to be securely established, he caused the commanders of the Greek Armatoles (or Greek militia), who had hitherto given him assistance, to be privately assassinated one by one, while at the same time he put to death the assassins, to save himself from the suspicion of having been their instigator. The Porte at length determined to put an end to the power of this daring rebel; and in 1820, Sultan Mahmoud sentenced him to be deposed. Ali resisted for a time several pashas that were sent against him; but at last surrendered, on the security of an oath that his life and property would be granted him. Regardless of this, he was put to death, February 5, 1822. Ali possessed, indisputably, great natural gifts; but along with them, a character of the worst description. He never scrupled to use any means, provided it speedily secured his end. Yet we can hardly help admiring the singular talent which he invariably displayed. Like many other half-civilised monarchs and chiefs who have lived within the sphere of European influence, he was keenly alive to whatever transpired among the powers of Christendom. Though utterly illiterate himself, he had all the foreign journals translated and read to him. He watched every political change, as if conscious that the interests of his little region depended for their future prosperity on the west, and not on the east; and made friendly advances to both the French and the English, recognising, with a sagacity remarkable in a barbarian, that the practical dominion of the world had passed from the Crescent to the Cross.

ALIBAUD, Louis, notorious for his attempt to murder King Louis-Philippe, was, at the Revolution of July, quarter-master in the 15th regiment of the line. Having been degraded subsequently for an accidental brawl in the streets of Strasbourg, he demanded his discharge in 1834, and went to live at Perpignan, and then at Barcelona, where, having become a fanatical republican, he returned to Paris, with the determination to murder the king. A weariness of life had also seized him, so great, that he thought of suicide. It was on the 25th of June 1836, at the moment that the king, when driving through the gate of the Tuileries, bowed to the national guard as they presented arms, that A. fired the well-aimed ball, which passed close by the king's head. Being immediately seized, he regretted nothing but the failure of his attempt. After a short trial, he was sentenced to death, and was guillotined on the 11th of July.

ALI-BEN-ABI-TALEB, the first convert to Mohammedanism, and fourth calif, was the bravest and most faithful follower of the Prophet, whose daughter, Fatima, he married. Being made calif in the place of the murdered Othman, he was victorious over the rebels in ninety engagements. He took prisoner Aysha, the young widow of Mohammed, and his greatest enemy, in the battle of the Camel – so called because Aysha appeared in the field riding on a camel. Ali was murdered by a fanatic in the year 660. He was buried near Kufa, where a monument was afterwards erected to him, to which his votaries still go on pilgrimage, and which caused the building of the city Medjed Ali. The religious sect formed by the followers of Ali, called Shiites (q.v.), has spread extensively under that name in Persia and Tatary. The descendants of Ali and Fatima, called the Fatimites (q. v.), although much persecuted by the Ommaiades, have nevertheless ruled on the banks of the Nile and of the Tagus, in West Africa and in Syria. The best edition of the Proverbs or Maxims ascribed to Ali has been published by Fleischer (Ali's *Hundred Proverbs, Arabian and Persian*, Leip. 1837); Ali's *Diwan*, the most complete collection of his lyrical poems, mostly on religious subjects, appeared lately at Bulek, near Cairo.

A'LIBI, Lat., signifying 'elsewhere.' This is a defence resorted to in criminal prosecutions, when the party accused, in order to prove that he could not have committed the crime with which he is charged, tenders evidence to the effect that he was in a different place at the time the offence was committed. When true, there can be no better proof of innocence; but as offering the readiest and most obvious opportunity for false evidence, it is always regarded with suspicion. In the case of crimes the place of committing which is immaterial—as, for example, the act of fabricating the plates, or of throwing off the spurious notes, in a case of forgery—a proof of *A.* is of no avail.

ALICA'NTE, chief town of a province of the same name in Spain. The province, formed of parts of the old kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia, contains (1870) 440,470 inhabitants. The town, one of the most considerable seaports of Spain, has 31,500 inhabitants, and is the staple place for the products of Valencia, especially soda, cotton and linen fabrics, ropes, corn, oil, silk, and the wine of the neighbouring district, known as A. or *vino tinto*, on account of its dark colour. A good deal of this rough, and at the same time sweet, wine is used to doctor thin clarets for the British market. In 1331 the town was besieged by the Moors; and again by the French under Asfeld in 1709, when the English commandant of the citadel, Colonel Richards, with all his staff, perished by the explosion of a mine.

A'LIEN (Lat. *alienus*, belonging to another, foreign). The citizen of one state, when resident in another, unless naturalised (see NATURALISATION), is an alien. The condition of an alien does not necessarily result from foreign birth, for the son of a natural-born or naturalised Englishman is not an alien, wherever he may be born (4 Geo. II. c. 21, s. 1). This privilege even extends to the second

generation on the father's side; and thus a man whose paternal grandfather was an Englishman, is an Englishman himself, unless either his father or grandfather be liable to the penalties of felony, have been attainted of treason, or be serving in the army of a prince at war with England at the period of his birth (13 Geo. III. c. 21, s. 1). Neither is this privilege affected by the fact that the mothers of such persons were foreigners. The children of aliens born in England, except in the case of a hostile invasion, are natural-born subjects; but the children of English women by aliens are aliens, unless born within the British dominions. By 7 and 8 Vict. c. 66, s. 16, alien women married to natural-born subjects are naturalised. The allegiance due by an alien or stranger to the prince in whose dominions he resides, is usually called *local* or *temporary allegiance*. It differs from natural allegiance chiefly in this, that whereas natural allegiance is perpetual, and unaffected by change of residence, local allegiance ceases when the stranger transfers himself to another kingdom. See ALLEGIANCE. In 1792 and 1793, in consequence of the influx of foreigners caused by the French Revolution, several acts of parliament were passed, which are known by the name of the Alien Acts. The object of these acts was expressly to confer on the crown the power of banishing aliens from the realm; a power which there is reason to think was included in the general prerogative which the crown possesses of declaring war against the whole or any portion of the inhabitants of a foreign state. They were superseded by the Peace Alien Act (6 Will. IV. c. 11, 1836).

Changes extending the power of aliens to hold property, were introduced by 7 and 8 Vict. c. 66, and 10 and 11 Vict. c. 83; and the whole legislation regarding aliens was revised and placed on its present footing by the Naturalisation Act of 12th May 1870 (33 Vict. c. 14). By this act both real and personal property of every description may now be acquired, held, and disposed of, by an alien, in the same manner, in all respects, as by a natural-born British subject; and a title to real and personal property of every description may be derived from an alien, in the same manner, in all respects, as from a British subject. An alien is not qualified for any office or municipal, parliamentary, or other franchise, unless naturalised in accordance with the provisions of the act. The act does not affect any interest arising in pursuance of any disposition made before the passing of the act, or in pursuance of any devolution by law on the death of any person dying before the passing of the act. Where a convention has been entered into with a foreign state to the effect that the subjects, or citizens, of that state, who have been naturalised as British subjects, may divest themselves of such status, any person, originally a citizen of the state with which the convention exists, may make a declaration of alienage, and on so doing he shall be regarded as an alien and subject of the state to which he originally belonged. Even a British-born subject may now cease to be such, provided that, at the time of his birth, he was, and still continues to be, the subject of another state, by making a declaration of alienage. The privilege of aliens of being tried by a jury *de medietate linguæ* is abolished, and it is provided that henceforth they shall be tried in the same manner as natural-born subjects. On the subject of expatriation, it is enacted, that any British subject who has at any time before, or may at any time after the passing of this act, when in a foreign state and not under any disability, voluntarily become naturalised in such state, shall thenceforth cease to be a British subject. In the case of a British subject who, before the passing of the act, has been naturalised in a foreign state, desiring to retain his British nationality, he may do so by making a declaration and taking the oath of allegiance. Whilst resident within the limits of the foreign state, however, he shall not be deemed a British subject unless he has ceased to be a subject of that state. On naturalisation and the resumption of British nationality, see NATURALISATION.

By the above provisions it will be seen, that in so far as Great Britain is concerned, the injustice has been obviated of a man who had been naturalised in one state being still held to his citizenship in another, and thus exposed, in the event of war, to the guilt of treason if he took part on either side. The right of merchants to reside in England, and to possess goods, money, and other personal effects, is recognised by Magna Charta (Art. 46). See CONSPIRACY BILL.

ALI'GNMENT, a term used in military tactics, equivalent to 'in line.' Thus, the A. of a battalion is effected when the men are drawn up in line; the A. of a camp is a rectilinear arrangement of the tents, according to some prearranged plan.

A'LIMENT (Lat. *alimentum*), that which feeds or nourishes. A. is not known as a technical term in the law of England. In the law of France and in that of Scotland, it has retained the meaning which it possessed in the Roman law (*Dig.* 34, 1, 6), and signifies the food, dwelling, clothing, and other things necessary to the support of life, or such money as may be judicially demanded in lieu of them. In this sense, it is applied in Scotland to the allowance granted to a wife deserted by her husband, or whilst an action of divorce is in dependence, whether it be at his instance or at hers, to a pauper by his parish, to a prisoner for debt by his creditors, and the like. Alimentary allowances, being generally barely sufficient for the support of the recipient, and made to him in consequence of his being in want of such support, are not attachable by Arrestment (q. v.).

ALIMENTARY CANA'L, in Mammalia, is that portion of the digestive apparatus through which the food passes after mastication. It is lined by a mucous membrane, which extends from the lips to the anus, being modified in each region. See MUCOUS MEMBRANE. The A. C. really begins at the back of the mouth, in the lower part of the bag called the pharynx, which communicates with the nostrils above, and the gullet or œsophagus below, and also with the mouth and the larynx. The pharynx is surrounded by three muscles, the constrictors, which grasp the food, and force it into the next portion of the A. C., the œsophagus. This is a tube composed of an outer layer of longitudinal muscular fibres, and an inner of circular, which extend down to, and spread out upon the stomach. These fibres, by a series of peristaltic contractions, carry the morsel of food along into the stomach. In vomiting, there is a reversal of these actions, which ruminating animals can accomplish at will. The œsophagus passes through an opening in the diaphragm, and joins the stomach, which is a pouch curved with the concavity upwards, expanded into a *cul de sac* on the left side (the cardiac extremity), and gradually narrowed to the right or pyloric end. It consists of muscular fibres continuous with those of the œsophagus, which become thicker towards the pylorus. Its external surfaces are covered by peritoneum, and it is lined by a thick soft mucous membrane, which, when the stomach is empty, lies in folds. Between the muscular and mucous layers is a fibrous layer, in which the blood-vessels lie before they pass into the mucous layer. See STOMACH. At its pyloric or left extremity the

stomach communicates with the small intestine, which is about 20 feet in length, becoming gradually narrower towards its lower end, and arranged in numerous convolutions, which occupy the middle of the abdominal cavity, and are kept in position by the peritoneum, which attaches them to the back of the abdomen.

The small intestine is subdivided into three parts. The first 10 inches from the stomach is the duodenum, into which open the duct of the pancreas and the common bile duct; of the remainder, the *jejunum* includes about two-fifths, and the *ileum*, three-fifths. The differences between these last two are not visible externally, but consist in modifications of their internal structure. The tube consists of peritoneum, longitudinal and circular muscular fibres, a fibrous layer, and the mucous membrane. See INTESTINES, SMALL.

The ileum ends at the right iliac region in the large intestine, which is from 5 to 6 feet in length. It begins at the pouch called the blind gut (caput cœcum coli) or cul de sac (see CÆCUM) which has a small worm-like appendage (appendix vermiformis); a double valve guards the opening of the small into the large intestine. The colon passes upwards on the right side to below the liver (ascending colon), then crosses from the right hypochondrium across the upper umbilical region to the left hypochondrium (transverse colon), then descends to the left iliac fossa (descending colon), when it bends twice like an S (sigmoid flexure), and then joins the *rectum* at the left margin of the true pelvis. The colon is distinguished by its pouched or sacculated appearance, the sacs being separated by three flat bands of longitudinal muscular fibres. The peritoneum only covers it in parts. See COLON. The Rectum is not sacculated, but its muscular coat becomes much thicker; at its lower end the longitudinal fibres stop, but the muscular become more numerous, forming the internal sphincter muscle. The rectum is not straight, but takes a curved course.

The *A. C.* thus consists of a continuous passage lined by mucous membrane, which rests on a fibrous and muscular basement. Its length is generally about five or six times the length of the body, or, in other words, about thirty feet. It begins below the base of the skull, and passes through the thorax, abdomen, and pelvis, and consists shortly of the mouth, pharynx, œsophagus, stomach, small intestine, and large intestine. The above is the description of the A. C. in human anatomy; its parts are variously modified in different animals, as will be found in the articles on its several subdivisions.

ALIMONY signifies, in English law, the allowance which a married woman is entitled to receive out of her husband's estate, on separation or divorce *a mensâ et thoro*. It is generally proportioned to the rank and quality of the parties. Where the wife elopes and lives with an adulterer, the law allows her no A. By Scotch legal writers, the term is sometimes used as synonymous with *Aliment* (q. v.).

ALIQUOT PART. One quantity or number is said to be an A. P. of another, when it is contained in this other an exact number of times without remainder. Thus 2, 2½, 4, and 5 are A. parts of 20, being contained in it 10, 8, 5, and 4 times. The consideration of A. parts occurs chiefly in the rule of *Practice*. Suppose we have to find the price of a number of articles at 6½*d.*: since ½*d.* is the 8th part of 6*d.*, to the price at 6*d.* (which is found at once in shillings, by taking half the number of articles), add ⅛ of that price.

ALISMA'CEÆ, a natural order of monocotyledonous plants, consisting of herbaceous plants either floating in water or growing in swamps. The leaves have parallel veins, even if expanded into a broad blade. The flowers are in umbels, racemes, or panicles; the sepals 3, the petals 3, the number of stamens definite or indefinite. The ovaries are several, superior, one-celled, distinct or united; the styles and stigmas equal to them in number. The fruit is dry, with one or two seeds in each carpel; the seeds exalbuminous.—There are about fifty

Water Plantain (*Alisma plantago*).

known species, excluding the natural order JUNCAGINEÆ, which is very nearly allied, and is included in this by some botanists. The species of both orders are chiefly natives of the northern parts of the world. WATER PLANTAIN (*Alisma plantago*) is a very common plant in stagnant waters in Britain, and is not destitute of beauty. Its leaves, which have long footstalks, shoot up above the water and amongst them, but far above them rises the erect scape or leafless stem, dividing into slender whorled branches and branchlets, among which the little flowers appear to lie thinly scattered. The fleshy rhizome, or root-stock, is eaten by the Calmucks, after it has been deprived of its acridity by drying. The corms of the ARROWHEAD (*Sagittaria*) possess somewhat similar properties. See ARROWHEAD.

A'LISON, REV. ARCHIBALD, was born in Edinburgh in 1757. He studied at the university of Glasgow, and afterwards at Oxford. He took orders in the church of England in 1784, and subsequently held several preferments, among others, a prebendal stall in Salisbury, and the perpetual curacy of Kenley, in Shropshire. From 1800, Mr A. ceased to reside in England, and officiated in a chapel in his native city, where he died in 1839. A. is principally known by his *Essays on the Nature and Principles of Taste*, first published in 1790. The second edition, in 1811, gave occasion to an article by Jeffrey, in the *Edinburgh Review*, which brought the book more before the public. It has since gone through several editions, and been translated into German and French. The *Essays* advocate what is called the 'association' theory of the sublime and beautiful, and are distinguished for their pleasing and elegant style, and the fine feeling that pervades them. See ÆSTHETICS.

ALISON, SIR ARCHIBALD, Bart., born at Kenley, Shropshire, in 1792, was the younger son of the Rev. Archibald A., author of the *Essays on the Nature*

and Principles of Taste. His mother was Dorothea Gregory, daughter of Dr John Gregory of Edinburgh. In 1800, his father removed to the Scottish metropolis, where he had accepted the senior charge in the Episcopal chapel in the Cowgate, and thus A. had the advantage of studying in a city then, as now, distinguished for its politeness and learning. At Edinburgh University he obtained the highest honours in Greek and mathematics. After he had finished his curriculum, he became a member of the Scottish bar in 1814, but spent a considerable number of years on the continent, before devoting himself to legal avocations. In 1822, he was named advocate-depute, which office he held till 1830. He now began to appear as a writer on law, politics, and literature. His *Principles of the Criminal Law of Scotland*, published at Edinburgh in 1832, is considered a standard authority on the subject. In the following year he published a sequel to the work, entitled *The Practice of the Criminal Law.* In 1834, he was appointed sheriff of Lanarkshire, by Sir Robert Peel; in 1845, the students of Aberdeen elected him 'Lord Rector' of Marischal College; in 1851, he received the same honour from the students of Glasgow University, and subsequently, the title of D.C.L. from the university of Oxford. His great work is undoubtedly *The History of Europe during the French Revolution* (10 vols. 8vo, 1839—42), which narrates the events that occurred from 1789 to 1815; a continuation, under the title of *The History of Europe from the Fall of Napoleon to the Accession of Louis Napoleon* (9 vols.), was finished in 1859. He also published a *Life of the Duke of Marlborough, The Principles of Population, &c., Free Trade and Protection, England in* 1815 *and* 1845, besides contributing for many years to *Blackwood's Magazine* a series of tedious articles on Tory politics. It is very difficult to characterise Sir Archibald's *magnum opus, The History of Europe.* Although a work of immense industry, of very respectable accuracy, written with great animation and tolerable candour, it has failed to impress critics with a high idea of Sir Archibald A.'s abilities. The style is at times excessively wordy, and even when animated, it is never picturesque. Neither has he much insight into events or characters. Nevertheless, as his work supplied a felt want, and is sufficiently entertaining for a large class of readers, it met with an excessive popularity. It has gone through numerous editions, and has been translated into German, French, Arabic, and other languages. A. died May 1867.

ALISON, WILLIAM PULTENEY, M.D., political economist, physician, and professor of the practice of medicine, in the university of Edinburgh, from which last office, however, he retired in 1855, was an elder brother of the historian. He was extremely popular with all classes of the community, from the amiable and humane disposition which he invariably shewed in his efforts to alleviate the sufferings of the poor. A pamphlet published by Dr A. in 1840, to shew how the inadequate provision for the poor in Scotland led to desolating epidemics, was the principal means of bringing about an improved poor-law for that country. His other writings are—*Outlines of Physiology*, and *Outlines of Pathology and Practice of Medicine.* In a work published at Edinburgh in 1850, entitled a *Dissertation on the Reclamation of Waste Lands*, he fully examines the subject, and recommends the colonisation of these by paupers and criminals. He died September 1859.

ALIWA'L, a village near the southern bank of the Sutlej, and not far from the town of Loodianah, in lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 75° 36′ E. It was the scene of a fierce conflict between the British and Sikh forces on the 28th of January 1846. The latter having crossed the river for the purpose of foraging, or otherwise obtaining supplies, had threatened Loodianah, when they were attacked by Sir Harry Smith, defeated, and driven back with great slaughter. The victory of A. is said by good judges to have been 'without a fault.'

A'LKAHEST, or ALCAHEST, the universal solvent of the alchemists. See ALCHEMY.

A'LKALIES. The word *alkali* is of Arabic origin, *kali* being the name of the plant from the ashes of which an alkaline substance was first procured. The name now denotes a class of substances having similar properties. The alkalies proper are four in number—potash, soda, lithia, and ammonia. The first three are oxides of metals; the last is a compound of nitrogen, hydrogen, and oxygen, and, being in the form of a gas, is called the volatile alkali. Potash, being largely present in the ashes of plants, is called the vegetable alkali; and soda, predominating in the mineral kingdom, is designated the mineral alkali. The *alkaline earths*, as they are called—lime, magnesia, baryta, and strontia—are distinguished from the former by their carbonates not being soluble in water. The distinguishing property of alkalies is that of turning vegetable blues green, and vegetable yellows reddish brown. Blues reddened by an acid are restored by an alkali. The alkalies have great affinity for acids, and combine with them, forming salts, in which the peculiar qualities of both alkali and acid are generally destroyed; hence they are said to neutralise one another. In a pure state, alkalies are extremely caustic, and act as corrosive poisons. Combined with carbonic acid, especially as bi-carbonates, they are used to correct acidity in the stomach; but the injudicious and continued use of them is attended with great evil.

ALKALI'METER. Commercial potash and soda always contain greater or less quantities of foreign substances, such as sulphate of potash, common salt, silicates, oxide of iron, water, &c., which diminish the percentage of real alkali in a given weight. It is important, then, for the manufacturer to have some simple and ready means of determining the proportion of pure carbonate of potash or soda contained in any sample, that he may be able to judge of its value. Ordinary chemical analysis takes too much time. The A. serves this purpose. It consists of a graduated glass tube, filled with diluted sulphuric acid, and containing as much absolute sulphuric acid as would neutralise a given weight, say 100 grains, of carbonate of potash. 100 grains of the article to be judged of is then dissolved in water, and as much acid is gradually added to it from the tube as to neutralise the solution, that is, take up all the alkali. The application of coloured tests determines when the neutralisation is complete. The purer the article, the more of the acid will be required; and if the tube, which is divided into 100 degrees, has been emptied to the 80°, the impure article contains 80 per cent. of pure carbonate of potash.

This method of determining the strength of alkalies is called the *alkalimetry process;* but the instrument is not confined in its use to the estimation of the strength of alkaline substances. It is likewise employed in the determination of the strength of acids, such as sulphuric acid, hydrochloric acid, nitric acid, and acetic acid (vinegar). For this end, the graduated instrument is charged with a solution of an alkali of known strength, such as a given weight of crystallised carbonate of soda (washing soda), dissolved in water, and according to the number of divisions of the liquid poured from the A., the strength of the acid into which the alkaline liquid has been decanted, is calculated. The latter application

of this instrument is called *acidimetry*. Again, the same graduated glass tube has been recently employed in many other ways, such as the determination of the strength of a solution of silver, by charging the instrument with a known or standard solution of common salt; and for this purpose it is used largely by the assayers to the Royal Mint, and other metallurgic chemists. This mode of analysis is every day becoming of more and more importance, and, in fact, has given rise to a new department of analytical chemistry, which has been designated *volumetric analysis*.

ALKALOIDS form an important class of substances discovered by modern chemistry. They are divided into two classes—namely, *natural* and *artificial*. The natural A. are found in plants and animals, and are often designated *organic bases*. Those obtained from plants are likewise called *vegeto-alkalies*. They are composed essentially of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen; besides which, the greater number contain oxygen. The A. have generally an energetic action on the animal system, and hence are every day employed in small doses as medicine; whilst in comparatively large doses they are powerful poisons. They have, although in a low degree, the characteristic alkaline properties on vegetable colours, &c.; have generally a bitter, acrid taste; and form the active principles of the plants in which they are found. Such are morphia, codeine, and narcotine, found in opium; quinine and chinconine, in chincona bark; strychnine, in nux-vomica; hyoscyamine, in henbane; nicotine, in tobacco; piperine, in black pepper; caffeine or theine, in coffee and tea, &c.

The animal A. are few in number, the more important being urea, found in the urine of the mammalia; and kreatine and kreatinine, two of the constituents of the juice of flesh. The artificial A. are those organic bases which are not found in any known plant or animal, but of which the later researches of chemists have contrived to form a large number. As the artificial A. do not differ essentially from the natural A. in composition, structure, or properties, it is confidently believed that the day is not far distant when all of the A. will be prepared artificially; indeed, recently several of the natural A. have been manufactured on the small scale without the intervention of the living plant or animal. For instance, urea can be formed from the simplest form of dead organic nitrogenous matter.

ALKANET (*Anchusa*), a genus of plants belonging to the natural order *Boraginea*, and having a 5-partite calyx, a funnel-shaped or salver-shaped corolla, with five scales closing its mouth, five stamens, an obtuse stigma, and ovate achænia, which are surrounded at the base by a plaited tumid ring. The species are herbaceous plants, rough with stiff hairs, and having lanceolate or elongato-ovate leaves, and spike-like, bracteated, lateral and terminal racemes of flowers, which very much resemble those of the species of *Myosotis*, or Forget-me-not.—The COMMON A. (*A. officinalis*) grows in dry and sandy places, and by waysides, in the middle and north of Europe. It is rare and a very doubtful native in Britain. The flowers are of a deep purple colour. The roots, leaves, and flowers were formerly used in medicine as an emollient, cooling, and soothing application. —The EVERGREEN A. (*A. sempervirens*) is also a native of Europe, and a doubtful native of Britain, although not uncommon in situations to which it may have escaped from gardens, being often cultivated for the sake of its beautiful blue flowers, which appear early in the season, and for its leaves, which retain a pleasing verdure all winter. It is a plant of humble growth, rising only a few inches above the ground.—A number of other species are occasionally seen in our flower-borders.—*A. tinctoria*, to which the name A. or ALKANNA (Arab. *Al-chennch*) more strictly belongs, is a native of the Levant and of the south of Europe, extending as far north as Hungary. The root is sold under the name of A. or Alkannaroot; it is sometimes cultivated in England; but the greater part is imported from the Levant or the south of France. It appears in commerce in pieces of the thickness of a quill or of the finger, the rind blackish externally, but internally of a beautiful dark-red colour, and adhering rather loosely to the whitish heart. It contains chiefly a resinous red colouring-matter, called *Alkanna Red*, *Anchusic Acid*, or *Anchusine*. The colour which it yields is very beautiful, although not very durable. It is readily soluble in oils, and is therefore in very general use amongst perfumers for colouring oils, soaps, pomades, lip-salves, &c. It is extensively used for colouring spurious port-wine. It also enters into compositions for rubbing and giving colour to furniture. Its solutions in oils and alcohol have almost a carmine red colour, although to water it gives only a brownish hue. It combines with alkalies, forming blue solutions; with chloride of tin, it becomes of a carmine red; with acetate of lead, blue; with sulphate of iron, dark violet; with alum, purple; and with acetate of alumina, violet. —VIRGINIAN A. (*A. Virginica*) yields a similar colouring-matter, and is used in the same way.

Alkanet (*Anchusa officinalis*).

ALKA'NNA (*Al-henna*) is also a name given to a colouring-matter prepared from the leaves of *Lawsonia inermis*, and used by oriental ladies to give a red colour to their nails. See HENNA.

ALKMAA'R, an old town in the province of North Holland, in the Netherlands, situated on the Helder Canal, 20 miles N.N.W. of Amsterdam, in lat. 52° 38' N., long. 4° 43' E. Pop. 10,500. It is well built, has very clean streets, and is intersected by broad canals. It possesses a town-house, ornamented with curious Gothic carving. The inhabitants support themselves by important manufactures of sail-cloth, sea-salt, &c., as well as by trade in grain, butter, and cheese. A. is said to export more of the last-mentioned commodity than any other town in the world; 9,000,000 lbs. annually is the quantity specified. It is the birthplace of Henry of A. See REINEKE FUCHS. Here, on October 18, 1799, the Duke of York signed a not very honourable capitulation, after his Russo-British army had been twice defeated by the French general Brune.

ALLA BREVE. In old music, the breve 𝅜, as the longest note, was equivalent to our semibreve, 𝅝, the longest note commonly used in modern music. Consequently, the minims anciently used were equivalent to our crotchets. Music written with four minims in a bar is signed *Alla Breve*, which implies that the four minims must be sung as four crotchets. The differ nce between the two styles of writing is merely formal. Other signs for A. B. time are $\frac{2}{2}$, or C, or *Alla Capella*.

ALLAH (compounded of the article, *al* and *ildh*—i. e., 'the worthy to be adored') is the

Arabic name of the one God, to whose worship Mohammed pledged his followers; and the word has passed into all languages wherever the name of Islam has been heard. The notions of the character of this God given by Mohammed in the Koran bear manifest traces of Jewish and Christian influence, and are much superior to the national superstitions and impassioned fancies of the orientals in general. Above all other things, Mohammed inculcated the unity of God in the strictest sense, in opposition not only to idolatry, but also in some points to the belief of the Jews and Christians, as is seen in the following formula or creed: 'There is no God but *the* God (Allah). This only true, great, and highest God has his existence of himself, is eternal, *not begotten, and begets not*, suffices for himself, fills the universe with his infinity, is the centre in whom all things unite, manifest and concealed, Lord of the corporeal and spiritual worlds, creator and ruler, almighty, all-wise, all-good, merciful, and his decrees are irrevocable.' Mohammed has ventured on very bold illustrations of these attributes for popular representation, as in the passage of the Koran where he says: 'If all the trees on earth were pens, and if there were seven oceans full of ink, they would not suffice to describe the wonders of the Almighty.' The different attributes of God, divided under his ninety-nine names, and connected together in a certain order in a litany, form the rosary of the Mohammedans, which concludes with the name A., as the hundredth, including in itself all the former epithets.

A'LLAHABA'D, a British district in the North-west Provinces of India, between lat. 24° 49', 25° 44'; long. 81° 14', 82° 26'. It is 85 miles in length by 50 in breadth—area, 2765 square miles. The surface of the country is in general level, with a slope towards the S.E. The principal rivers are the Ganges (flowing partly within it, and partly dividing it from Oude and Mirzapore), and its great affluent the Jumna, which joins it at the city of A. The district is well watered, and vegetation is luxuriant. The native agriculture at the end of the last century was singularly rude and deficient, but the efforts of British residents have done much for its improvement. The principal products of the district are cotton and salt; and there is a brisk transit-trade by the Jumna in cotton, indigo, and sugar. The population, in 1871, was 1,394,245, chiefly agricultural, about 100,000 being Mohammedans and others not Hindus. The four principal towns are Allahabad, Shahzadpore, Bhugeisur, and Adampore. —The Province or 'Division' of A. comprehends the districts of Cawnpore, Futtehpur, Humeerpore, and Calpee, Banda, and A. It is bounded N. by Oude and Agra, E. by Behar, S. by Gundwana, and W. by Malwa. Its length is about 270 miles; breadth, 120; area, 13,574 square miles; population, 5,466,116. It comprises one of the most populous and productive territories in India.

ALLAHABAD. This 'city of God'—for that is the meaning of its variously pronounced name—occupies the fork of the Ganges and Jumna, lat. 25° 26 N., long. 81° 85 E., thus forming the lowest extremity of the extensive region which, as lying between those natural boundaries, is distinguished as the *Doab*, or the country of *Two Rivers*—an analogous term to the *Punjab*, or the country of *Five Rivers*. The situation of A., at the confluence of the holy streams of India, besides giving the city its sacred appellation, has rendered it a much-frequented place of pilgrimage for the purposes of ablution, some of the devotees sinking themselves with weights to rise no more. In point of appearance, A. was scarcely worthy of its character and renown. With the exception of a few ancient monuments of costly, elaborate, and tasteful workmanship, the native part of the city consists of mean houses and narrow streets. As in the towns generally of India, the European quarter, on the whole, is vastly superior. Its nucleus appears to have been the native fort, which, on the east and south, rises directly from the banks of both rivers, while towards the land its artificial defences, of great strength in themselves, are not commanded from the neighbourhood by any higher ground. This citadel, described by Heber as having been at one time 'a very noble castle,' has lost much of its romance by having had its lofty towers pruned down to bastions and cavaliers. The Europeans of the garrison occupy well-constructed barracks. Beyond the fort are the cantonments for the native troops. In connection with these are numerous villas and bungalows, few other spots in India boasting such handsome buildings of this kind; and these showy retreats are rendered still more attractive and agreeable by avenues of trees, which wind between them, and connect them with the fort, the city, and several of the circumjacent localities.

The summer of 1857 brought disaster to A. On the 6th of June of that year, the insurrection, which had begun at Meerut on 10th May, extended itself to A. Though the Europeans continued to hold the fort, yet the mutineers were, for some days, undisputed masters of all beyond; and between the ravages of the marauders and the fire of the garrison, the city soon became little better than a heap of blackened ruins. In the history of this fearful outbreak, A. must be 'a magic word' to every English ear, as the spot where the fiery Neill entered on his brief career of glory. It was here also that Lord Canning, after the close of the mutiny, distributed three millions sterling in presents to the chiefs who had remained loyal. But although situated thus in the heart of the outbreak, and feeling its disastrous effects, the city possesses natural advantages that have allowed it to recover. Its position at the confluence of the holy rivers, which has so long made it a centre of superstitious reverence and worship, now renders it naturally a centre of commerce and civilisation, and has been fully appreciated by government. It commands the navigation both of the Ganges and of the Jumna. It is on the direct water-route between Calcutta and the Upper Provinces; and is a main station, not only on the Grand Trunk Road, but also on the East Indian Railway. New buildings, many of them possessing great architectural merits, have accordingly sprung up with rapidity since 1857; the most noteworthy buildings being still, however, the Great Mosque and the Sultaun Khosro's Caravanserai—a fine cloistered quadrangle. The Fort is of red stone, and is approached by a very handsome gate: it contains the palace or Residency, and the Gada pillar or Club of Bhim Sen, in the Chalee Satoom Temple, which is said to communicate with Benares by a subterranean passage, through which flows a third holy river, the Sereswati, visible only to the eye of faith. A. possesses a college, an hospital, theatres, bazaars, &c. The inhabitants number (1871) 105,926. So many poor pilgrims throng the city, especially at the time of the Great Fair, which is held once every twelve years, that instead of Allahabad, the natives call it 'Fakirabad,' or the City of Beggars. The cotton, sugar, and indigo produce of the fertile district of A. is brought in large quantities into the city, to be transported thence to Calcutta and elsewhere. Steamers sail to Calcutta, and barges to Delhi. A. is distant from Calcutta, by land, 496 miles; by water, 803 miles in the rainy season;

by water, 985 miles in the dry season. From Delhi it is distant 386 miles; and from Bombay, by the Jubbulpore branch of the East Indian Railway, 840 miles.

ALLAMA'NDA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Apocynaceæ* (q. v.), distinguished by a 5-parted calyx without glands, a funnel-shaped corolla with its limb campanulate, and the fruit a prickly capsule. *A. cathartica*, a native of the West Indies, is a shrub with whorled or opposite oblong leaves, and large yellow flowers on many-flowered footstalks. It has violently emetic and purgative properties; but in small doses, an infusion of the leaves is esteemed a valuable cathartic medicine, especially in the cure of painter's colic. All the species are natives of the tropical parts of America.

A'LLAN, Bridge of, a beautiful village, consisting chiefly of lodging-houses, lying within the shelter of a spur of the Ochils, on the road from Stirling to Perth, from the former of which towns it is only three miles distant. It is situated on the banks of the Allan, which, like the heights behind the place, are richly wooded. It owes its prosperity partly to its mineral (saline) wells, and partly to its sheltered situation and mild climate, which render it a favourite resort of invalids, especially in spring and autumn. There are excellent hotels, and abundance of good lodgings. Pop. (1871) 3055.

ALLAN, David, a distinguished Scottish painter of domestic subjects, in which he was the forerunner of Wilkie, was born at Alloa in 1744. In 1755, he entered the academy for drawing, painting, and engraving, established in Glasgow by the celebrated printer Foulis, where he studied for seven years. The liberality of friends enabled him, in 1764, to go to Rome, where he resided for sixteen years. In 1773, he gained the gold medal given by the Academy of St Luke for the best historical composition. The subject was the 'Origin of Painting,' the old legend of the Corinthian maid who drew her lover's profile from the shadow. This picture, the highest effort of Allan's powers, was engraved by Cunego. Of his other pictures executed at Rome, the best known are four humorous pieces illustrating the Carnival, which were engraved by Paul Sandby. In 1777, A. came to London, where he painted portraits; after a year or two, he removed to Edinburgh; and in 1786, succeeded Runciman at the head of the art academy established there by the Board of Manufactures. His works subsequent to this date were chiefly of a humorous description, and illustrative of Scottish domestic life. His illustrations of Allan Ramsay's *Gentle Shepherd* became very popular, but are of no great merit. A. died at Edinburgh in 1796. 'His merits,' says Allan Cunningham, 'are of a limited nature; he neither excelled in fine drawing nor in harmonious colouring; and grace and grandeur were beyond his reach. His genius lay in expression, especially in grave humour and open drollery.'

ALLAN, Sir William, a distinguished Scottish historical painter, was born at Edinburgh in 1782. He was educated at the High School; and having early displayed a taste for drawing, was entered as a pupil in the School of Design connected with the Royal Institution, with the intention of becoming a coach-painter. Among his fellow-students and friends were David Wilkie, John Burnet, and others who afterwards rose to eminence. He subsequently studied for some time at the Royal Academy of London. Finding difficulties in the way of professional advancement in the metropolis, he determined to go abroad; and in 1805, set out for St Petersburg, where the friendly interest of his countryman, Sir Alexander Crichton, the imperial family physician, soon procured him employment. In the Russian capital, he spent several years, diligently pursuing his professional labours, and making occasional tours to the south of Russia, the Crimea, Turkey, and Circassia, where he made numerous sketches, some of which supplied the materials of his best known works. In 1814, he returned to Edinburgh, and soon after exhibited his 'Circassian Captives,' a large picture, distinguished by the picturesqueness of the subject and the elaborate fidelity and spirit of its treatment. He had exhibited several pictures before this, but not till now was his reputation as an artist fairly established. The remuneration of his labours, however, was not so ready as the public acknowledgment of their worth. The purchase of two of his pictures by the Grand Duke Nicholas, afterwards emperor, when on a visit to Edinburgh, contributed in no small degree to promote the sale of his works. A severe attack of ophthalmia obliged him for a time to suspend his exertions. He employed his leisure in visiting Italy, Turkey, Greece, and Asia Minor. On returning home, he resumed his brush, and for many years laboured with great assiduity. In 1826, he was elected an Associate of the London Academy; in 1835, an Academician. In 1838, on the death of Mr George Watson, the Royal Scottish Academy elected him as its president, and on the death of Sir David Wilkie in 1841, he was appointed Limner to Her Majesty for Scotland. He was at the same time knighted. At intervals, he made excursions into the continent, visiting Spain and Morocco in 1834, St Petersburg in 1841, and Germany and Belgium in 1847. At St Petersburg, he received a commission from the emperor to paint a large picture of 'Peter the Great teaching Shipbuilding to his Subjects;' it was exhibited at London in 1845, and is now in the imperial Winter Palace. For some time before his death, he had been diligently working at a great picture of 'Bruce at Bannockburn.' He died in his painting-room, to which his bed had been removed, on the 22d of February 1850. The great merits of Sir W. A. as a painter consist in his conscientious fidelity, his skill in composition, and the dramatic force of his representations. The impulse contributed by him to historical painting, especially of national subjects, entitles him to a very high place in the history of Scottish art. Among his chief works, many of which are well known through engravings, are—'John Knox admonishing Queen Mary,' 1823; 'Queen Mary signing her abdication,' 1824; 'Death of the Regent Moray,' 1825; 'Polish Exiles,' 1834; 'The Slave-market at Constantinople,' 1837; 'Battle of Prestonpans,' 1842; 'Waterloo,' two pictures, from the French and English positions, the first of which was bought by the Duke of Wellington.

ALLA'NTOIS, a delicate membranous bag, which makes its appearance in the eggs of birds during incubation, and is a provision chiefly for the aeration of the blood of the embryo or chick. It sprouts from the lower part of the intestine of the chick, and rapidly enlarges, so as almost completely to enclose it, lining nearly the whole extent of the *membrana putaminis*—the double membrane which is immediately within the egg-shell. It is covered with a net-work of arteries and veins, corresponding to the umbilical artery and vein of Mammalia; and the aëration of the blood is accomplished by the air which enters through the pores of the shell; but as the lungs become capable of their function, the circulation in the A. diminishes, and its footstalk contracts, and at last divides, leaving only a ligamentous remnant. The A. is never developed in the eggs of Fishes and Amphibians, hence these are called Anallantoid Vertebrates;

while Reptiles, Birds, and Mammalia, in which it is present, are called Allantoid. In the Mammalia, it is superseded at an early period of fœtal life by other contrivances, but continues to exist in the lower animals for receiving the urinary secretion through the urachus, a purpose which it serves in birds and reptiles likewise. In the human species, it disappears very early, only a minute vesicle remaining.

ALLA'RD, generalissimo of the army of Lahore, and previously adjutant to Marshal Brune under Napoleon, was born in 1783. After the murder of Marshal Brune (q. v.), A. left France (1815), intending to emigrate to America; but changed his plan, entered into the service of Abbas-Mirza of Persia, and afterwards went to Lahore (1820), where he engaged in the service of Runjeet Singh (q. v.), by whom he was made generalissimo, and whose forces he organised and trained in the European modes of warfare. Having married a native of Lahore, he identified himself with the interests of his adopted country, but could not entirely forget France. The July revolution brought him back to Paris, where he was received with distinction, and was made French *chargé d'affaires* in Lahore. He presented to the Royal Library of Paris a valuable collection of coins, and returned to Lahore (1836), leaving his wife and children in Paris. In the subsequent battles of Runjeet Singh with the Afghans, A. repeatedly distinguished himself, and died at Peshawur, January 23, 1839. His remains were, according to his own wish, buried with military honours at Lahore.

ALLEGHA'NIES, a name perhaps originally limited to the mountain-cradle of the river next mentioned, but often popularly extended to the whole chain, otherwise called the Appalachians (q. v.).

ALLEGHA'NY, a river, which, rising in the north part of Pennsylvania, unites with the Monongahela at Pittsburg to form the Ohio. Though it flows through a hilly country, yet it is navigable for nearly 200 miles above Pittsburg, whence again, with a trifling impediment near Louisville, which has been overcome by a short canal, the navigation embraces, down to the Gulf of Mexico, 950 miles on the Ohio, and 1216 on the Mississippi. What a suggestive fact is a steam-boat channel of 2366 miles in one section of a continent, equal in length to the longest line that can be drawn in Europe, whether from Brest to Astrakhan, or from Cape Matapan to North Cape!

ALLE'GIANCE (Fr. *allégeance*, from Lat. *alligo* or *ad-ligo*, to bind to, or attach). 'A.,' says Blackstone, 'is the tie or *ligamen* which binds the subject to the sovereign, in return for that protection which the sovereign affords the subject. A. is the highest legal duty of a subject, and consequently its violation, *Treason* (q. v.), is the highest legal offence. A. is of three kinds: 1. *Natural or implied A.*, which every native or naturalised citizen owes to the community to which he belongs. Independently of any express promise, every man, by availing himself of the benefits which society affords, comes under an implied obligation to defend it, and this equally whether the attack be from without or from within. In time of war, this obligation involves the duty either of bearing arms in defence of the state, or of contributing to the additional taxes and other impositions which the support of a standing army may render necessary. In peaceful times, it will be adequately fulfilled by an efficient performance of ordinary citizen duties. 2. *Express A.* is that obligation which arises from an expressed promise, or *oath of A.* The old English oath of A. corresponded in the case of the sovereign, as absolute superior of all the lands in England, to the oath of fealty which, by the feudal law, all vassals were required to take to subject superiors: 'As administered for upwards of six hundred years, it contained a promise to be true and faithful to the king and his heirs, and truth and faith to bear of life and limb and terrene honour, and not to know or hear of any ill or damage intended him, without defending him therefrom.'—Blackstone, Kerr's edition, vol. i. 368. This oath being thought to favour too much the notion of non-resistance, another form was introduced by the Convention Parliament. That in use since the passing of the new Naturalisation Act in 1870 (33 Vict. c. 14), is as follows: 'I do swear that I will be faithful and bear true A. to Her Majesty Queen Victoria, her heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God.' From the reign of Queen Elizabeth down to the present time, the oath of A. has been required from all public functionaries, before entering on their offices, and by all professional persons before being permitted to practise. 3. *Local* or temporary A. is that obedience and temporary aid due by an *Alien* (q. v.) to the state or community in which he resides. Local differs from the higher kinds of A. in this, that it endures only so long as the alien resides within the Queen's dominions, whereas natural A., whether implied or expressed, is perpetual, following not only the individual himself, but his children and grandchildren. By the provisions of the act above referred to, A. may now be renounced, even by natural-born subjects, and this whether born within the realm or not, by a declaration of alienage (sect. 4), and it is forfeited by the acceptance of the allegiance of a foreign state (sect. 6). But the allegiance thus forfeited may be resumed. A natural-born British subject who has become an alien in pursuance of this act, may, on performing the same conditions as are required of an alien applying for a Certificate of Nationality (see NATURALISATION), apply to one of Her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State for a certificate of re-admission to British nationality (sect. 8). In a colony, the like powers are conferred on the Governor.

By the law of England, and agreeably to the spirit of the constitution, a usurper in undisputed possession of the crown, or king *de facto*, is entitled to A., because he then represents, not the sovereign whom he has dispossessed, but the general will in which the ultimate sovereignty of England resides. This doctrine was applied when Edward IV. recovered the crown from the House of Lancaster, and treasons committed against Henry VI. were capitally punished. The sovereign may by proclamation summon his subjects to return and take part in the defence of the kingdom, when menaced or endangered. Of this, an instance occurred in 1807, when all seamen and seafaring men who were natural-born subjects were recalled from foreign service. The option of accepting the foreign A. would now be given them, and the same legal outlet is furnished from the provisions of the otherwise unenforceable Foreign Enlistment Act (q. v.).

A'LLEGORY, as a figure of rhetoric, signifies properly, the embodiment of a train of thought in a visible form, by means of sensible images, having some resemblance or analogy to the thoughts. A., therefore, is one of the Tropes (q. v.), for it involves a transfer of meaning. It differs from metaphor chiefly in extent; metaphor is confined to a single expression, or at most to a sentence, A. is carried through the whole representation. It is not abstract ideas alone that are adapted to allegorical treatment; not only may virtue and vice, for instance, be personified and treated allegorically, but real persons may be represented by allegorical persons.

We find A. in use from the earliest ages. Oriental

people are specially fond of it. As examples from antiquity may be cited, the comparison of Israel to a vine in the 80th Psalm; the beautiful passage in Plato's *Phædrus*, where the soul is compared to a charioteer drawn by two horses, one white and one black; the description of Fame in the 4th Book of the *Æneid*. Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* is perhaps the most fully carried out A. of modern times. —A. is not confined to language, but is carried into painting and sculpture, and also into scenic representation—as in the ballet and pantomime; the consideration of it is, therefore, of importance in the fine arts generally.

ALLEGORICAL INTERPRETATION is that kind of interpretation by which the literal significance of a passage is either transcended or set aside, and a more spiritual and profound meaning elicited than is contained in the form or letter. The common idea is that it originated with the Alexandrine school, but this is by no means the case, as we find it employed by the older Hindus. From the scholars of Alexandria, however, it was adopted by the Jews of Palestine, a sect of whom in particular, namely, the Essenes, made abundant use of it. The apostle Paul himself allegorises, or at least spiritually interprets the history of the free-born Isaac and the slave-born Ishmael (Gal. iv. 24). Allegorical interpretation, however, with reference to the Old Testament, was most extensively employed by Philo Judæus, a philosophical Jew of Alexandria, and a contemporary of Jesus Christ. His writings stimulated the allegorising tendencies of the Alexandrine school of Christian theologians, the most famous of whom are Clemens Alexandrinus and Origen. The latter went so far as to say that 'the Scriptures are of little use to those who understand them as they are written.' As a specimen of his method of biblical interpretation, we may adduce the following: He maintained that the Mosaic account of the Garden of Eden was allegorical; that Paradise only symbolised a high primeval spirituality; that the fall consisted in the loss of such through spiritual and not material temptation; and that the expulsion from the Garden lay in the soul's being driven out of its region of original purity. The Neo-platonists were at first averse to allegorising, but gradually acquired a relish for it from the Jews and Christians, and applied it to the ancient myths.

ALLEGRO, the fourth of the five principal degrees of movement in music, implying that the piece is to be performed in a quick or lively style. A., like all the other degrees of movement, is often modified by other terms, such as *A. non tanto*, *A. ma non troppo*, *A. moderato*, *maestoso*, *giusto*, *commodo*, *vivace*, *assai*, *di molto*, *con brio*, &c. As a substantive, A. is used as the name of a whole piece of music, or a movement of a symphony, sonata, or quartet.

ALLEMANDE, the name of a dance invented by the French in the time of Louis XIV., and which again became popular at the Parisian theatres during the reign of the first emperor. It has a slow waltz kind of temps, and consists of three steps (*pas marchés*) made in a sliding manner, backwards and forwards, but seldom waltzing or turning round. The whole charm of the dance lies in the graceful manner of entwining and detaching the arms in the different steps. Both the dance and the music are said to have originated in Alsace; and thus the introduction of the A. at the court of Versailles was a sort of artistic way of symbolising the incorporation of the newly acquired German provinces.

ALLEN, BOG OF, a general name applied to a congeries of morasses east of the Shannon, in King's County and Kildare, Ireland, comprising in all about 238,500 Eng. acres. The strips of arable land which intersect this bog are occasionally watered by rivers which have their sources in the contiguous fens, such as the Barrow, Boyne, and Brosna; the Grand Canal also passes through it. The average elevation of the morasses is 250 feet above the sea-level. They approach to within 17 miles of Dublin on the east, and almost to the Shannon on the west. The depth of the peat found in them is about 25 feet.

ALLEN, JOHN, M.D., a *littérateur* of considerable talent, was born at Redford, in the parish of Colinton, near Edinburgh, in 1770. He was educated at the university of Edinburgh, where he took his degree at the age of twenty-one. Four years later, he entered the lists against Dr Gregory in defence of Hume's speculations on liberty and necessity. In 1801, he published *An Introduction to the Study of the Animal Economy*, translated from Cuvier. About a year after, along with his friends, Lord and Lady Holland, he set out on a tour through France and Spain, where he resided till 1805. On his return, he devoted himself to the discussion of political questions in the pages of the *Edinburgh Review*. He was a keen reformer, and brought to bear upon constitutional questions a wealth of research, a closeness of reasoning, and a vigour of understanding that rendered him a formidable adversary. He is said to have contributed upwards of forty articles to the *Edinburgh Review*, chiefly on British, French, Spanish, and South American politics. His most valuable work is considered to be his *Inquiry into the Rise and Growth of the Royal Prerogative in England* (1830). On one or two occasions, he held temporary political offices, and was, in addition, for some time Master of Dulwich College. He died in 1843.

ALLENTOWN, a thriving borough of Pennsylvania, U. S., 85 miles to the east of Harrisburg, and 50 to the north of Philadelphia. It is situated on an affluent of the Lehigh, with a canal and a railway passing through it. It is within easy reach of slate, limestone, coal, and iron. Pop. in 1870, 13,884.

ALLEYN, EDWARD, a distinguished actor, the contemporary and friend of Shakspeare, was born in 1566, and died in 1626. His connection with the English stage during the period of its highest prosperity, invests his life with interest to the student of literary history; but it is as the munificent and pious founder of Dulwich College (q. v.) that he principally claims the remembrance of posterity. The building of the college was begun in 1613, and in 1619 the institution obtained the royal charter, after some obstruction on the part of Lord Bacon, who wished the king to apply part of the grant to the foundation of two lectureships at Oxford and Cambridge. A. himself took up his quarters in the college as master, living, with his wife as a pensioner, on equal terms with the sharers of his bounty. He also founded numerous almshouses in London.

ALLIA, a small stream which fell into the Tiber, eleven miles north of Rome. It is celebrated as the scene of the defeat of the Roman army by the Gauls under Brennus in 387, or, according to others, 390 B.C. Immediately afterwards, Rome was taken, plundered, and burnt. It is difficult to identify the A. with any of the modern streams; but the evidence seems in favour of the *Scolo del Casale*.

ALLIACEOUS PLANTS are those of the genus *Allium* (q. v.), or others nearly allied to it. The term is generally employed to denote not only the possession of certain botanical characters, but also of a certain smell and taste, well known by the term *alliaceous*, and of which examples are readily found

in the onion, leek, garlic, and other familiar species of *Allium*, much employed for culinary purposes. These plants contain free phosphoric acid, and a sulphuretted oil, which is partly dissipated in boiling or roasting. The A. flavour is, however, found also, although in comparatively rare instances, in plants of entirely different botanical affinities—for example, in *Alliaria officinalis*, of the natural order *Cruciferæ* (see ALLIARIA), in the young shoots of *Cedrela angustifolia*, a tropical American tree of the natural order *Cedrelaceæ*, allied to mahogany; and in certain species of *Dyoxylon* and *Hartighsea*, of the kindred order *Meliaceæ*, the fruit of which is used instead of garlic by the mountaineers of Java.

ALLI'ANCE, a compact between independent families or nations. See TREATY, HOLY ALLIANCE, TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

ALLIA'RIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Cruciferæ* (q. v.), closely allied to *Sisymbrium* and *Erysimum*, but differing from both in having the stalks of the seeds flat and winged. The best known species is *A. officinalis* (*Erysimum A.* of Linnæus, and ranked by some botanists in the genus *Sisymbrium*), known by the popular names of Sauce-alone and Jack-by-the-Hedge. It is a native of Britain, not unfrequently found on hedge-banks and in waste places in dry rich soils, and is common in most parts of Europe. It is a biennial, with a stem 2—3 feet high; large, stalked, heart-shaped leaves;

Alliaria officinalis.
a, upper part of stem, with leaves and flowers; *b*, extremity of a branch, in fruit.

white flowers, and pods much longer than their stalks, which are somewhat spreading. It is remarkable for its strong alliaceous odour, is occasionally used as a pot-herb in Britain, and very generally, at least by the poorer classes, in some continental countries. It seems more deserving of cultivation than many other plants which have long received the constant care of the gardener, being wholesome, nutritious, and, to most persons, pleasant. The powdered seeds were formerly employed as a sternutatory.

ALLICE, or ALLIS. See SHAD.

A'LLIER, a river in France, a tributary of the Loire, has its source in the water-shed of the east of the department of Lozère; flows with a northerly course through Haute-Loire, Puy-de-Dôme, and Allier; and after a course of more than 200 miles, falls into the Loire below the town of Nevers. It is navigable for a considerable portion of its length.

ALLIER, a department in the centre of France, has an area of 2830 sq. m., and a pop. of (1872) 389,812. It is a hilly district, especially in the south, sloping down towards the river Loire in the north, and is partly woody, but generally well cultivated, producing the usual kinds of grain with wine and oil. It is also rich in minerals, especially iron, coal, antimony, manganese, and marble. There is some manufacturing industry in cotton, wool, linen, carpets, pottery, and glass; but the majority of the population is engaged in agriculture. Mineral springs are found at Vichy, Neris, and Bourbon-l'Archambault. The chief town is Moulins. Other important places are Montluçon, La Palisse, Gannat. At Chantelle-le-Chateau are the extensive ruins of King Pepin's Castle.

ALLIGA'TION, from a Latin word signifying 'to bind together,' is a rule in arithmetic which teaches to solve such questions as the following: 3 lbs. of sugar at 6*d.* are mixed with 5 lbs. at 10*d.*; what is the price of a pound of the mixture? or: In what proportion must sugar at 6*d.* be mixed with sugar at 10*d.*, to produce a mixture at 8½*d.*? The solution of the first is $\frac{3 \times 6 + 5 \times 10}{3 + 5} = 8\frac{1}{2}d.$

In the second, the proportional number for one ingredient is the difference between the price of the other and that of the mixture; the number for the cheap sugar is therefore 1½, and for the dear, 2½, which are as 3 : 5, so that there must be 3 lbs. at 6*d.* for every 5 lbs. at 10*d.* If there are more than two ingredients, the problem becomes indeterminate; that is, it admits of a variety of answers. Thus: Of three metals, whose specific gravities are 10, 15, and 16, it is required to compose an alloy, whose specific gravity shall be 14. The conditions will be answered by mixing them in any of the following proportions: 1, 2, 1; 2, 2, 3; 6, 2, 11, &c.

ALLIGA'TOR, a genus of saurian reptiles, of the family of the *Crocodilidæ*, and still regarded by some naturalists as a mere sub-genus of *Crocodilus*; although it has recently been proposed to constitute a family or sub-family of *Alligatoridæ*, and to divide it into the genera *Jacare*, *Alligator*, and *Caiman*. The alligators differ from the true crocodiles in the shorter and flatter head, the existence of cavities or pits in the upper jaw, into which (and not into mere notches between the teeth, as in the crocodiles) the long fourth teeth of the under jaw are received, and the much less webbed feet. In consequence of the different manner in which provision is made in the upper jaw for the reception of the longest teeth of the lower, the head of the alligators is broader and the snout more obtuse than in the crocodiles.

Alligator.

Their habits are less perfectly aquatic; they frequent swamps and marshes, and may be seen basking on the dry ground during the day, in the heat of the sun. They are most active during the night, and then make a loud bellowing. They have great strength in their tails, with which the larger ones can easily upset a light canoe. They feed chiefly on fish, but do not object to other animal food. The females lay their eggs, 20—60 in number, in the mud, and leave them to be hatched by the heat of the sun, but keep watch over the spot, and shew much affection for their young

ones, many of which, however, fall a prey to the old males, and to vultures and fishes. There are several species, varying from two to twenty feet and upwards in length. Perhaps the most fierce and dangerous is that found in the southern parts of the United States, as far up the Mississippi as the Red River, *A. Lucius*. The snout is a little turned up; and its resemblance to that of a pike has led to the specific name *Lucius*. In cold weather, these animals bury themselves in the mud, and become so torpid, that they may be cut to pieces without shewing signs of sensibility; but a few hours of bright sunshine are enough to revive them. Like the other species, they are so protected by their mailed plates, that they are not easily killed, except by a shot or blow over the eyes. A very strong kind of leather is prepared from the skin, which is used for making saddles. It is said that a considerable quantity of oil can be extracted from an A., which is transparent and burns well. The alligators of South America are there very often called *Caymans*, probably an Indian name, and some of them bear the name of *Yacaré*, particularly *A. sclerops*, also distinguished as the Spectacled Cayman, on account of a prominent bony rim surrounding the orbit of each eye. This species appears to be widely distributed over tropical America, and attains a great size. Alligators are not known to exist in any quarter of the world except America, in which, however, true crocodiles are also found. But among the fossils of the south of England are remains of a true A. (*A. Hantoniensis*) in the Hordle beds. The flesh of alligators is eaten by Indians and negroes. It has a musky flavour. —The origin of the name is uncertain, but it is supposed to be a corruption of the Portuguese *lagarto*, a lizard. Cuvier adopted it as a scientific name.

ALLIGATOR APPLE. See CUSTARD APPLE.

ALLIGATOR PEAR. See AVOCADO PEAR.

ALLITERA'TION is the frequent occurrence in a composition of words beginning with the same letter. In Old German, Anglo-Saxon, and Scandinavian poetry, A. took the place of rhyme. This kind of verse, in its strict form, required that in the two short lines forming a couplet, three words should begin with the same letter, two in the first line or hemistich, and one in the second; as in the following couplet of Anglo-Saxon poetry:

Firum foldan
Frea almihtig —*Cædmon.*

A. has not quite disappeared from Icelandic poetry to this day. Alliterative poems continued to be written in English after it had assumed its modern form; the most remarkable is *Pierce Plowman*, a poem of the 14th c., of which the following is a specimen, the two hemistichs being written in one line:

Mercy bight that maid, | a meek thing withal,
A full benign bird, | and buxom of speech

Even after the introduction of rhyme, A. continued to be largely used as an embellishment of poetry, and is so, though to a less extent, to this day:

The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew,
The furrow followed free.—*Coleridge.*

Besides the Gothic, there are other nations widely separated from each other, among whom the essential distinction of verse is A.; the Finns, for instance, and the Tamuls in the south of India.

But A. is not confined to verse; the charm that lies in it exercises great influence on human speech generally, as may be seen in many current phrases and proverbs in all languages: Ex., 'life and limb;' 'house and home,' 'wile wears, tight tears,' &c. It often constitutes part of the point and piquancy of witty writing. Among modern writers this application of A. is perhaps most felicitously exemplified by Sidney Smith, as, when in contrasting the conditions of a dignitary of the English Church and of a poor curate, he speaks of them as 'the Right Reverend Dives in the palace, and Lazarus-in-orders at the gate, doctored by dogs and comforted with crumbs.'

In the early part of the 17th c., the fashion of hunting after alliterations was carried to an absurd excess; even from the pulpit, the chosen people of God were addressed as the chickens of the church, the sparrows of the spirit, and the sweet swallows of salvation.' *Ane New-year Gift*, or address, presented to Mary Queen of Scots by the poet, Alexander Scott, concludes with a stanza running thus:

Fresh, fulgent, flourist, fragrant flower formosa,
Lantern to love, of ladies lamp and lot,
Charry maist chaste, chief carbuncle and chose, &c.

In the following piece of elaborate trifling, given (but without naming the author) in H. Southgate's *Many Thoughts on Many Things*, Alliteration is combined with Acrusticism:

A n Austrian army, awfully arrayed,
B oldly by battery besieged Belgrade;
C ossack commanders cannonading come,
D ealing destruction's devastating doom;
E very endeavour engineers essay
F or fame, for fortune, forming furious fray.
G aunt gunners grapple, giving gashes good;
H eaves high his head heroic hardihood;
I brahaim, Islam, Ismael, imps in ill,
J ostle John Jarnwitz, Jem, Joe, Jack, Jill;
K ick kindling Kutusoff, kings' kinsmen kill
L abour low levels loftiest, longest lines;
M en march 'mid moles, 'mid mounds, 'mid murd'rous mines.
N ow nightfall 's near, now needful nature nods,
O pposed, opposing, overcoming odds.
P oor peasants, partly purchased, partly pressed,
Q uite quashing, 'Quarter! quarter!' quickly quest.
R eason returns, recalls redundant rage,
S aves sinking soldiers, softens signiors sage.
T ruce, Turkey, truce! truce, treach'rous Tartar train!
U nwise, unjust, unmerciful Ukraine,
V anish, vile vengeance! vanish, victory vain!
W isdom wails war—wails warring words. What were
X erxes, Xantippe, Ximenes, Xavier?
Y et Yassy's youth, ye yield your youthful yest.
Z ealously, zanies, zealously, zeal's zest.

A'LLIUM, a genus of plants of the natural order *Liliaceæ* (q. v.), containing a large number of species, perennial—more rarely biennial—herbaceous plants, more or less decidedly bulbous-rooted, natives chiefly of the temperate and colder regions of the northern hemisphere. The flowers are umbellate, enclosed in a spathe, and the umbel often bears also small bulbs along with its flowers. The perianth is of six spreading pieces, resembling petals, having the stamens inserted in their base. The fruit is a triangular capsule, and the seeds are angular. The leaves are generally narrow, although in some species, as *A. ursinum*, they are rather broad, and in a considerable number they are rounded and fistulose. GARLIC (q. v.), ONION (q. v.), LEEK (q. v.), SHALLOT (q. v.), CHIVE (q. v.), and ROCAMBOLE (q. v.), are species of this genus in common cultivation. The first four are cultivated in the gardens of India as well as of Europe, along with *A. tuberosum*; and the hill-people of India eat the bulbs of *A. leptophyllum*, and dry the leaves, and preserve them as a condiment. A number of other species are occasionally used in different countries.—Eight or nine species are natives of Britain, of which the most common is RAMSONS (*A. ursinum*), a species with much broader leaves than most of its congeners. It is most frequently found in moist woods and hedge-banks; but occasionally in pastures, in which it proves a troublesome weed, communicating its powerful odour of garlic to the whole dairy produce. Crow Garlic

(*A. vineale*), another British species, is sometimes very troublesome in the same way, in drier pastures. Both are perennial, and to get rid of them, their bulbs must be perseveringly rooted out, when the leaves begin to appear in spring.

A'LLOA, a seaport town in Clackmannanshire, Scotland, is situated on the left bank of the Forth, where the river widens into its estuary, 7 miles (by road) below Stirling. Population in 1871, 9362. It is a town of considerable antiquity, and is an active centre of trade and manufactures. The principal articles manufactured are whisky and ale, the latter of which is highly esteemed. There are extensive glass, iron, and brick works, and ship-building yards. Copper utensils, shawls, and blankets, leather, tobacco, and snuff are manufactured to a considerable extent; and a large quantity of coal is regularly exported from the pits in the immediate neighbourhood of the town. The latter forms one of the chief items in the coasting trade, besides which there is a considerable foreign trade, chiefly outwards. The total tonnage registered at the port amounts to about 8400 tons. The harbour is good, with 16 feet of water at neap, and 22 at spring tides; it is furnished with a dry-dock. There is a steam-boat ferry across the Forth, connecting the town by a short junction line with the Scottish Central Railway. It is also connected with that line, and with the Edinburgh and Northern Railway, by the Stirling and Dunfermline branch. There is regular steam-communication by the river with Edinburgh and Stirling. In the neighbourhood is Alloa Tower, 89 feet high, supposed to have been built in the 13th c., once the residence of the Erskines, and at different times of Scottish princes.

ALLOCU'TION, which simply means an 'address,' is applied, in the language of the Vatican, to denote specially the address delivered by the pope at the College of Cardinals on any ecclesiastical or political circumstance. It may be considered as corresponding in some measure to the official explanations which constitutional ministers give when questions are asked in parliament, or to the political messages of the French emperor. The court of Rome makes abundant use of this method of address, when it desires to guard a principle which it is compelled to give up in a particular case, or to reserve a claim for the future which has no chance of recognition in the present.

ALLO'DIUM, or ALLODIAL TENURE (in Law), is the free and absolute right of property in land, independent of any burden of homage or fidelity to a superior. When the principal landholders of England submitted to the yoke of military tenure, and surrendered their lands into the hands of the Conqueror at the council of Sarum, feudality, the previous existence or non-existence of which has been a subject of much discussion, was formally recognised, and it henceforth became a fundamental maxim in the law of real property, that 'the king is the universal lord and original proprietor of all the lands in his kingdom, and that no man doth or can possess any part of it, but what has mediately or immediately been derived as a gift from him, to be held upon feudal services' (Blackstone, vol. ii. p. 51, Kerr's edition). This maxim, though, as Blackstone remarks, it was even at first little more than a fiction, was not peculiar to England, but prevailed wherever the feudal system obtained, and still forms what may be called the starting-point in all feudal tenures of land. Even where subinfeudations have prevailed to the greatest extent, every title is traceable, in the last instance, to the paramount and universal superiority of the crown. See FEUDAL SYSTEM. The surrender of lands in England being the result of political measures, was one universal national act, and, consequently, allodial tenures at once ceased to exist; but in many other countries it was accomplished by private arrangements between the allodial proprietors and the prince, the former being anxious to exchange their nominal independence for the greater security enjoyed by the vassals of the sovereign, the latter being willing to receive them as dependents, for the sake either of their personal services in war, or latterly, for the equivalents of these services in money or the produce of the lands. In such countries, feudality, though general, was not universal; and allodial tenures consequently continued to subsist alongside of those originating with the crown. In this position was Denmark, and it is curious that the only examples of allodial tenures to be met with in Great Britain are the Udal rights in the islands of Orkney and Shetland, which formerly belonged to that country. 'When these islands,' says Mr Erskine, 'were first transferred from the crown of Denmark to that of Scotland, the right of their lands was held by natural possession, and might be proved by witnesses, without any title in writing, which had probably been their law formerly while they were subject to Denmark; and to this day, the lands, the proprietors of which have never applied to the sovereign, or those deriving right from him, for charters, are enjoyed in this manner.' By the law of Scotland, all property and superiorities belonging to the crown itself, and all churches, churchyards, manses and glebes, the right to which does not flow from the crown, are regarded as allodial; and the term in a wider sense, as opposed to *feudal* generally, is sometimes used with reference to movable property.

The etymology of the word A. has been much discussed, and both Celtic and Teutonic origins have been assigned to it. The latter seem the more probable conjectures, as the word, in senses closely resembling that which we attach to it, is to be found in all Scandinavian and Germanic languages. On this supposition, its derivation from *all* (all, or wholly) and *od* (property), seems probable. Another conjecture assigns it to *all* and *oede* (waste). That adopted by Mr Erskine, of its having been composed of *a* privative, and *leude* or *leute*, people (taken from the people), seems wholly inadmissible, as being inconsistent with the forms of Teutonic speech.

ALLO'PATHY. See HOMŒOPATHY.

ALLOTMENT OF LAND, although not a technical, is a well-understood expression in the law of England; and under the General Enclosure Act (41 Geo. III. c. 109), is used to denote the kind of conveyance or distribution directed to be made to the person or persons who at the time of the division and enclosure shall have the actual possession of the lands, tenements, or hereditaments, in lieu of, or in right of which the allotment is made, but without prejudice to any question of title. By the ancient Statute of Merton (20 Henry III. c. 4), the lord of the manor, or any other owner of a common, may enclose so much of the waste as he pleases for tillage or wood-ground, provided sufficient is left for other parties entitled to the use of the same. This right to enclose common fields and waste lands has in modern times been very generally extended throughout England by means of local acts of parliament, a number of the regulations of which have been consolidated by the act above referred to, by section 7 of which commissioners are appointed to make the allotment.

Generally speaking, this term, as a legal word, may be considered as signifying the grant or

allowance of a portion of land too inconsiderable to be made the subject of a formal conveyance; and in this sense it has been used to denote the system or species of agricultural holding which prevailed to some extent in England towards the close of the last century, but which was not in common use throughout the country till 1830, when the agricultural labourers in many counties—owing to the use of threshing-machines and other improvements, which they dreaded would lower their wages—rose in insurrection against their employers. To meet this danger, the A. system was resorted to, and different societies were established for its promotion; and by the comparative contentment and comfort it produced, it may be considered to have been successful in its object. It has been stated to have diminished crime among the peasantry, and generally to have improved and elevated their character. By the form of agreement usually signed by A. tenants, the use of the spade in the cultivation of land is insisted upon, and the plough prohibited, and there are other conditions of the occupancy more or less capricious. The A. may be forfeited for non-payment of the rent, the tenant's misconduct or crime, or wilful neglect of his land; but it has been thought unadvisable to exclude any one from enjoying an A. on account of his previous bad character, as, from the nature of the industrious occupation which the A. necessitates, there is the chance of his reclaiming his character. See SPADE HUSBANDRY.

ALLOTROPY is the term applied in chemistry to the existence of the same element in various forms, each of which, though containing no extraneous substance, possesses different properties from the others. The various conditions in which a single element can be obtained are known as its allotropic modifications, and though as yet only a few elementary substances have been observed to exhibit such modifications, yet it is generally believed that every element is capable of existing in several allotropic forms. Phosphorus affords an excellent illustration of this doctrine. In ordinary circumstances, and when freshly prepared, phosphorus is a pale, yellow solid, of the consistence and aspect of wax, and to some extent flexible and translucent. It requires to be placed in a vessel with water to keep it from taking fire spontaneously. At any ordinary natural temperature it appears luminous, and evolves an alliaceous odour when exposed to air, owing to a slow process of combustion taking place; and when warmed to 140° F., it bursts into flame, and burns vividly. Common phosphorus is soluble in alcohol, ether, the fixed and volatile oils, and especially in bisulphuret of carbon, 100 parts of which, when warm, dissolve 20 parts of phosphorus. But the same element, when dried and kept for some days, with little or no access of air, at a temperature ranging from 446° to 482° F., passes, weight for weight—without addition or subtraction of matter—into a reddish substance, which is known to chemists as *amorphous* phosphorus. The colour of this new variety is scarlet, brownish red, or even blackish red; and it exists as a powder or cake, which does not evolve any odour, or readily take fire, and therefore needs not to be preserved under water. When heated to 140°, and even to a temperature a little short of 482°, it refuses to burn; and, in fact, it is questionable if phosphorus in this condition will take fire at all; though at 482°, and above, the red variety passes back again to the ordinary or yellow phosphorus, and then bursts into flame. Moreover, amorphous phosphorus is insoluble in alcohol, ether, the fixed and volatile oils, and even in bisulphuret of carbon. Probably the most striking difference between these two forms of the same substance is, that ordinary phosphorus is a deadly poison, as is too often evidenced in the death of children from sucking the ends of lucifer-matches; whilst the red or amorphous phosphorus is not known to be poisonous at all.—Besides the two varieties already mentioned, and which are best known, there are *black phosphorus*, *white phosphorus*, and *scaly phosphorus*. The only manner of accounting for the difference of properties evinced by ordinary and red phosphorus, is to refer the change to an absorption of heat during the passage of the ordinary into the red variety. It is an observed fact that such absorption or disappearance of heat does then take place; whilst, when the red phosphorus is heated till it passes back to the ordinary kind, a very rapid disengagement of heat occurs.

Sulphur furnishes another example of A. In the ordinary condition of roll-sulphur, it is a pale yellow, brittle, crystalline solid; insipid to taste, odourless when cold, and evolving a peculiar odour when heated or rubbed. It dissolves in small quantity in turpentine and the fixed oils, and to the extent of 35 per cent. in bisulphuret of carbon. When common sulphur is heated to 232°, it fuses, and forms a thin, yellow, limpid liquid like olive-oil; at 480°, it passes into a thick, dark-brown, viscid liquid, resembling in consistence ordinary treacle; and if, at this stage, it be poured into water, the sulphur forms itself into a thread-like mass or network, possessing great elasticity, like india-rubber, not at all brittle, and so soft, that it can be moulded by the fingers into casts and seals. Again, this elastic form of sulphur is not soluble in turpentine and the fixed oils, or even in bisulphuret of carbon. There are also other allotropic forms of sulphur.

Oxygen may be taken as a third illustration of the same doctrine. In the ordinary form in which oxygen exists in the atmosphere and elsewhere, it is a gas with no odour, no bleaching properties, and no disinfectant powers. To a certain extent, it oxidises metals, &c.; but comparatively, it may be regarded as a feeble oxidising agent. By several processes—namely, the introduction of a heated glass rod into a jar containing ordinary air and a little ether; or the presence of clean-scraped sticks of phosphorus in a glass vessel with a confined portion of air; or the passage of electric discharges through or round a glass tube or bottle with air—the oxygen of the atmospheric air is transformed into an allotropic form called *ozone*. In the latter condition, oxygen possesses a very strong and peculiar odour, long known as the electrical odour; has great bleaching powers, and is regarded as the agent in the air which bleaches clothes on the household bleaching-green; and possesses such powerful disinfecting properties, that tainted meat introduced into ozonised air, has the disagreeable odour destroyed, and smells fresh when taken out. Ozone is doubtless the great natural agent which removes many deleterious gases and vapours, and destroys infectious matter floating in or diffused through the air. See OZONE.

ALLOWANCES, OFFICERS'. In the British army—and to various degrees in the armies of other countries—military officers, besides their recognised pay, receive certain A. for special duties, or when placed under exceptional circumstances. Without detailing the actual amount of these A., it may be well to enumerate the principal modes in which they arise. An officer commanding and paying a troop or company, receives a contingent allowance as an indemnification for the expense of repairing arms, swords, and scabbards; for burials; and for the debts of soldiers who become non-effective. A kind of general average is struck for the probable amount of these charges. An officer on duty in the United Kingdom, in a situation

entitling him to be lodged at the public expense, and whose lodging is not otherwise paid for by the public, receives an allowance as 'lodging-money,' varying in amount according to his rank. An officer marching with troops in the United Kingdom, on a route determined by competent authority, if unable to mess with his regiment or detachment on a particular day, receives an allowance in compensation. An officer sent on permanent or temporary duty from one place to another, receives a travelling allowance of so much per mile. An officer serving on a court-martial receives an allowance at so much per day, besides a travelling allowance if the place be distant. An officer temporarily detached on duty, where he cannot join his regimental mess, has an allowance for mess-money. Besides those here enumerated, there are A. for detention at ports of embarkation, &c., and others of a minor kind.

A. or extra payments to private soldiers and non-commissioned officers, will be noticed under PAY, PENSION, &c.—The daily food served out at the public expense, which is called a *ration* by soldiers, is more usually known to sailors as an *allowance*. See RATION.

A'LLOWAY KIRK, an old ruined church in the parish of Ayr, near the mouth of the Doon, celebrated in Burns's *Tam o' Shanter*. At very short distances from it are the cottage in which the poet was born, the monument erected to his memory in 1823, and the 'Twa Brigs,' 'the Auld Brig o' Doon' and the new bridge over that river.

ALLOY' (in Chemistry) is a mixture of two or more metals, either natural, or produced artificially by melting them together. The A., or mixture, has often different properties from the component metals, and bears a distinct name. Thus, bell-metal is an A. of copper and tin; tombak, of copper and zinc; brass, of copper, with a larger proportion of zinc, &c. Alloys are generally harder than the metals that compose them, and this is the motive for alloying the precious metals. Both gold and silver, when pure, are very soft, and easily worn away by use; and therefore, a certain proportion of copper is added, to give these metals the requisite hardness. In this case the word 'alloy' signifies the inferior metal added, and not the mixture. For coin, the proportion of copper to be added is fixed by law (see the following article), and differs in different states. It has been found by experiment that $\frac{1}{12}$ of A. gives the greatest durability. This is exactly the proportion in British gold coin, a pound troy of the metal containing 11 parts gold and 1 part copper. The A. in our silver coin is somewhat less, being 18 dwt. in the pound instead of 20 dwt. For convenience in reckoning, the standard of the coinage in France, and other countries that adopt its monetary system, as well as in the United States, is made $\frac{9}{10}$ pure metal and $\frac{1}{10}$ A., usually stated 900 (in 1000) parts fine. Our gold and silver standards similarly stated would be 917 and 925 respectively. Gold is sometimes alloyed with silver, or with a mixture of silver and copper. The colour of gold and silver is affected by the nature and amount of the A. A strong A. of copper makes gold red; of silver, green; and a still stronger of silver, a bright yellow. A compound of mercury with another metal is an *Amalgam* (q. v.).

Alloys seldom possess the density which theory or calculation from the specific gravity of their constituents would indicate. Thus, many alloys possess a greater density than the mean density of their constituents, whilst others have a less density. The increase in density of the A. indicates that the metals have contracted; in other words, that the metallic molecules have approached each other more closely; whilst the decrease in density denotes a separation of the molecules to greater distances from each other.

ALLOYS which exhibit a greater density than the mean density of the metals composing them.	ALLOYS which possess a less density than the mean density of the metals composing them.
Gold and Zinc.	Gold and Silver.
" " Tin.	" " Iron.
" " Bismuth.	" " Lead.
" " Antimony.	" " Copper.
" " Cobalt.	" " Iridium.
Silver " Zinc.	" " Nickel.
" " Tin.	Silver " Copper.
" " Bismuth.	Iron " Bismuth.
" " Antimony.	" " Antimony.
Copper " Zinc.	" " Lead.
" " Tin.	Tin " Lead.
" " Palladium.	" " Palladium.
" " Bismuth.	" " Antimony.
Lead " Antimony.	Nickel " Silver.
Platinum and Molybdenum.	Zinc " Antimony.
Palladium " Bismuth.	

The strength or cohesion of an A. is generally greater than that of the mean cohesion of the metals contained therein, or even of that of the most cohesive of its constituents. Thus, the breaking weight of a bar of copper or tin (meaning the longitudinal strain it can bear) is very much lower than the breaking weight of a bar composed of an A. of tin and copper. The following tables represent the

COHESION OF METALS.

	Bar, one inch square, breaks with lbs.
Barbary Copper,	22,570
Japan "	20,272
English Block Tin,	6,650
" "	5,322
Banca Tin,	3,679
Malacca Tin,	3,211
Bismuth,	3,008
Zinc,	2,689
Antimony,	1,060
Lead,	885

When any two of the above metals combine together, they generally—though not always—yield an A. which is much stronger than we should expect; thus the

COHESION OF ALLOYS.

	Bar, one inch square, yields with lbs.
10 parts of Copper and 1 part of Tin,	32,093
8 " " 1 " "	36,088
6 " " 1 " "	44,071
4 " " 1 " "	35,739
2 " " 1 " "	1,017
1 " " 1 " "	725
4 " English Tin and 1 " Lead,	10,607
4 " Banca " 1 " Antimony,	13,480
4 " " " 1 " Bismuth,	16,092
4 " English Tin " 1 " Zinc,	10,258
4 " " " 1 " Antimony,	11,323

The power of conducting electrical currents is not so great in an A. as the mean conducting-power of its components.

The composition of the more commonly occurring and commercially important alloys, is as follows: Plumber's solder, 1 tin and 2 lead; soft solder, 2 tin and 1 lead; common pewter, 4 tin and 1 lead; gun-metal, 9 copper and 1 tin; bronze, 9 copper and 1 tin and zinc; cymbals and Chinese gongs, 4 copper

and 1 tin; bell-metal, 3 copper and 1 tin; speculum metal, 2 copper and 1 tin; pot-metal or cock-metal, 2 copper and 1 lead; gilding-metal, 16 copper and 1 to 1½ zinc; Manheim gold—pinchbeck or bath-metal, 16 copper and 4 zinc; Bristol brass, for soldering, 16 copper and 6 zinc; ordinary brass, for casting, 16 copper and 8 zinc; Muntz sheathing-metal, 16 copper and 10½ zinc; spelter solder, for copper and iron, 16 copper and 12 zinc; spelter solder, for brass-work, 16 copper and 16 zinc; Mosaic gold, 16 copper and 16½ zinc; hardest silver solder, 4 silver and 1 copper; hard silver solder, 3 silver and 1 copper; soft silver solder, 2 silver and 1 copper; German silver, 100 copper, 60 zinc, and 40 nickel; type-metal, ordinary, 15 lead, 4 antimony, and 1 tin, or 14 lead, 5 antimony, and 1 tin—small types, 4 lead and 1 antimony—large types, 6 lead and 1 antimony; stereotype metal, 48 lead, 6 antimony, and 1 tin; Britannia metal, 50 tin, 4 antimony, 4 bismuth, and 1 copper.

ALLOY, or **ALLAY** (in Law), the term used to denote the base metal mixed with gold and silver in the coinage of the realm. The gold and silver to be converted into sovereigns, half-sovereigns, shillings, and the other current silver coins, must be of the true standard, or of *sterling* quality, as it is called; and by the statute 25 Edward III. c. 13, all the coin of the kingdom must be made of such sterling metal. By the 56 Geo. III. c. 68, gold coin—with certain exceptions recited in the act—is declared to be the only legal tender for payments, and that such gold coin shall be of the weight and fineness prescribed by the indenture with the Master of the Mint; and according to the standard thus indicated, the pound troy of gold, consisting of twenty-two carats—or twenty-fourth parts—fine, and two of A., is divided into forty-four guineas and a half, of the present value of twenty-one shillings each. In the case of silver, the pound troy is declared by the same act—extended by a recent statute, the 12 and 13 Vict. c. 41—to consist of eleven ounces two pennyweights of fine silver, and eighteen pennyweights of A., and in weight to be divided into sixty-six shillings. The regulation of the coinage forms part of the prerogative of the crown, although parliament also exercises a control over it; indeed, since the Revolution, the coinage has been chiefly regulated by the authority of parliament. See COINAGE and MINT.

ALL-SAINTS' BAY, in the province of Bahia, Brazil, in 12°—13° S. lat., and 38°—39° W. long. It forms a superb natural harbour, in which the navies of the whole world might anchor. Its length from N. to S. is 37 miles; its breadth from E. to W. 27. It contains several islands, the largest of which, Itaparica, is 18 miles long, and 3 broad. The entrance to the bay is easy. The town of Bahia (q. v.) lies just within it, on the right hand.

ALL-SAINTS'-DAY, in old English, All-Hallows, All-Hallowmas, or simply Hallowmas, a festival of the Roman Catholic Church, introduced because of the impossibility of keeping a separate day for every saint. As early as the 4th c., on the cessation of the persecution of the Christians, the Sunday after Easter was appointed by the Greek Church for commemorating the martyrs generally; and in the Church of Rome a similar festival was introduced about 610 A. D., when the old heathen Pantheon (the present Rotonda, or Santa Maria dei Martiri) was consecrated, on the 13th of March, to Mary and all the Martyrs. But the real festival of All Saints was first regularly instituted by Gregory IV., in 835, and appointed to be celebrated on the 1st November. It was admitted into England about 870. The choice to the day was doubtless determined by the fact, that November 1, or rather the *eve* or night preceding it, was one of the four great festivals (1st February, 1st May, 1st August, and 1st November) of the heathen nations of the north; for it was the policy of the church to supplant heathen by Christian observances. See BELTANE and HALLOW-EVE.

ALL-SOULS'-DAY, a festival of the Roman Catholic Church, which falls on the 2d of November. The object of it is, by prayers and almsgiving to alleviate the sufferings of the souls in purgatory. It was first instituted in the monastery of Clugny, 993, and the following is the account given of the circumstance in which it originated: A pilgrim returning from the Holy Land, was compelled by a storm to land on a rocky island somewhere between Sicily and Thessalonica. Here he found a hermit, who told him that among the cliffs of the island was situated the opening into the under world, through which huge flames ascended, and the groans and cries of souls tormented by evil angels were audible. The hermit had also frequently heard the complaints and imprecations of the devils, at the number of souls that were torn from them by the prayers and alms of the pious; they were especially enraged, he said, against the Abbot and monks of Clugny. The pilgrim on his arrival acquainted Odilo, Abbot of Clugny, with what had come to his knowledge, and the abbot thereupon appointed the day after All Saints to be kept in his monastery as an annual festival for 'All Souls.' The observance was quickly adopted by the whole Catholic world. By another account, the scene of the incident is transferred to Sicily, and the institution to the year 998.

In some parts of the west of England it is still 'the custom for the village children to go round to all their neighbours *souling*, as they call it—collecting small contributions, and singing the following verses, taken down from two of the children themselves:

> Soul! soul! for a soul-cake;
> Pray, good mistress, for a soul-cake.
> One for Peter, two for Paul,
> Three for Them who made us all.
>
> Soul! soul! for an apple or two;
> If you 've got no apples, pears will do.
> Up with your kettle, and down with your pan;
> Give me a good big one, and I 'll be gone.

The soul-cake referred to in the verses is a sort of bun, which, until lately, it was an almost general custom for people to make, and to give to one another on the 2d of November.'—*Notes and Queries*, First Series, vol. 4.

ALLSPICE, a name frequently given to the kind of spice called PIMENTA (q. v.) or Jamaica pepper, the fruit of *Eugenia pimenta* and *E. acris*. The name originated in its being supposed to combine the flavour of different spices, particularly cinnamon, nutmeg, and cloves.—The name CAROLINA A., or AMERICAN A., is given to the aromatic bark of *Calycanthus floridus* (see CALYCANTHUS), which is employed in the United States as a substitute for cinnamon.—The berries of *Benzoin odoriferum*, of the natural order *Lauraceæ*, are said to have been used for A. in the same country during the war with Great Britain.

ALLSTON, WASHINGTON, one of the best known of the painters and poets of America, was born at George Town, South Carolina, in 1779. He at first prosecuted the study of medicine, but was afterwards induced, by his acquaintance with the painter Malbone, to devote himself to art. When he had completed his studies in America, he went to London, where he became a friend of his countryman West, who was at that time president of the Academy. In the year 1804, he proceeded to Rome, where he

lived for some years in the closest intimacy with J. Vanderlyn, Thorwaldsen, and Coleridge. After a short stay in America, to which he returned in 1809, he once more visited England in 1811, when he gained the 200-guinea prize of the British Institution. In 1817 he went to Paris with Leslie, and the year after returned to America. In 1819, he was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy of London. He now permanently fixed his residence at Cambridge Port, near Boston, where he lived, cultivating his art, and the muses, till his death on the 8th of July 1843. His pictures are very numerous. The subjects of them are mostly taken from Scripture, such as, Jacob's Dream, Elijah in the Wilderness, Saul and the Witch of Endor, the Deliverance of Peter out of Prison, &c. The style of A. is noble, his ideas are imaginative, and many of his paintings evince a true poetic spirit. In colouring, he comes nearer the old masters than most modern painters do. Among his printed works, the most remarkable and best known is the poem, *The Sylphs of the Seasons* (published first in London, 1813), and the art-novel, *Monaldi* (Boston, 1842).

ALLU'VION. This is a legal term, signifying land gained from the sea by the washing up of sand and earth so as to make it *terra firma*. The right of property thus arising is regulated as follows in the laws of England and Scotland: By the law of England, if the addition to the soil thus made be by little and little, by small and imperceptible degrees, it goes to the owner of the land immediately behind; but if the A. be a sudden and considerable acquisition from the shore, the ground acquired shall belong to the crown. Where, however, the crown may have made a grant to a subject *cum littore maris*—that is, the space between the high and low water marks—it would seem that a sudden or considerable increase of lands by A. within these limits must belong to the grantee. In the Scotch law, again, if the A. is made insensibly, it is said to 'accresce' to, or become the property of the owner of the ground to which the addition is made; but if it be caused by a violent flood, or by any convulsion of nature, the ground so added to the soil does not belong to the owner of the latter, but remains the property of the person of whose land it originally formed part. The Scotch law does not recognise such right in the crown on this subject as is allowed by the law of England. In Scotland, the shore is not considered to be the property of the sovereign; but it is presumed to be granted as a part and pertinent of the adjacent land, under the burden of the crown's right as trustee for the public uses, of which navigation and fishing are the chief.

ALLU'VIUM, a term originally applied to those deposits which were supposed to have been formed subsequently to the Flood, while Diluvium (q. v.) included its products. In modern geological classification, these two terms, in this sense, have been abolished, as their connection with the Deluge is denied. The diluvial and alluvial deposits are included under the Pleistocene formation (q. v.). The name is now given to those deposits of mud, soil, sand, gravel, &c., which are brought down by streams and rivers and spread over lower lands. See DELTA; DENUDATION.

ALLYGU'RH, a fort in the district of the same name in India. Lat. 27° 56' N., long. 78° 8' E. It lies on the route between Agra and Delhi, being 55 miles from the former, and 74 from the latter. Partly to this commanding situation, and partly to the strength derived from its surrounding marshes, it owes any importance that it possesses. It was stormed by the British in 1803, being then the principal dépôt of the French party in the Doab—an exploit of sufficient consequence to be commemorated by a medal in 1851. But within six years after 1851, A. became the arena of a still more desperate struggle. Ten days after the outbreak at Meerut, the native troops in garrison mutinied. Fortunately, the Europeans escaped with comparatively little sacrifice of life. But the temporary loss of the place was severely felt far beyond the immediate neighbourhood, as almost cutting off the communications between the south-east and the north-west.

A'LMA, a river in the Crimea, rising at the foot of the Tchadir Dagh, and flowing westward into the Bay of Kalamita, about half-way between Eupatoria and Sebastopol. On the steep banks of this stream, through the channel of which the British troops waded amidst a shower of bullets, a brilliant victory was won on the 20th of September 1854, by the allied armies of Britain and France, under Lord Raglan and Marshal St Arnaud, over the Russian army commanded by Prince Menschikoff.

A'LMACK'S. A suite of assembly-rooms in King Street, St James's. They were built in 1765 by Almack, a tavern-keeper, and were hence called Almack's Rooms;* they are now generally called Willis's Rooms, from the name of the present proprietor. The name of A. is chiefly associated with the balls that have, since the opening of the rooms, been held there under the management of a committee of ladies of high rank; and has become synonymous with aristocratic exclusiveness. See *Chambers's Journal*, First Series, vol. vi. p. 125.

ALMADE'N or ALMADEN DEL AZOGUE (Arabic, 'the mine of quicksilver'), a town in Spain, 50 miles S.W. of Ciudad Real, is the *Ciaspea Cetobrix* of the Romans, and is situated between two mountains in the chain of the Sierra Morena. Pop. 9000. It is famous for its quicksilver mines, the richest in the world, producing annually about 2,000,000 lbs. These mines were worked by the ancient Iberians; afterwards by the Romans. They were rented by the Fuggers of Augsburg in the 16th c., but were taken under the care of the Spanish government in 1645. Some years since, the firm of Rothschild undertook the working of these mines. There is a school of mines in the place.

A'LMAGEST, the name given by the Arabs to the great work of Ptolemy the astronomer (q. v.).

ALMAGRO, DIEGO D', a Spanish *conquistador*—i.e., adventurer—in the conquest of South America, was born in 1464. He was a foundling, and derived his name from the town in the vicinity of which he was found. Along with many other adventurers, he went, as was common in those days, to seek his fortune in the new world which Columbus had opened up. There he amassed considerable wealth by plunder, and became one of the most influential persons in the new colony of Darien, when he was persuaded to join Pizarro in his attack on Peru. The undertaking was crowned with astonishing success. He was now appointed, in the absence of Pizarro, who had returned to Spain with rich presents, governor of the conquered country, and received permission from the Spanish court to conquer for himself a special province south of the territory subdued by Pizarro. In 1534, therefore, he marched on Chili, penetrated deeply into the land, and returned in 1536, just when the Peruvians had flown to arms under their young Inca, Mango Capac, and shut up the Spaniards in Cuzco and Lima. As these towns lay south of Pizarro's district, they were

* Almack, it is said, was originally a poor Scottish Highlander, named M'Call. As a preparatory step to rising into importance in London, he inverted the syllables of his name.

claimed by A. He dispersed the Peruvian army before Cuzco, and advanced with his forces against Lima, hoping to make himself sole master of the country. But the crafty Pizarro contrived, by means of a truce, to gain time for collecting his forces. On the 6th of April 1538, a desperate engagement took place near Cuzco, in which A. was defeated and taken prisoner. He was condemned to death; and on the 26th of the same month, he was strangled in prison, and his corpse beheaded in the market-place of Cuzco. His son, Diego d'A., gathering together several hundreds of his father's followers, stormed the palace of Pizarro, whom he assassinated (1541); he then proclaimed himself captain-general of Peru; but, the friends of the murdered governor resisting his claims, Baca de Castro was sent out from Spain, as supreme arbiter, to quell all disturbances. Diego was now requested to submit; and on his refusing, was attacked by the troops of Baca, when the bloodiest battle took place that had ever been known in America (1542). Diego, having been defeated and taken prisoner, was executed along with forty of his companions.

ALMALEE', or **ALMALI'**, a large town of Asiatic Turkey, in the pashalic of Anatolia. It is situated on the river Myra, about 25 miles from the sea, and is much frequented by European merchants from Smyrna, &c., who purchase the various products of the place. A. has numerous mills propelled by water, tan-yards, dye-works, and factories. The inhabitants are very industrious, and everywhere may be seen indications of their prosperity in the clean and comfortable houses, neat apparel, excellent roads, fences, bridges, &c. A. is built in a picturesque valley at the edge of a large plateau, 5000 feet above the sea, and is embosomed in gardens, which, together with the minarets and lofty poplars interspersed through the town, give it a striking appearance. Pop. said to be 25,000.

ALMA MATER (Lat. nourishing mother) is a name given to a university in relation to those who have studied at it, to distinguish it from inferior schools of learning. The word *Alma* (nourishing, sustaining, or kind) was applied by the Latin authors to such of the deities as were friendly to men Ceres, Venus, &c, and also to the earth, the light, the day, wine, and the soil.

ALMANAC, from the Arabic article *al*, and *manah*, to count, a word received by the European nations from the east, denoting a book or table containing a calendar of the civil divisions of the year, the times of the various astronomical phenomena, and other useful or entertaining information. Till a comparatively modern date, this additional matter consisted of astrological predictions and other analogous absurdities; it now embraces, in the best almanacs, a wide variety of useful notes and information, chronological, statistical, political, agricultural, &c.—The Alexandrian Greeks had almanacs. The time at which they first appeared in Europe is not precisely known. The oldest of which copies (in manuscript) still exist, are of the 14th c.; there are specimens in the libraries of the British Museum and of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. The earliest European A. worthy of notice was compiled by the celebrated astronomer Purbach, and appeared between the years 1450 and 1461; but the first *printed* A. was that composed by his pupil, Regiomontanus, for the thirty years from 1475 to 1506, for which he received a munificent donation from Mathias Corvinus, king of Hungary. Bernard de Granolachs of Barcelona commenced the publication of an A. in 1487; the printer Engel of Vienna, in 1491; and Stöffler of Tübingen, in 1524. Copies of these are now very rare. In 1533 Rabelais published, at Lyon, his A. for that year, and renewed the publication in 1535, 1548, and 1550. The fame and popularity of the celebrated astrologer, Nostradamus, who prophesied minutely the death of Henry II. of France, the execution of Charles I. of England, the great fire of London, the Restoration, &c., gave such an impulse to the publication of predictions, that, in 1579, Henry III. of France prohibited the insertion of any political prophecies in almanacs—a prohibition renewed by Louis XIII. in 1628. Before this, in the reign of Charles IX., a royal *ordonnance* required every A. to be stamped with the approval of the diocesan bishop.

Prophetic almanacs still circulate to an incredible extent in France in the rural districts, and among the uneducated. The most popular of all these is the *Almanach Liégeois*, a venerable remnant of superstition. It was first published at Liege—according to the invariable title-page which takes no note of time in 1636, by one Matthieu Laensbergh, whose existence, however, at any time seems very problematical. The *Almanach Liégeois* is a most convenient one for those who are unable to read, for by certain symbols attached to certain dates, the most unlettered persons can follow its instructions: thus the rude representation of a phial announces the proper phase of the moon under which a draught of medicine should be taken; a pill-box designates the planet most propitious for pills; a pair of scissors points out the proper period for cutting hair, a lancet for letting blood. Of course, amidst innumerable predictions, some may naturally be expected to come to pass. So in 1774, this A. predicted that in the April of that year a royal favourite would play her last part. Madame Dubarry took the prediction to herself, and repeatedly exclaimed: 'I wish this villanous month of April were over.' In May Louis XV. died, and Madame Dubarry's last part was really played. The credit of old Matthieu was established more firmly than ever. In 1852 a number of commissioners, appointed by M. Maupas, minister of police, having examined between 7000 and 8000 of the national chapbooks, which included a great number of almanacs, pronounced them so deleterious, that it became necessary forcibly to check their circulation. Although still in vogue amongst the ignorant peasantry, it is gratifying to learn that their popularity is greatly on the wane, and that various periodicals on a better plan have started up in France of late years.

In England, so far was any restraint from being put upon the publication of prophetic almanacs, or 'Prognostications,' as they were usually called, that the royal letters-patent gave a monopoly of the trade to the two Universities and the Stationers' Company, under whose patronage, and with the *imprimatur* of the Archbishop of Canterbury, such productions as *Moore's A.* and *Poor Robin's A.* flourished vigorously; although 'it would be difficult to find, in so small a compass, an equal quantity of ignorance, profligacy, and imposture, as was condensed in these publications.' The memory of Partridge, long employed as the prophet of the Stationers' Company, is preserved in the lively diatribe of Swift, writing under the name of Bickerstaff. In 1775, a decision of the Court of Common Pleas, in favour of a bookseller named Carnan, abolished the monopoly of the Stationers' Company. In 1779, Lord North brought in a bill renewing their privileges. After a powerful speech against the measure by Erskine, who exposed the pernicious influence of the productions published under the monopoly, it was rejected. The Stationers' Company, however, still maintained their ground by buying up all rival almanacs; and it was not until the publication, in 1828, of the

Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, that the eyes of the English public became opened to the irrational and deleterious nature of the commodity which their own indifference or folly, as much as the selfishness of their purveyors, had hitherto maintained in existence. The success of this admirable publication—which still continues to appear annually—stimulated the Stationers' Company to improvement, and they accordingly published the *Englishman's A.*, which is entirely free from the superstitious absurdities of its predecessors.

In Scotland the earliest almanacs seem to have been produced about the beginning of the 16th c. Shortly after the beginning of the 17th c., the Almanacs or 'Prognostications' published at Aberdeen had begun to establish that celebrity which is hardly yet extinct. About the year 1677, they were sold for a *plack* each; and the annual circulation amounted, on an average, to 50,000 copies. In 1683 appeared a rival publication, under the title of *Edinburgh's True Almanack, or a New Prognostication.* For a long time the Scottish almanacs continued, like all others of that age, to contain little besides a calendar, with a list of fairs, and—what constituted the great attraction—predictions of the weather. But something more instructive and comprehensive became requisite, and the *Edinburgh A.* seems to have been among the first to respond to this requirement of advancing civilisation; for, by various additions, such as a list of Scottish members of parliament, it had, in 1745, been extended from the original 16 pages to 36. In twelve years from that date, it had swelled to 72 pages; in 1779 it had reached 252 pages. Since 1837, it has been published under the title of *Oliver and Boyd's New Edinburgh A.*, and now extends to nearly 1000 pages. It contains an amount of information on all public matters, especially on those connected with North Britain, which, in its completeness, leaves little to be desired.

What *Oliver and Boyd's Edinburgh A.* is to Scotland, is *Thom's Irish A.* to Ireland—a work not less excellent, and even more extensive.

Almanacs containing astrological and other predictions are still published in Great Britain, but their influence is extremely limited, even among the most ignorant portion of the community, and their contents are fitted to excite amusement rather than any stronger emotion.

Of important national almanacs are the French *Almanach Impérial*, begun in 1679, a bulky octavo volume, full of useful information; the Belgian Royal A., very similar in character; the Prussian Royal A.; and the American A., a very meritorious publication. The *Almanach de Gotha*, begun in 1763, has a European, or rather a cosmopolitan character. See GOTHA, A. DE.

The most important astronomical A. published in Britain is the *Nautical A.*, projected by the astronomer-royal, Dr Maskelyne, and first published, with the authority of government, in 1767. After his death it gradually lost its character, and in 1830, in consequence of the numerous complaints made against it, the government requested the Astronomical Society to pronounce upon the subject. The suggestions of the Society were adopted, and, in 1834, the first number of the new series appeared, with such additions and improvements as the advanced state of astronomical science rendered necessary. Still older than this A. is the French *Connoissance des Temps*, commenced in 1679 by Picard, and now published under the authority of the *Bureau des Longitudes.* Its plan is similar to that of the *Nautical A.*, but it contains a larger amount of original memoirs, many of them of great value. Equally celebrated is the Berlin *Ephemeris*, published so long under the superintendence of the late Professor Encke, being an improvement on the *Astronomisches Jahrbuch*, conducted by his predecessor Bode.

Another kind of A., which has especially flourished in Germany and France, belongs rather to the class of publications known in Britain as *Annuals.* Such have been the *Almanach des Muses, des Dames, Populaire, Icarien, Napoléonien*, &c., the latter of which were specially devoted to the interests of particular parties, political or religious. Of this kind, the examples in Britain are innumerable, and, in fact, the publication of an A. has now become a favourite medium of advertising and puffery.

The heavy stamp-duty of fifteenpence per copy, to which almanacs were long liable in the United Kingdom, was abolished in 1834, since which time, the character, number, and circulation of this class of publications have strikingly advanced. There is now a very large sale of almanacs in Great Britain for popular use, at not more than one penny each.

ALMANAC is also the term applied by antiquaries to calendars found carved, usually on staves, but also on tablets of wood, scabbards of swords, handles of hatchets, &c. The inscribed characters are sometimes the Runic—hence the name of *runestaf, Scipiones Runici*—and sometimes the Gothic. The saints' days are denoted by symbols, as a pair of shoes for St Crispin's Day. These primitive almanacs were in use among the Scandinavian nations, and the examples of them found in Britain are thought to have been introduced by the Norsemen.

ALMANSOR, or, with his full name, Abu-Jafer-Abdallah-ben-Mohammed-al-Mansor (al-mansor, 'helped by God'), the second calif of the house of the Abbasides (q. v.), reigned from 754 to 775. Warfare, treachery, and murder were his steps to the throne, and his whole rule was as cruel as its beginning. He especially persecuted the Christians in Syria and Egypt. In war against external foes, he had but little success. He removed the seat of the califate from Kufa to Bagdad, which he built at immense cost, raising the money by oppressive taxation. He introduced the pernicious custom of making his freed slaves, mostly foreigners, rulers of provinces. The best feature in his character was his patronage of learning. He caused the *Elements* of Euclid to be translated from the Syriac, and the famous fables of Bidpai (q. v.) from the Persian language. A. died during a pilgrimage to Mecca, in the sixty-third year of his age.

ALMEI'DA, one of the strongest fortified places in Portugal, is situated on the river Coa, on the Spanish frontier, in the province of Beira. Pop. 6000. In 1762, it was captured by the Spaniards, who soon afterwards surrendered it. Here, in 1810, when the French, under Marshal Ney, attempted to cross the Coa into Portugal, the English colonel, Cox, defended the town against Marshal Massena; but the explosion of a powder-magazine compelled him to capitulate. In their retreat from Portugal, 1811, the French, under General Brenier, destroyed a great portion of the fortifications of A.; which, however, were speedily repaired by the English.

ALMEIDA, DON FRANCESCO D', a famous Portuguese warrior, who flourished in the latter part of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th c. He was the seventh son of the Count of Abrantes, and at an early period distinguished himself in the wars with the Moors, but especially at the conquest of Granada, in 1492. In 1505 his sovereign, Emanuel I., in consideration of his great abilities, appointed him viceroy of the Portuguese possessions in the East Indies. On the 25th of March, he set sail from Lisbon with a fleet of 36 vessels, containing 1500 men, many of whom were noblemen, and all

of good family. On the 22d of July, he reached Quiloa, on the Mozambique coast, where he was soon involved in a quarrel with the king of that city, the result of which was that A. deprived him of his crown, built a fortress to overawe the inhabitants, and proceeding to Zanzibar, destroyed the town of Mombaza. He then sailed for the Indies, asserting everywhere the superiority of the Portuguese flag. At Cananor, Cochin, Coulan, Ceylon, and Sumatra, he either built fortresses, to protect the factories and commercial interests of his nation, or established new factories. With the king of Malacca, a commercial treaty was formed about the same time. His son, Lorenzo, carried on several expeditions as his father's lieutenant, visited Ceylon, and discovered the Maldive Islands and Madagascar. The chief design of A. was to make the Portuguese sole masters of the Indian seas, and by blockading the Persian and Arabian gulfs, to exclude the Egyptians and Venetians from commerce with the east. To frustrate his endeavours, the Egyptian sultan fitted out, by the help of the Venetians, a large fleet, which, under the command of the Persian, Mir-Hakim (or Hossein, according to others), was sent to the assistance of the king of Calicut. In the port of Chaul, young Lorenzo was attacked in very disadvantageous circumstances by Mir-Hakim. He fought with astonishing bravery; his ships had all but made their escape out to the open sea, when his own was separated from the others, and struck upon a rock; one chance shot carried off one of his legs, and another, tearing away a part of his side, killed him. His father speedily took measures to revenge the death of his son upon the hated Mussulmans, when Alfonso d'Albuquerque appeared on the scene (1507), having been sent out by the Portuguese government to supersede A., whom it had begun to distrust, on account of his brilliant successes. The latter refused to recognise Albuquerque as viceroy, and for some months kept him prisoner at Cochin. He now sailed along the coasts, burning and plundering various seaports, amongst others Goa, and at length utterly destroyed the Egyptian fleet at Diu. From this fierce and avenging expedition, he returned to Cochin, resigned his office into the hands of his successor, and set out on his homeward voyage, November 13, 1508. But he was not destined to see his native land again, for he was slain in an obscure affray with the savages at Cape Saldanha, in the south of Africa, where his men had landed. He was a man of stern, vigorous, and yet impulsive character, capable of severe retaliation of injuries, but not destitute of clemency and generosity.

ALMERI'A (Arab. Al-Meryah, 'the conspicuous'), anciently Murgis, or *Portus Magnus*, the chief town in the Spanish province of the same name, at the mouth of the river Almeria. It has a well-defended harbour, a cathedral, besides 26 churches and monasteries, and a grammar school. In the time of the Moors, it was, next to Granada, the richest and most important town in the kingdom, and flourished alike in arts, industry, and commerce, being the 'great port' of traffic with Italy and the east. At one time, it was as terrible a nest of pirates as Algiers itself, under the Moorish chief Ibn Mayman, when even Granada, according to the proverb, was merely its 'farm.' Now, it has only a few trifling manufactures, although it still keeps up considerable trade in cochineal, red silk, lead, grapes, and especially wine. The cotton-tree has been planted in the environs of A. by English merchants. Pop. 28,000.

ALMOHADES, the name of a dynasty that ruled in Africa and Spain during the 12th and 13th centuries. The word is Arabic, and signifies Unitarians. It was taken as a term of distinction; for the A. considered themselves the only Mohammedans who worshipped God properly. The founder of this sect, which at first was religious rather than political, was called Mohammed Ibn-Toumert, a native of the Atlas region. He was a man of a bold and subtile intellect, and extremely ambitious. He had travelled much, and acquired a manifold knowledge and experience. His first measures were extremely prudent. He commenced preaching with great zeal the reformation of all abuses, affecting himself an austere and unselfish life. He went about covered with rags, prohibiting wine, music, and all pleasures. At first, his denunciations were generally held in contempt; but at length his partisans became so numerous, that Ali, king of Morocco, was compelled to take measures against him. It was, however, too late. The Arabs and Berbers flocked to his standard; and at the end of a few years, he was master of the provinces of Fez, Morocco, Tlemzen, Oran, and Tunis. Mohammed imposed on his disciples new ceremonies, and composed for their benefit a special treatise, entitled *On the Unity of God*. The A. extended their conquests into Spain, subjugating Andalucia, Granada, Valencia, and a part of Aragon, and Portugal as far as the Ebro and Tagus. Mohammed was succeeded in his authority by Abdelmoumen, who had formerly been his lieutenant. Under him and his descendants, Jussuf and Jacob, the dynasty of the A. continued to flourish in great splendour. But in 1212 they were completely defeated by the Spaniards in the famous battle of Tolosa, the result of which was a general revolt of the Christian provinces under their sway. The power of the A. was destroyed in Spain in 1257, and in Africa in 1269.

A'LMOND (*Amygdalus*), a genus of the natural order *Rosaceæ* (q.v.), sub-order *Amygdaleæ* or *Drupaceæ*, consisting of trees or shrubs, distinguished by

Almond (*Amygdalus communis*).

the coarsely furrowed and wrinkled shell (*endocarp* or *putamen*) of the drupe, and by the young leaves being conduplicate, or having their sides folded together. According to the greater number of botanists, it includes the PEACH (q.v.), constituted by some into a distinct genus, *Persica*, in

which the drupe has a fleshy covering (*sarcocarp*), whereas, in the species to which the name A. is commonly given, this part is a dry fibrous husk, which shrivels as the fruit ripens, and finally opens of its own accord. The A.-tree (*Amygdalus communis*) is very similar to the peach-tree, and is distinguished from it principally, besides the difference of the fruit, by the fine glandulous serratures of the leaves, the stalk of which equals, or even exceeds, in length the breadth of the blade. It is a tree about 20–30 feet high, a native of the East and of Africa, but has now become completely wild in the whole south of Europe. Even in the more northern parts of Germany and of Britain it is planted for the sake of its beautiful flowers, which are produced in great abundance, and resemble those of the peach in form and often in colour, although generally paler and sometimes white. The blossoms appear before the leaves, and are very ornamental in shrubberies in March and April; and even when frosts destroy the germ of the fruit, the brilliancy of the flower is not impaired. The wood of the A.-tree is hard, and of a reddish colour, and is used by cabinet-makers, &c. But it is chiefly valued on account of the kernel of its fruit, well known by the name of ALMONDS, and forming an important article of commerce, for the sake of which it is extensively cultivated in the south of Europe and other countries of similar climate. It is mentioned in the Old Testament, and appears to have been cultivated from a very early period. It was introduced into Britain as a fruit-tree before the middle of the 16th c.; but it is only in the most favoured situations in the south of England that it ever produces good fruit.—Almonds are either sweet or bitter. The bitter appear to be the original kind, and the sweet to be an accidental variety, perpetuated and improved by cultivation. SWEET ALMONDS contain a large quantity of a very bland, fixed oil, emulsion, gum, and mucilage sugar, are of a very agreeable taste, and very nutritious, and are used in the dessert, in confectionary, and medicinally in an emulsion, which forms a pleasant, cooling, diluent drink. BITTER ALMONDS contain the same substances, and, in addition, a substance called *amygdalin*, from which is obtained a peculiar volatile oil. (For the *oils* derived from almonds, see the following articles.)– The muddy water of the Nile is clarified by rubbing bitter almonds on the sides of the water-vessels, in the same way in which the nuts of the *Strychnos potatorum* (see CLEARING NUT) are used in India. The principal varieties of A. in cultivation are the common *sweet* A., with thick hard shell; the *brittle-shelled*, with a very thin, almost leathery brittle shell, and sweet kernels; the *bitter* A., with thick hard shell (sometimes also with a brittle shell), and bitter kernels; the *large-fruited*, with large flowers of a whitish rose-colour, and very large sweet fruit; the *small-fruited*, with very small sweet fruit; and the *peach* A., with a slightly succulent blackish *sarcocarp* (see above), yellow shell, and sweet kernels. The sarcocarp is, in the different varieties, more or less dry, or somewhat fleshy and juicy, so that some authors have disputed even the specific distinction between the A. and the peach. In commerce, the long almonds of Malaga, known as Jordan almonds, and the broad almonds of Valencia, are most valued. Large quantities of almonds are annually imported into Britain and America from France, Spain, Italy, and the Levant. Bitter almonds are brought to Britain chiefly from Mogadore.—The DWARF A. (*A. nana*) is very similar to the common A., except that it is a low shrub, seldom more than 2 or 3 feet in height. Its fruit is also similar, but much smaller. It is common in the plains of the south of Russia, and is frequently planted as an ornamental shrub in Britain, flowering freely in March and April, but not producing fruit. It is very beautiful when covered with its pink flowers in spring, and deserves to be more frequently planted than it is. A sheltered but sunny situation is favourable to it.—Other species, little known, but very similar to these, are found in the east, and one on arid hills in Mexico.

Almond.

ALMONDS, FIXED OIL OF. When almonds are subjected to pressure, a fixed greasy oil exudes. Either bitter or sweet almonds may be employed; but the former are generally used, as they are cheaper than the sweet almonds, and the expressed cake is valuable in the preparation of the *essential oil*. 1 cwt. of the almonds generally yields 48 to 52 lbs. of the fixed oil. When first obtained, it possesses a turbid or milky appearance; but when allowed to stand at rest, the impurities settle, and a clear, light, yellow oil remains above. It has the specific gravity of 918, and solidifies when reduced to —13° F. It has no odour, and to the taste is truly oleaginous and bland. The fixed oil of A. is used in medicine, and possesses a mild laxative property, when administered in large doses. It is often given to newly born infants, mixed with sirup of violets or sirup of roses. It is beneficial, also, in allaying troublesome coughs, when administered with confection of roses and sirup of poppies.

ALMONDS, VOLATILE OIL OR ESSENTIAL OIL OF. The cake which is left after the expression of the fixed oil from bitter A., contains, among other matters, a portion of two substances, called, respectively, amygdalin, and emulsin or synaptase. When the cake is bruised and made into a paste with water, the synaptase acts as a ferment upon the amygdalin, and 1 atom of the latter resolves itself into 2 atoms of volatile oil of bitter A., 1 atom hydrocyanic (prussic) acid, 1 atom of grape-sugar, 2 atoms formic acid, and 7 atoms of water. This paste is placed in a retort, and allowed to stand for 24 hours, when heat is cautiously applied, and distillation carried on. The volatile oil rises in vapour, and passes over into the receiver, accompanied by much water, and contaminated with a considerable amount of prussic acid. The oil is not originally present in the bitter A.; in fact, the latter do not contain a trace of the oil ready formed, so that the oil is purely the product of the fermentation of amygdalin, 100 parts of which yield 47 of crude oil. Commercial oil of bitter A. has a golden yellow colour, but may be purified so as to be almost colourless. The crude oil is very poisonous, owing to the prussic acid dissolved therein, and many fatal cases have occurred from the wilful, accidental, and careless use of the oil. It is unfortunate that the manufacturers of the volatile oil should not subject the crude oil to the action of lime and an iron salt, and then re-distil, when the prussic acid would be left fixed by the lime and iron, and the pure volatile oil be alone obtained in the receiver. As so procured, the pure oil is not a dangerous poison. The oil has an agreeable odour, an acrid, bitter taste, and burns with a smoky white

flame. It is heavier than water, being of the density of 1063; is soluble in water to the extent of 1 part in 30 parts of water, and is very soluble in alcohol and ether. Heated to 356° F., it boils, and distils over unaltered; and, exposed to the air, it is gradually oxidised into benzoic acid. The oil is called by the chemist the hydride of benzoyle. In medicine, the volatile oil is used in place of prussic acid, but is very variable in strength, being sometimes four times the strength of medicinal prussic acid. The dose is a quarter of a drop to a drop and a half in an emulsion. The cook and confectioner employ the oil for flavouring custards, &c., and the perfumer uses it for scenting toilet-soap, &c.

ALMONER is the name given originally to that member of a religious order who had the distribution of the money and other things set apart for alms, which, by canonical law, was to amount to at least a tenth of the revenues of the establishment. Afterwards, those ecclesiastics also received this name who were appointed by princes to the same office in their households. The Grand A. of France was one of the principal officers of the court and of the kingdom, usually a cardinal, and, in right of his office, commander of all the orders, and also chief director of the great hospital for the blind. Queens, princes, and princesses had also their almoners, and bishops were usually appointed to this office. In England, the office of *Hereditary Grand Almoner* is now a sinecure, his only duty being to distribute the coronation medals among the assembled spectators. The *Lord High Almoner*, who is usually a bishop, distributes twice a year the Queen's bounty, which consists in giving a silver-penny each to as many poor persons as the Queen is years of age.

ALMUG TREE, or **ALGUM TREE**. This name, occurring in the Old Testament, was formerly supposed to denote a species of *Acacia*, or a coniferous tree like the cypress; but it is now thought more probable that it was one of the kinds of Sandal-wood (q. v.), the *Santalum album*, a native of India.

ALNUS. See ALDER.

ALNWICK (town upon the Aln), the county town of Northumberland, is situated in lat. 55° 25′ N., long. 1° 42′ W., and is distant about 34 miles from Newcastle. The streets are broad, well paved, and well lighted, the houses modern, built of stone, and in some instances handsome. A large market-place occupies the centre of the town. The town-hall is a spacious building crowned with a tower. A. was at an early period a fortified town, and some fragments of the ancient walls even yet remain. An ancient gate, built by Hotspur, still forms one of the entrances to the city. A. Castle, the residence of the Dukes of Northumberland, stands at the north entrance of the town. It was repaired some years ago, and is considered one of the most magnificent baronial structures in England. During the middle ages, it was a bulwark against the invasions of the Scots, who thrice besieged it. A. is the election town for the north division of the county. It has various charity schools, a mechanics' institute, a theatre, and a newly erected Corn Exchange. Pop. (1871) 6218.

ALOE (*Aloë*), a genus of plants belonging to the natural order *Liliaceæ* (q. v.) sub-order *Aloineæ*, distinguished by a regular cylindrical perianth in six pieces, expanded at the mouth, and nectariferous at the base, the stamens hypogynous, or springing from beneath the germen, the ovules indefinite in number, the fruit a membranous three-celled capsule. The species are numerous, natives of warm countries, especially of the southern parts of Africa. About fifty miles from Cape Town is a mountainous tract completely covered with aloes, and the hills on the west side of Socotra exhibit them in similar profusion. The species all have stems, but vary in height from a few inches to thirty feet. They have permanent succulent leaves. The negroes of the west coast of Africa make cords and nets of the fibres of their leaves, and stockings are woven from the fibres of a species found in Jamaica. But aloes are chiefly valuable for their medicinal properties. The well-known drug called ALOES (q. v.) is the inspissated juice of the leaves of several almost tree-like species, and particularly of *A. Socotrina*, a native of the island of Socotra; *A. purpurascens; A. spicata*, and *A. fruticosa*, which principally yield the Cape aloes; *A. Indica; A. rubescens; A. Arabica; A. linguæformis; A. Commelini;* and *A. vulgaris*, which is found in the East and West Indies, in Italy, and in some of the islands of the Mediterranean, being the only species which can be reckoned European, although it also is probably an introduced plant. The extract prepared from its leaves is known as Hepatic aloes, or as Barbadoes aloes. The bitter principle of aloes has been called Aloesin. It forms several compounds with oxygen, which possess the properties of acids. The juice of aloes was anciently used in embalming, to preserve dead bodies from putrefaction. In the East Indies, it is employed as a varnish to prevent the attacks of insects; and has even been applied to bottoms of ships to protect them from marine worms. A beautiful violet colour is obtained from the leaves of the Socotrine A., which does not require any mordant to fix it. It also affords a fine transparent colour for miniature painting.—Mohammedan pilgrims suspend an A. over their doors on their return from Mecca, to signify that they have performed the pilgrimage.

Aloë fruticosa:
b, the flower.

The AMERICAN A. is a totally different plant. See AGAVE.

ALOES is a drug of great antiquity, for we find Dioscorides (50 A.D.) making mention of *Aloe* as a substance obtained from a plant, and possessing cathartic properties. The great demand for A. in Britain has led to its importation from numerous sources, including Bombay, Arabia, Socotra, Madagascar, the Cape of Good Hope, the Levant, and the West Indies. The drug is the inspissated juice of various species of Aloe (q. v.). All these are characterised more or less by producing large, thick, fleshy leaves, stiff and brittle, pointed, and generally terminating in a strong spine, filled with a mucilaginous pulp internally, and containing in the proper vessels of their exterior portion an intensely bitter juice, which yields the medicinal substance A. It is obtained, sometimes in the form of tears, by incision, spontaneous exudation, and inspissation upon the plant; sometimes by spontaneous evaporation of the juice which drops or exudes by pressure from the leaves when cut away near the base; sometimes by evaporating the same juice with the aid of heat; and lastly, by evaporating together the juice and a decoction of the leaves.

Owing to the great difficulty of determining the true botanical source of any given sample, the following names are made use of in commerce to denote the various kinds of A. found in the market—namely, Socotrine, Clear, Cape, East Indian, Barbadoes, and Caballine A. The most important are:

1. Socotrine A. (*Aloë Socotrina*), so called from its supposed source, the island of Socotra, near the mouth of the Arabian Gulf. This is the most esteemed of all the varieties used in medical practice. Many hold that this is only a fine variety of East Indian A., but the characters given in the *Edinburgh Pharmacopœia*—a garnet-red translucency in thin pieces, and almost complete solubility in spirit of the strength of sherry—define a particular species, which is the true Socotrine A. of pharmacologists.

2. East Indian A. (*Aloë Indica*), also called Hepatic A., from its liver-brown colour, is imported into Bombay from Arabia and Africa, and is known in India by the name of Bombay A. A considerable portion is probably obtained from the same sources as the Socotrine A., which it resembles in colour; and according to Dr Pereira, 'the two are sometimes brought over intermixed, the Socotrine occasionally forming a vein in a cask of Hepatic A.'

3. Barbadoes A. (*Aloë Barbadensis*) is prepared in the West Indies from *A. Socotrina*, and from a variety of *A. vulgaris*. We learn from Browne's *Natural History of Jamaica* that the largest and most succulent leaves are placed upright in tubs, that the juice may dribble out. This evaporated, forms what is sold as Socotrine A.; but the common A. is obtained by expressing the juice out of the leaves, boiling it with water, evaporating and pouring it into gourds; whence this kind is often called gourd A. It is much used for veterinary medicine, and thus brings a high price in the market.

Caballine A. (*Aloë caballina*) is a very coarse kind, and is so called because it is considered fit only for horses. It contains many impurities, such as wood, sand, and charcoal, and evidently constitutes the lowest stratum in the vessels in which the better sorts are allowed to cool. It is now in a great measure superseded in veterinary practice by Barbadoes A.

All kinds of A. are remarkable for their disagreeable taste. The odour is peculiar, and is more perceptible when the drug is breathed upon. A. is in a great measure soluble in water, and more so in hot than cold water. A. was formerly considered to be a gum-resin; but the portion which was thought to be of the nature of gum is now regarded as a variety of *extractive*, and to it the name of Aloesin has been given.

Action.—When employed in small doses, A. exerts a tonic, and in larger doses, a cathartic action. It is considered by some authorities to stimulate the liver, and also to supply the place of deficient bile in torpidity of the intestinal canal, and more especially towards its lower part. Both taken singly, and also in combination with other cathartics, A. is perhaps the most important and the most extensively used of vegetable remedies of its class; and there is no end to the variety of cases in which it may be employed with advantage.

ALOES WOOD (called also Agila Wood, Eagle Wood, or Agallochum) is the inner part of the trunk of *Aquilaria ovata* and *A. Agallochum*, trees of the natural order *Aquilariaceæ* (q. v.), natives of the tropical parts of Asia, and supposed to be the aloes or lign aloes of the Bible. They are large spreading trees with simple alternate leaves. Aloes-wood contains a dark-coloured, fragrant, resinous substance, and is much prized in the east as a medicine, and for the pleasant odour which it diffuses in burning. It has been prescribed in Europe in cases of gout and rheumatism. The resinous substance is found only in the inner part of the trunk and branches; the younger wood is white, and almost scentless. A similar substance, still more esteemed, is obtained in the south-eastern parts of Asia and the adjacent islands, from the central part of the trunk of *Aloexylon Agallochum*, an upright-growing tree with simple alternate leaves, and terminal panicles of small flowers, of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Cæsalpiniæ*. This tree abounds particularly on the highest mountains of Cochin-China and the Moluccas; a character of sacredness is attached to it, and it is cut with religious ceremonies. The A. W. which it yields is not only much prized in the east as a perfume, but many medicinal virtues are ascribed to it. The ancients ascribed to it similar virtues, and so valued it for these and its fragrance, that Herodotus says it once sold for more than its weight in gold. It was regarded almost as a universal medicine. Its very fragrance was supposed to have a beneficial influence, and it was therefore worn about the person. As it admits of a high polish and exhibits a beautiful graining, precious gems were set in it; and it was cut into fantastic forms and worn in head-dresses, &c. There seems to be allusion to a similar use of it in Psalm xlv. 8, 'All thy garments smell of myrrh and *aloes* and cassia.' Or perhaps this merely refers to its being employed to perfume clothing. It was also from a very early period much used to perfume the apartments of the great. The fragrance continues undiminished for years. *Lign Aloes* is a corruption of *Lignum Aloes* (Aloes Wood).

ALONG-SHORE, a phrase applied in navigating near a coast, to denote a passage near to, and parallel with, the shore. 'Along-shore-men,' or 'long-shore-men,' is a peculiar designation given to some of the humbler and rougher men employed about docks and shipping, in the Thames and other rivers.

ALOO'F, at sea, is simply 'at a distance.' To 'keep the loof,' or 'keep the luff,' is a command given to the man at the helm.

ALOPECU'RUS. See FOXTAIL.

ALO'SA. See CLUPEIDÆ and SHAD.

ALOST (the name signifies 'to the east,' and was probably given to the town because it lay near the eastern frontier of the province), a town in Belgium, the old capital of the province of East Flanders, is situated on a tributary of the Scheldt, called the Dender, which is here converted into a canal. It is a walled city with five gates, has considerable trade in hops, corn, &c., and large manufactures, besides numerous breweries, distilleries, bleach-fields, print-works, copper and iron foundries, flax and cotton mills, &c. The finest building in A. is the church of St Martin, an unfinished edifice, but one of the grandest in Belgium, and containing a famous painting by Rubens—'St Roch beseeching our Saviour to stay the Plague of A.,' and also the mausoleum of Thierry Martens, who was born here, and who introduced the art of printing into Belgium, 1475 A.D. A. has a town-hall (founded in 1200 A.D.), a college, a hospital, chamber of commerce, academy of design, &c. Pop. 15,000.

ALOYSIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Verbenaceæ* (q. v.), to which belongs a shrub, *A. citriodora*, much cultivated in greenhouses and apartments in Britain for the grateful fragrance which its leaves emit when slightly bruised. It is frequently to be seen in the windows of cottagers, and is by them generally named *Verbena*. It was formerly known to botanists as *Verbena triphylla*, and has also been referred to the allied genus *Lippia*. The leaves are in whorls of three. It is a native of Chili. In the Channel Islands and the south of

Ireland, it becomes a luxuriant shrub in the open air, reaching a height of 10—25 feet, with osier-like shoots.

ALP, ALB, also called the Rauhe or Swabian Alp, is a chain of mountains above 60 miles in length, and from 12 to 15 in breadth, situated between the Neckar and the Danube. It forms the water-shed between these two rivers and the basin of the Rhine, and lies almost entirely within the kingdom of Würtemberg. It is also in the vicinity of the Black Forest, but presents a totally different appearance, on account of its being clothed with forests of hard wood instead of pine. It forms a table-land intersected by a few narrow deep valleys. The average height of the system is rather more than 2000 feet. On the north, it descends to the Neckar in ridges of rocky cliffs, and abrupt pointed headlands; but on the south, it gradually slopes away to the level of the valley of the Danube. The scenery is often very picturesque, for the sharp, precipitous crags are frequently crowned with the ruined castles and strongholds of the famous old German families, such as the Hohenzollerns, Hohenstaufens, &c. The geological formation of the Alp is calcareous, and presents a regular stratification. Caverns of a very remarkable character abound among the rocks. The valleys at the base of the hills are fertile, and produce abundance of wine and fruit, but the high table-land has an extremely poor and barren soil.

ALPA'CA, or **PACO** (*Auchenia Paco*; see **AUCHENIA**), an animal of the same genus with the Lama (q. v.), and so closely allied to it, that many naturalists regard it as a variety rather than a distinct species. It is remarkable for the length and fineness of the wool, which is of a silken texture, and of an uncommonly lustrous, almost metallic appearance. The A. is smaller than the lama; the legs and breast are destitute of callosities. In form, it somewhat resembles the sheep, but with a longer neck and more elegant head. It carries its long neck erect; its motions are free and active, its ordinary pace a rapid bounding canter. The eyes are very large and beautiful. The wool, if regularly shorn, is supposed to grow about six or eight inches in a year; but if allowed to remain upon the animal for several years, attains a much greater length, sometimes even thirty inches, and not unfrequently twenty. Its colour varies; it is often yellowish brown; sometimes gray, or approaching to white; sometimes almost black.

The A. is a native of the Andes, from the equator to Tierra del Fuego, but is most frequent on the

Alpaca.

highest mountains of Peru and Chili, almost on the borders of perpetual snow, congregating in flocks of one or two hundred. In a wild state, it is very shy and vigilant; a sentinel on some elevated station gives notice of the approach of danger by snorting to alarm the flock. Alpacas seem instinctively to know when a storm is coming on, and seek the most sheltered situation within their reach. Flocks, the property of the Peruvian Indians, are allowed to graze throughout the whole year on the elevated pastures, and are driven to the huts only at shearing-time. When one is separated from the rest, it throws itself on the ground, and neither kindness nor severity will induce it to rise and advance alone. It is only when brought to the Indian huts very young, that they can be domesticated so as to live without the companionship of the flock; but then they become very bold and familiar. Their habits are remarkably cleanly.

The Indians have from time immemorial made blankets and ponchos or cloaks of A. wool. It is not quite fifty years since it became an article of commerce, but its use for the manufacture of shawls, coat-linings, cloth for warm climates, umbrellas, &c., has gradually increased, and more than 2,000,000 lbs. are now annually imported into Britain. The credit of introducing and raising to its present magnitude the Alpaca wool-manufacture in Britain, is due to Sir Titus Salt.

Attempts have been made to introduce the A. into Europe; but not yet with very satisfactory results. The only considerable flock known to exist is in the Pyrenees. There seems no reason, however, to doubt that the mountains of Wales and Scotland are suitable for this branch of husbandry; and it is to be hoped that enterprise such as has been directed to the manufacture of A. wool in Britain, will soon, and with equal success, be directed to the production of it. There are probably not yet more than two or three hundred alpacas in Britain, and these mostly in parks connected with the residences of noblemen and gentlemen, not in the situations for which they seem to be peculiarly adapted. An attempt was made in 1821 to introduce the A. into the United States; a fund was raised, and, in 1857, a cargo of them was shipped to Baltimore, but the result shewed that they could not be acclimatised.

A. wool is straighter than that of the sheep, very strong in proportion to its thickness, and breaks little in combing. The fibre is small, and it is very soft, pliable, and elastic.—The flesh of the animal is said to be very wholesome and pleasant.

ALP-ARSLA'N, a Persian sultan, the second of the Seljukide dynasty, born in Turkestan in 1028 or 1030. In 1053, he ascended the throne of Khorassan, after the death of his father Daoud, and in 1063 he also succeeded his uncle. His first act was to unite the whole of his dominions in one vast monarchy. He next embraced Islamism, and it was on this occasion that he took the surname of Alp-Arslan (the Lion-heart), his real name being Mohammed-Lhaz-ed-Dyn-Abou-Choudja. The Calif of Bagdad gave him the title of Adhad-eddin (Defender of the Faith), with this extreme honour namely, that prayer should be made in his name. He had an excellent vizier, Nisam-al-Mulk, one of those lettered ornaments of early Mohammedanism. This vizier was the founder of all the colleges and academies in the kingdom. While he directed the internal administration of affairs, A. made war successfully. He suppressed revolts, and extended the northern boundaries of his dominions. In 1067 and 1068 he pursued the course of his conquests, carrying off the gates of the church of St Basil at Cæsarea, which were enriched with gold and pearls, and of the Greeks under Nicephorus Bot he invaded

entitling him to be lodged at the public expense, and whose lodging is not otherwise paid for by the public, receives an allowance as 'lodging-money,' varying in amount according to his rank. An officer marching with troops in the United Kingdom, on a route determined by competent authority, if unable to mess with his regiment or detachment on a particular day, receives an allowance in compensation. An officer sent on permanent or temporary duty from one place to another, receives a travelling allowance of so much per mile. An officer serving on a court-martial receives an allowance at so much per day, besides a travelling allowance if the place be distant. An officer temporarily detached on duty, where he cannot join his regimental mess, has an allowance for mess-money. Besides those here enumerated, there are A. for detention at ports of embarkation, &c., and others of a minor kind.

A. or extra payments to private soldiers and non-commissioned officers, will be noticed under PAY, PENSION, &c.—The daily food served out at the public expense, which is called a *ration* by soldiers, is more usually known to sailors as an *allowance*. See RATION.

ALLOWAY KIRK, an old ruined church in the parish of Ayr, near the mouth of the Doon, celebrated in Burns's *Tam o' Shanter*. At very short distances from it are the cottage in which the poet was born, the monument erected to his memory in 1823, and the 'Twa Brigs,' 'the Auld Brig o' Doon' and the new bridge over that river.

ALLOY' (in Chemistry) is a mixture of two or more metals, either natural, or produced artificially by melting them together. The A., or mixture, has often different properties from the component metals, and bears a distinct name. Thus, bell-metal is an A. of copper and tin; tombak, of copper and zinc; brass, of copper, with a larger proportion of zinc, &c. Alloys are generally harder than the metals that compose them, and this is the motive for alloying the precious metals. Both gold and silver, when pure, are very soft, and easily worn away by use; and therefore, a certain proportion of copper is added, to give these metals the requisite hardness. In this case the word 'alloy' signifies the inferior metal added, and not the mixture. For coin, the proportion of copper to be added is fixed by law (see the following article), and differs in different states. It has been found by experiment that $\frac{1}{12}$ of A. gives the greatest durability. This is exactly the proportion in British gold coin, a pound troy of the metal containing 11 parts gold and 1 part copper. The A. in our silver coin is somewhat less, being 18 dwt. in the pound instead of 20 dwt. For convenience in reckoning, the standard of the coinage in France, and other countries that adopt its monetary system, as well as in the United States, is made $\frac{9}{10}$ pure metal and $\frac{1}{10}$ A., usually stated 900 (in 1000) parts fine. Our gold and silver standards similarly stated would be 917 and 925 respectively. Gold is sometimes alloyed with silver, or with a mixture of silver and copper. The colour of gold and silver is affected by the nature and amount of the A. A strong A. of copper makes gold red; of silver, green: and a still stronger of silver, a bright yellow. A compound of mercury with another metal is an *Amalgam* (q. v.).

Alloys seldom possess the density which theory or calculation from the specific gravity of their constituents would indicate. Thus, many alloys possess a greater density than the mean density of their constituents, whilst others have a less density. The increase in density of the A. indicates that the metals have contracted; in other words, that the metallic molecules have approached each other more closely; whilst the decrease in density denotes a separation of the molecules to greater distances from each other.

ALLOYS which exhibit a greater density than the mean density of the metals composing them.			ALLOYS which possess a less density than the mean density of the metals composing them.		
Gold	and	Zinc.	Gold	and	Silver.
"	"	Tin.	"	"	Iron.
"	"	Bismuth.	"	"	Lead.
"	"	Antimony.	"	"	Copper.
"	"	Cobalt.	"	"	Iridium.
Silver	"	Zinc.	"	"	Nickel.
"	"	Tin.	Silver	"	Copper.
"	"	Bismuth.	Iron	"	Bismuth.
"	"	Antimony.	"	"	Antimony.
Copper	"	Zinc.	"	"	Lead.
"	"	Tin.	Tin	"	Lead.
"	"	Palladium.	"	"	Palladium.
"	"	Bismuth.	"	"	Antimony.
Lead	"	Antimony.	Nickel	"	Silver.
Platinum	and	Molybdenum.	Zinc	"	Antimony.
Palladium	"	Bismuth.			

The strength or cohesion of an A. is generally greater than that of the mean cohesion of the metals contained therein, or even of that of the most cohesive of its constituents. Thus, the breaking weight of a bar of copper or tin (meaning the longitudinal strain it can bear) is very much lower than the breaking weight of a bar composed of an A. of tin and copper. The following tables represent the

COHESION OF METALS.

	Bar, one inch square, breaks with lbs.
Barbary Copper,	22,570
Japan "	20,272
English Block Tin,	6,650
" "	5,322
Banca Tin,	3,679
Malacca Tin,	3,211
Bismuth,	3,008
Zinc,	2,689
Antimony,	1,060
Lead,	885

When any two of the above metals combine together, they generally—though not always—yield an A. which is much stronger than we should expect; thus the

COHESION OF ALLOYS.

						Bar, one inch square, yields with lbs.
10	parts of	Copper and	1	part of	Tin,	32,003
8	"	"	1	"	"	36,088
6	"	"	1	"	"	44,071
4	"	"	1	"	"	35,739
2	"	"	1	"	"	1,017
1	"	"	1	"	"	725
4	"	English Tin and	1	"	Lead,	10,607
4	"	Banca "	1	"	Antimony,	13,489
4	"	" "	1	"	Bismuth,	16,692
4	"	English Tin "	1	"	Zinc,	10,258
4	"	" "	1	"	Antimony,	11,323

The power of conducting electrical currents is not so great in an A. as the mean conducting-power of its components.

The composition of the more commonly occurring and commercially important alloys, is as follows: Plumber's solder, 1 tin and 2 lead; soft solder, 2 tin and 1 lead; common pewter, 4 tin and 1 lead; gun-metal, 9 copper and 1 tin; bronze, 9 copper and 1 tin and zinc; cymbals and Chinese gongs, 4 copper

and 1 tin; bell-metal, 3 copper and 1 tin; speculum metal, 2 copper and 1 tin; pot-metal or cock-metal, 2 copper and 1 lead; gilding-metal, 16 copper and 1 to 1½ zinc; Manaheim gold—pinchbeck or bath-metal, 16 copper and 4 zinc; Bristol brass, for soldering, 16 copper and 6 zinc; ordinary brass, for casting, 16 copper and 8 zinc; Muntz sheathing-metal, 16 copper and 10½ zinc; spelter solder, for copper and iron, 16 copper and 12 zinc; spelter solder, for brass-work, 16 copper and 16 zinc; Mosaic gold, 16 copper and 16½ zinc; hardest silver solder, 4 silver and 1 copper; hard silver solder, 3 silver and 1 copper; soft silver solder, 2 silver and 1 copper; German silver, 100 copper, 60 zinc, and 40 nickel; type-metal, ordinary, 15 lead, 4 antimony, and 1 tin, or 14 lead, 5 antimony, and 1 tin—small types, 4 lead and 1 antimony—large types, 6 lead and 1 antimony; stereotype metal, 48 lead, 6 antimony, and 1 tin; Britannia metal, 50 tin, 4 antimony, 4 bismuth, and 1 copper.

ALLOY, or **ALLAY** (in Law), the term used to denote the base metal mixed with gold and silver in the coinage of the realm. The gold and silver to be converted into sovereigns, half-sovereigns, shillings, and the other current silver coins, must be of the true standard, or of *sterling* quality, as it is called; and by the statute 25 Edward III. c. 13, all the coin of the kingdom must be made of such *sterling* metal. By the 56 Geo. III. c. 68, gold coin—with certain exceptions recited in the act—is declared to be the only legal tender for payments, and that such gold coin shall be of the weight and fineness prescribed by the indenture with the Master of the Mint; and according to the standard thus indicated, the pound troy of gold, consisting of twenty-two carats—or twenty-fourth parts—fine, and two of A., is divided into forty-four guineas and a half, of the present value of twenty-one shillings each. In the case of silver, the pound troy is declared by the same act—extended by a recent statute, the 12 and 13 Vict. c. 41—to consist of eleven ounces two pennyweights of fine silver, and eighteen pennyweights of A., and in weight to be divided into sixty-six shillings. The regulation of the coinage forms part of the prerogative of the crown, although parliament also exercises a control over it; indeed, since the Revolution, the coinage has been chiefly regulated by the authority of parliament. See COINAGE and MINT.

ALL-SAINTS' BAY, in the province of Bahia, Brazil, in 12°—13° S. lat., and 38°—39° W. long. It forms a superb natural harbour, in which the navies of the whole world might anchor. Its length from N. to S. is 37 miles; its breadth from E. to W. 27. It contains several islands, the largest of which, Itaparica, is 18 miles long, and 3 broad. The entrance to the bay is easy. The town of Bahia (q. v.) lies just within it, on the right hand.

ALL-SAINTS'-DAY, in old English, All-Hallows, All-Hallowmas, or simply Hallowmas, a festival of the Roman Catholic Church, introduced because of the impossibility of keeping a separate day for every saint. As early as the 4th c., on the cessation of the persecution of the Christians, the Sunday after Easter was appointed by the Greek Church for commemorating the martyrs generally; and in the Church of Rome a similar festival was introduced about 610 A. D., when the old heathen Pantheon (the present Rotonda, or Santa Maria dei Martiri) was consecrated, on the 13th of March, to Mary and all the Martyrs. But the real festival of All Saints was first regularly instituted by Gregory IV., in 835, and appointed to be celebrated on the 1st November. It was admitted into England about 870. The choice to the day was doubtless determined by the fact, that November 1, or rather the *eve* or night preceding it, was one of the four great festivals (1st February, 1st May, 1st August, and 1st November) of the heathen nations of the north; for it was the policy of the church to supplant heathen by Christian observances. See BELTANE and HALLOW-EVE.

ALL-SOULS'-DAY, a festival of the Roman Catholic Church, which falls on the 2d of November. The object of it is, by prayers and almsgiving to alleviate the sufferings of the souls in purgatory. It was first instituted in the monastery of Clugny, 993, and the following is the account given of the circumstance in which it originated: A pilgrim returning from the Holy Land, was compelled by a storm to land on a rocky island somewhere between Sicily and Thessalonica. Here he found a hermit, who told him that among the cliffs of the island was situated the opening into the under world, through which huge flames ascended, and the groans and cries of souls tormented by evil angels were audible. The hermit had also frequently heard the complaints and imprecations of the devils, at the number of souls that were torn from them by the prayers and alms of the pious; they were especially enraged, he said, against the Abbot and monks of Clugny. The pilgrim on his arrival acquainted Odilo, Abbot of Clugny, with what had come to his knowledge, and the abbot thereupon appointed the day after All Saints to be kept in his monastery as an annual festival for 'All Souls.' The observance was quickly adopted by the whole Catholic world. By another account, the scene of the incident is transferred to Sicily, and the institution to the year 998.

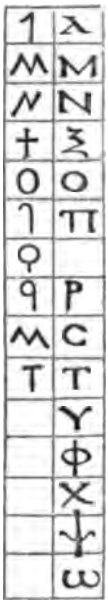
In some parts of the west of England it is still 'the custom for the village children to go round to all their neighbours *souling*, as they call it—collecting small contributions, and singing the following verses, taken down from two of the children themselves:

> Soul! soul! for a soul-cake;
> Pray, good mistress, for a soul-cake.
> One for Peter, two for Paul,
> Three for Them who made us all.
>
> Soul! soul! for an apple or two;
> If you've got no apples, pears will do.
> Up with your kettle, and down with your pan;
> Give me a good big one, and I'll be gone.

The soul-cake referred to in the verses is a sort of bun, which, until lately, it was an almost general custom for people to make, and to give to one another on the 2d of November.'—*Notes and Queries*, First Series, vol. 4.

ALLSPICE, a name frequently given to the kind of spice called PIMENTA (q. v.) or Jamaica pepper, the fruit of *Eugenia pimenta* and *E. acris*. The name originated in its being supposed to combine the flavour of different spices, particularly cinnamon, nutmeg, and cloves.—The name CAROLINA A., or AMERICAN A., is given to the aromatic bark of *Calycanthus floridus* (see CALYCANTHUS), which is employed in the United States as a substitute for cinnamon.—The berries of *Benzoin odoriferum*, of the natural order *Lauraceæ*, are said to have been used for A. in the same country during the war with Great Britain.

ALLSTON, WASHINGTON, one of the best known of the painters and poets of America, was born at George Town, South Carolina, in 1779. He at first prosecuted the study of medicine, but was afterwards induced, by his acquaintance with the painter Malbone, to devote himself to art. When he had completed his studies in America, he went to London, where he became a friend of his countryman West, who was at that time president of the Academy. In the year 1804, he proceeded to Rome, where he



1	2	3	4	*Name.*	*Power.*
		A	λ	Lambda	l
		M	μ	My	m
		N	ν	Ny	n
		Ξ	ξ	Xi	x
		O	ο	Omikron	o (short)
		Π	π	Pi	p
		P	ϱ	Rho	r
		Σ	σ, ς	Sigma	s
		T	τ	Tau	t
		Υ	υ	Ypsilon	u
		Φ	φ	Phi	f ph
		X	χ	Chi	ch
		Ψ	ψ	Psi	ps
		Ω	ω	Omĕga	o (long)

With regard to the *figures* or shapes of the letters, it is believed that they all arose out of pictures or hieroglyphic characters. The names of the Hebrew letters are also the names of material objects; and the letters themselves were at first, in all probability, rude outlines of the objects. Aleph, for example, means an 'ox,' and the letter was in its origin an outline of an ox's head. The history of Gimel, which means 'camel,' is probably similar. The Hebrew characters known to us are believed to be comparatively modern, and much corrupted from their original forms, and the likenesses are more difficult to trace in them than in the Samaritan and the early Greek, or even in the Latin. Mem, again, is the Hebrew word for 'water,' and some of the earliest forms of the letter M are zigzag lines, similar to the sign of *Aquarius* (♒) in the zodiac, intended no doubt to represent the undulations of water. Ayn, the name of the Hebrew letter equivalent to O, also means an 'eye,' and the picture of an eye would naturally degenerate into a circle, first with a dot in the centre (which some ancient O's actually have), and then without a dot.

The A. came into Italy not directly from Phœnicia, but from Greece, and that at a time when the Greek A. had undergone some of the changes described above, although not all of them; υ, φ, and χ had been added, but not ψ and ω. Moreover, there must have been distinct and independent importations into more than one part of Italy, and that, probably, from different parts of Greece, or, at all events, at different periods. The Etrurian A. is evidently an earlier importation than the more southerly Latin, as it departs less from the Phœnician. There are even differences in different parts of Etruria itself. The alphabets of Etruria north of the Apennines (for numerous inscriptions recently discovered shew that this remarkable race must have extended at one time as far north as the Alpine valleys of Provence, Tyrol, Graubündten, and Styria) differ slightly from the alphabets of the inscriptions in Etruria proper, which are demonstrably taken from the A. of the Greek colony of Cære.

The Latin A., which became that of Rome, and thus of the whole western world, was borrowed from a newer form of the Greek—namely, that imported by the Dorian Greeks of Cumæ and Sicily. The writing in the oldest Latin inscriptions is never from right to left, as is mostly the case in Etrurian. On the other hand, the Kaph and the Koph (K and Q) of the Phœnician, which disappear in Etrurian, are retained in Latin. The Greek A. of Cumæ had not yet received the addition of ψ and ω; but it still retained the representative of the Phœnician Vau, the Digamma, and also *Koppa*, and thus consisted of twenty-four letters. The Latin tongue, being destitute of aspirate sounds, dropped the three letters ι, φ, χ, so that the original Latin A. consisted of twenty-one letters, the forms of which, as seen on the oldest inscriptions, were as in the following table. See Corssen's *Aussprache, Vocalismus und Betonung der Lateinischen Sprache* (Leip. 1858).

1. a	A, Λ, Λ, Λ.	12. m	M, W, ⋀. IIII.
2. b	ß, B.	13. n	N, N.
3. c	ᐸ, C, Ⅽ.	14. o	◇, ○, O, o.
4. d	D.	15. p	⊓, P.
5. e	E, II.	16. q	Q.
6. f	⅂, F.	17. r	R, R.
7. z	Z.	18. s	⸗, ≮, S.
8. h	H.	19. t	Γ, T.
9. i	I.	20. v	(u), V.
10. k	K. (Ⅽ)	21. x	X.
11. l	⅃, Λ, L.		

Z was early dropped, and the new letter G (see above) substituted for it; and thus the Latin A. continued to the last to consist of twenty-one letters, until it was applied to the modern tongues of Western Europe. The distinction made between u and v, and between i and j, in printing Latin books, is a modern innovation; and no Latin word contains either y or z. The five additional letters that make up the twenty-six of the English A., arose from the addition of z, and the development of i into j, and of u into w, v, and y.

The Anglo-Saxon A. had two useful letters, which have disappeared from modern English—namely, one for the sound of *th* in *thin*, and one (or rather two) for that of *th* in *thine*. These were derived, in all probability, from the Mœso-Gothic A., which (as well as the Russian and other Slavonic alphabets) was founded on the Greek rather than the Latin. The loss of these letters is owing to the influence of the Norman-French, the alphabet of which is exclusively Latin. The forms of the Anglo-Saxon letters are as under:

A	a	(A)	N	n	
Æ	æ	(Æ)	O	o	
B	b		P	p	
C	c	(Ⅽ)	R	r	(ꝛ)
D	d	(ð)	S	s	(ſ)
E	e	(e)	T	t	(ꞇ)
F	f	(ꝼ)	U	u	
G	g	(Ꝿ ȝ)	W	w	(ƿ Ƿ)
H	h	(ꞕ Þ)	X	x	
I	i		Y	y	
L	l		Þ	þ	th (thin)
M	m	(Ⅿ)	Ð	ð	th (thine)

'The characters between brackets were written by the Anglo-Saxons, but, being for the most part mere corruptions of the Roman forms, are now seldom printed.'—Vernon's *Anglo-Saxon Grammar*.

The peculiarities of the several letters will be noticed in their proper places. For their classification, and the defects and redundancies of the English A., see LETTERS AND ARTICULATE SOUNDS. Other points connected with this subject will be found under BLACK-LETTER, ORTHOGRAPHY, and PHONETIC WRITING.

ALPHEIUS (now Ruféa, Rufiá, or Rofiá) is the chief river of Peloponnesus (Morea), rising in the south-east of Arcadia, and flowing west through Elis, and past the famous Olympia, into the Ionic Sea. This river is one of the most celebrated in ancient song, and is connected with a beautiful and characteristic Greek legend. The nature of the upper course of the A. was calculated to affect strongly the imagination of the Greeks. In its passage through Arcadia, a country consisting of cavernous limestone, and abounding in shut-in basins and valleys, it repeatedly disappears under ground and rises again. After these feats, it was capable of anything—even of flowing under the sea and the Greek colonists of Sicily thought they recognised it in their new country. Close on the margin of the sea in the island of Ortygia (the site of Syracuse), there was a beautiful and copious fountain; and just where the water of this fountain joined the sea, another strong spring bubbled up under the salt water. This could only be another freak of the A.; and it was popularly believed that the sweepings of the temple of Olympia, after the great festival, when thrown into the river, reappeared in the springs at Ortygia. Strabo asserts as a fact that a cup did so.

This wonderful phenomenon found its explanation, as usual, in a myth, connecting it with the history of the gods. The river-god Alpheius became enamoured of the nymph Arethusa while bathing in his stream. To escape him, she prayed to Diana, who changed her into a fountain, and opened up an underground passage for her to Ortygia. The river still pursued the object of his love, passing from Greece to Sicily below the sea, without mingling his waters with it, and appearing in the spring that bubbles up by the shore.

ALPINE HUSBANDRY. The characteristic feature of A. farming is, that the preparation of fodder is the chief object, and the cultivation of grain only secondary. In the less elevated regions bordering on the flat country, it is the practice to break up the grass from time to time, and take a succession of grain crops. In more elevated districts, the moisture of the climate and the shortness of the season of vegetation, prevent crops requiring tillage from coming to perfection, and there the whole attention is devoted to pasturage and the preparation of meadow-hay. The top-dressing of the plots devoted to hay-growing, with the solid and liquid manure of the cattle, the cutting and making of the hay, and transporting it to the farm-offices, occupy a great part of the labour of the population of the Alps. They turn to account for hay-making those shelves and crevices among the mountains which are inaccessible to cattle, and even goats; the herbage, which often grows luxuriantly in such situations, is cut, bound up in cloths or nets, and carried down difficult paths on the head, or is flung over the precipices.

The grass-lands in the lower regions near the dwellings being mostly reserved for hay, the cattle are pastured in summer in those regions that lie too high or too remote to be inhabited in winter. These pastures consist of plateaus and slopes, which immediately on the disappearance of the snow, become clothed with a rich carpet of herbage and flowers. Each separate locality or pasture is called an *Alp*. Some of these 'alps' belong to individuals; others to the commune or parish. The more rocky and steep places are pastured by sheep and goats. There are three zones or stages in the A. pastures. The cattle are driven to the first and lowest stage about the end of May; about a month later, they ascend to the 'middle Alps'; and by the end of July, they reach the Upper Alps. As the days shorten, they descend in the same gradual way, so that the whole 'Alp-time' lasts about 20 weeks. The pastures are provided with huts for those who have charge of the cattle, who also convert the milk into cheese. Little butter is made. The departure for the 'Alps' in spring, and the return in autumn, are made the occasion of popular festivals.

ALPINE PLANTS. This appellation is given not only to those plants which are found at elevations approaching the limit of perpetual snow in the Alps of Central Europe, but also to plants belonging to other mountainous regions in any part of the world, whose natural place of growth is near snows that are never melted even by the beams of the summer's sun. As the elevation of the snow-line, however, varies very much in different countries, according to the latitude, and also from peculiar local circumstances, the term A. P. is not so much significant of the actual elevation of the habitat, as of the average temperature which prevails there. On the Andes, near the equator, at an elevation of 12,000–15,000 feet above the level of the sea, many kinds of plants are found, of humble growth, resembling in their general appearance those which occur in Germany and Switzerland at an elevation of 6000 feet; and these, again, either resemble, or are even identical with, the species which in Lapland grow upon hills of very little elevation, or which, in the northern parts of Siberia, are found at the level of the sea. Similar plants occur also in the Himalaya Mountains, at elevations varying remarkably within very narrow geographical limits from local causes, which also create great differences in the general dryness or humidity of the atmosphere. The laws of this natural distribution of plants have been in our own day for the first time investigated and elucidated by Humboldt, Wahlenberg, Schouw, Decandolle, and others, and form the most essential part of a branch of science still in its infancy, and much requiring further study, phytogeography, or the science of the geographic distribution of plants. When the A. P. of Central Europe are spoken of, those are meant which grow at an average height of 6000 feet, marking what, in the language of phytogeographic science, is called a *zone*. This, on its northern limit, the Riesengebirge, or Giants' Mountains, falls as low as 4000 feet, and rises, in the southern Alps and Pyrenees, to an elevation of 9000 feet, and sometimes even above it. Although very rich in forms peculiarly its own, this zone contains many plants which are likewise found on much lower hills, and even in the plains. The number of these, however, diminishes as the elevation increases. Hence the small spaces clear of snow in the highest regions possess a very characteristic flora, the plants of which are distinguished by a very low diminutive habit, and an inclination to form a thick turf, frequently, also, by a covering of woolly hairs, whilst their stems are very often either partly or altogether woody, and their flowers are in proportion remarkably large, of brilliant colours, and in many instances very odoriferous, upon which accounts, they remarkably attract and please the occasional visitors from the plains. In the Alps of Central Europe, the eye is at once caught by gentians, saxifrages, rhododendrons, and

various species of primrose. With these and other phanerogamous plants, are associated a number of delicate ferns and exceedingly beautiful mosses. The highest mountains in Scotland exhibit a somewhat similar flora, and beautiful plants, both phanerogamous and cryptogamous, are found on them, which never appear in lower situations, as the Alpine Speedwell (*Veronica Alpina*), the small Alpine Gentian (*Gentiana nivalis*), the Rock Scorpion Grass, or Alpine Forget-me-not (*Myosotis Alpestris*), *Azalea procumbens*, *Woodsia Ilvensis* and *hyperborea*, &c. Many A. P. are limited to a very small district. Thus, the flora of Switzerland differs considerably from that of Germany, the latter being now known to contain 3400 phanerogamous plants, of which the former contains 2200, and along with them also 126 species which have hitherto been found only in the Swiss Alps.—There are, moreover, particular species of plants which are found only in single localities, as *Hypericum coris*, upon the mountain of Wiggis in the canton of Glarus; *Wulfenia Carinthiaca*, upon the Külweger Alp, in Upper Carinthia, and many others. There are, however, many species which, occurring on the mountains of Central Europe, appear also in those of Britain and of Scandinavia at lower altitudes, but are not found in the intervening plains. See SPECIES, DISTRIBUTION OF.—Cryptogamic plants are generally found in Alpine regions in much greater abundance than elsewhere. The transplanting of A. P. into gardens is attended with great difficulties, and is rarely successful. Their great beauty, even when dried, makes them favourites with those plant-collectors who have amusement more in view than the mere interests of science. Small herbaria of them are offered for sale everywhere in Switzerland; and in some places, large collections have been prepared and thrown open to the public.

ALPI'NIA. See GALANGALE.

A'LPNACH, or ALPNACHT, a Swiss village, in the canton of Unterwalden, at the foot of Mount Pilatus, 1½ miles from that part of Lake Lucerne called Lake A. It is known principally on account of its celebrated 'slide.' This was a sort of wooden trough by which the felled timber of Mount Pilatus was conveyed with amazing velocity from a height of 2500 feet down to the lake. In order to prevent friction, the trough was perpetually lubricated by a slender rill of water. It is no longer used, the wood being now drawn down by horses and oxen. Population of A., 1500.

ALPS, the most extensive system of lofty mountains in Europe, raise their giant masses on a basis of 90,000 square miles, between 6° 40′ and 18° E. long., and extending in some places from the 44th to the 48th parallel of latitude. The word *Alp* or *Alb*, signifying in the Celtic language 'white,' was the name given to these mountains on account of their tops being perpetually covered with snow. The Alpine system is bounded on the N. by the hilly ground of Switzerland and the upper plain of the Danube; on the E., by the low plains of Hungary; on the S., by the Adriatic Sea, the plains of Lombardy, and the Gulf of Genoa; and on the W., by the plains of Provence and the valley of the Rhone. A string of lakes encircles both the northern and southern bases of these mountains, the former at an elevation of 1200 - 2000 feet; the latter, 600—700 feet. The varied natural scenery of France, Italy, Germany, and Hungary has a common centre of union in this lofty region. Valleys open out in all directions, sending their melted snows on one side into the North Sea, on another into the Black Sea, and on another into the Mediterranean.

The *water-system* of the A. may be thus briefly sketched: 1. In the basin of the Rhine, there is the Rhine itself, which partly forms the Lake of Constance, at the north-eastern extremity of Switzerland, and receives on the left the important tributaries of the Thur and the Aar; the latter of which flows through Lakes Brienz and Thun, and is itself augmented by various affluents, the largest of which are the Reuss and the Limmat. 2. In the basin of the Danube there flow from the south the Iller, Lech, Isar, and the Inn. Still further east, the Danube has for its tributaries the Traun, the Ens, the Raab, the Drave, and the Save, the last three of which have their sources in the extreme Eastern A. 3. In the basin of the Po, there are numerous streams, which rise in the Southern A.; the principal of these are the Dora Baltea, the Sesia, the Ticino from Lake Maggiore, the Mincio from Lake Garda, and the Adige. 4. In the basin of the Rhone, there are the Rhone (flowing through the Lake of Geneva), and various Alpine tributaries, the most important of which are the Arve, the Isère, and the Durance. 5. The Var is the principal Ligurian coast-stream; the Piave, and the Tagliamento, the largest of those which fall into the Adriatic from the Southern A.

Divisions.—In order to give a clear view of the manifold ranges of this mountain-land, a distinction is generally made between the East, the West, and the Middle A.; the last of which is again divided into a northern, central, and southern chain; while a natural separation by river-valleys into groups is also made. I. WEST A.—The principal ranges of these are: 1. The Maritime A., extending from the middle Durance southwards to the Mediterranean, and rising in the Col Roburent to the height of 9400 feet. 2. The Cottian A., north of these, whose highest summit, Monte Viso, is 13,599 feet. 3. The Graian A., forming the boundary between Savoy and Piedmont, and attaining in Mont Iséran an elevation of 13,272 feet, and in Mont Cenis, an elevation of 11,457 feet. II. MIDDLE A. *Central Chain.*—1. The Pennine A., between the plains of Lombardy and the valley of the Rhone. Highest summits: Mont Blanc, 15,744 feet; Monte Rosa, 15,151 feet; Mont Cervin, 14,836 feet. 2. The Lepontian or Helvetian A., from the depression of the Simplon, along the plateau and masses of St Gothard (12,000 feet), to the pass of Mont Splügen. 3. The Rhætian A., between the Inn, the Adda, and the Upper Adige. *Northern Chain.*—1. The Bernese A., between the Rhone and the Aar; highest summits: Finsteraarhorn, 14,026 feet; Jungfrau, 13,716 feet; Schreckhorn, 13,397 feet. 2. The A. of the Four 'Forest Cantons,' the Schwytz A., &c. *The Southern Chain.*—1. The Oertler A., between the Adda and the Adige; highest summit, Oertlerspitz, 12,822 feet. 2. The Trientine A., between the Adige and the Piave; highest summit, La Marmolata, 9802 feet. III. EAST A.—The principal chains of these are: 1. The Noric A., between the plains of the Drave and the Danube; highest summit, Gross-Glockner, 12,431 feet. 2. The Carnic A., between the Drave and the Save. 3. The Julian A., between the Save and the Adriatic Sea; highest summit, Mont Terglu, 9366 feet.

Elevation.—With respect to height, it is a general rule that the A. are lowest where the system is broadest, that is, in the E., and highest where the system is narrowest, that is, towards the W. Making a threefold distinction of crests, summits, and passes, the principal ranges may be characterised as follows. The crest-line (1) of West A., 6000—11,000 feet; (2) of Middle A., 9000—13,000 feet; (3) of East A., 3600—9000 feet. The summits: (1) of West A., 9000—14,000 feet; (2) of Middle A., 9000—15,800 feet; (3) of East A., 6000—12,000 feet. Height of the passes: (1) of West A., 4000—6000

feet; (2) of Middle A., 6500—11,000 feet; (3) of East A., 3500—6000 feet.

A comprehensive classification leads to a division of the elevations into three regions: 1. The lower range forming the buttresses of the main masses, and reaching a height of 2500–6000 feet; that is, to the extreme limit of the growth of wood. 2. The middle zone lying between the former limit and the snow-line, at the elevation of 8000—9000 feet. 3. The high A., rising to 15,744 feet. The middle zone forms the region of mountain-pasturages, where the characteristic Alpine dairy-farming is carried on. These pastures consist of a rich carpet of grass and flowers. This threefold division of heights, however, does not everywhere coincide with the same phenomena of vegetation: the line of perpetual snow descends lower on the north side, and the boundaries of the zones above described vary accordingly. 1. The line of demarcation between the region of mosses and Alpine plants and that of perpetual snow, is from 8000—9000 feet on the northern declivities; but on the southern, it approaches 10,000 feet. 2. The highest limit to which wood attains on the north is about 6000 feet, while on the south it is nearly 7000 feet. 3. Grain, beech, and oak, on the north, disappear at the elevation of 4000 feet; on the south, they contrive to exist, some hundreds of feet higher. 4. The region of the vine, as well as of maize and chestnuts, extends to an elevation of 1900 feet on the northern declivity; and on the southern declivity, to 2300 feet. The ranges of outlying lower mountains which flank the high central Alps on the N., E., and W., are mostly wanting on the S., especially where the Middle A. descend into the plains of Lombardy. Thus the A. rise in steep rocky precipices from the level of the flat plains of the Po, whilst they sink more gradually into the plains on the north; hence their mighty masses closely piled together present an aspect from the south more grand and awful; from the north, more extended and various.

Valleys.—The variety in the valleys as to form and arrangement is not less striking than in the elevations. Most worthy of notice is the characteristic form of the wide longitudinal valleys that lie at the foot of the high central chains. On the E. side, they open directly into the plain; on the N., they are connected with the plain through transverse valleys which often end in lakes. The transverse valleys on the S. side are mostly in the shape of steep rocky ravines, forming in some parts long-stretching lakes. Besides the deep-sunk principal valleys, there are extensive series of basin-shaped secondary valleys, which are the scenes of Alpine life, properly so called. Many of the Alpine valleys have names distinct from the rivers flowing through them. Thus, the valley of the Rhone is styled the Upper and Lower Valais; that of the Adda, the Valteline; of the Arve, Chamounix.

Communications – Passes.– The valleys of the high A. form the natural means of communication. Some are more accessible than others. The entrance into a longitudinal valley is almost always smooth and easy; art has often had to force an entrance into a transverse valley. On many of the high roads which link the principal with the secondary valleys, it has been found necessary to blow up long ridges of rock, to build terraces, to make stone-bridges and long galleries of rock as a protection against avalanches, as well as to erect places of shelter (*hospices*) from storms. The construction of these roads may be reckoned among the boldest and most skilful works of man. In crossing the A., several defiles (usually seven) have to be traversed; for in addition to the pass of the main crest, there are other defiles on both sides, at the entrances of the different valleys. In the E., the number of these narrow passes or defiles is considerably increased. The names applied to the Alpine passes vary according to their natural features or the local dialect; as Pass, Sattel (Saddle), Joch (Yoke) Scheideck, Klause Col, Chiusa. The traveller, in the course of a day's journey, experiences a succession of climatic changes, which is accompanied with an equal variety in the manners of the people.

No lofty mountains in the world can boast of being so easily crossed as the European A. Hence we can understand how the plains of Upper Italy, accessible from the French, German, and Hungarian sides, have been the theatre of bloody strife for ages. The passage of the West A. is made by five principal roads. 1. The military road, La Corniche, a coast-road at the foot of the A. from Nice to Genoa. 2. The causeway over the Col-di-Tenda, between Nice and Coni, made in 1778; highest point, 5890 feet. 3. The high road so much used in ancient times over Mount Genèvre, connecting Provence and Dauphiné with Turin; highest point, 6550 feet. 4. The carriage-road made by Napoleon in 1805, over Mount Cenis, connecting Savoy with Piedmont; highest point, 6770 feet. Near this the chain is pierced by the railway tunnel (see Tunnel, and Cenis). 5. The pass of the Little St Bernard, connecting Geneva, Savoy, and Piedmont; highest point, 7190 feet. By this pass, Hannibal crossed into Italy. It is not much used now. Besides these great roads, there are many smaller ones branching off from them, which form a pretty close network of communication. The passage of the Middle A. is made by eight principal roads. 1. That of the Great St Bernard, connecting the valley of the Rhone with Piedmont; highest point, 8170 feet. It was crossed by Napoleon in 1800. 2. The magnificent road over the Simplon, constructed by Napoleon, 1801—1806, and connecting the Valais with the confines of Piedmont and Lombardy; highest point, 6570 feet. 3. Between the Great St Bernard and Monte Rosa is the Col of Mont Cervin, the loftiest pass in Europe, being nearly 11,200 feet, connecting Piedmont with the Valais. 4. The pass of St Gothard, connecting Lucerne with Lago Maggiore; highest point, 6800 feet. It is about to be crossed by a railway. 5. The Bernardin Pass, made 1819—1823, by the Swiss Grisons and Sardinia; highest point, 6900 feet. 6. The Splügen Pass, repaired in 1822, connecting the sources of the Rhine with the Adda. This pass was the one used by the Romans in their intercourse with the countries bordering on the Danube and the Rhine, and also by the German armies on their marches into Italy in the middle ages. 7. The Wormser Joch, also called the Ortelea Pass, or Road, opened by Austria in 1824. It is the loftiest carriage-road in Europe, and connects the Tyrol with Lombardy. 8. The Brenner Pass, known to the Romans. It also connects the Tyrol with Lombardy; highest point, 4650 feet. It is now crossed by a railway. Besides these great roads, leading south into Italy, there are two which lead north from the valley of the Rhone, and cross the Bernese A., over the Grimsel Pass, 6500 feet high, and the Gemmi Pass, 7400 feet high. The roads over the East A. are much lower, and also much more numerous than those in the Middle or West A. The principal are 1. The road from Venice to Salzburg, crossing the Noric A. at an elevation of rather more than 5100 feet. 2. The road over the Carnic A., which divides into three branches the first leading to Laybach; the second, to the valley of the Isonzo; and the third to the valley of the Tagliamento. 3. The roads from the Danube at Linz to Laybach.

Geology.—The A. offer a rich field for geological

investigations, the results of which hitherto may be thus summed up: The highest central mass—the Primary A., as they are called—that rises from the plain to the S.W. of Turin, and stretches in a mighty curve to the Neusiedlersee, in Hungary, consists chiefly of the crystalline rocks Gneiss and Mica-slate, with a much smaller proportion of Granite. Enclosed among the Central A. appear representatives of the Carboniferous and Jurassic formations; but so altered and become so crystalline that their age can only be guessed from a few remaining petrefactions, which are accompanied here and there by garnets. In the Graian, Pennine, and Rhætian A. occur great masses of serpentine; in the N. of Piedmont, and in the upper valley of the Adige, quartz-porphyry. In the E. there are, on the N. and S. sides of the chief range, vast deposits of clay-slate and grauwacke mixed with transition limestone.

Beginning on the Mediterranean coast, and following in general the direction of the central chains, a belt of sedimentary rocks runs along the W. and N. sides to the neighbourhood of Vienna. On the south side, a similar belt runs from Lake Maggiore to Agram. The undulating curves and colossal dislocations presented by these regions, shew that the form of their mountains must have been the result of a mighty force acting northwards and southwards from the Central A. In respect of age, these sedimentary or calcareous A. include all the members of the series of formations from magnesian limestone up to the lowest strata of the tertiary group. The south-eastern portion of these calcareous mountains, forming the Julian A., mostly consist of cavernous rocks of the Jurassic and chalk groups; and are continued with this character into Dalmatia.

Minerals.—Precious stones are found in abundance in the trap and primary mountains, especially in the region of the St Gothard. The rock-crystal of St Gothard has a world-wide reputation. Mining and smelting become more and more productive as we advance eastward. Switzerland itself is poor in useful ores. Gold and silver are found in Tyrol, Salzburg, and Carinthia; there are also silver-mines in Styria and Illyria, and one near Grenoble, in France. Copper is found in the French A., in Tyrol, and Styria. The lead-mines near Villach, in Carinthia, yield yearly about 35,000 cwt. The yield of iron in Switzerland, Savoy, and Salzburg is trifling; Carinthia, on the other hand, produces 260,000 cwt., and Stiria 450,000 cwt. Quicksilver is extracted at Idria, in Carniola, to the amount of 1000—1500 cwt. The Alpine region is rich in salt, especially at Hall in Tyrol, and Hallein in Salzburg. Coal is found in Switzerland, in Savoy, and in the French A., but in no great quantity; the Austrian A. are, again, richer in this important mineral. The mineral springs, hot and cold, that occur in the region of the A. are innumerable. See AIX, ISCHL, LEUK, BADEN, &c.

Animals.—The Alpine mountains present many peculiarities worthy of notice in the animal as well as in the vegetable kingdom (see ALPINE PLANTS). On the sunny heights, the number of insects is very great; the butterflies are especially numerous. There are few fishes, although trouts are sometimes caught in ponds even 6000 feet above the level of the sea. Although the lofty mountains are inhabited by eagles, hawks, and various species of owls; yet the birds are few in comparison with the numbers in the plains, and those few are mostly confined to the larger valleys. Among the quadrupeds, the wild goat is sometimes, though rarely, to be met with; the chamois is more frequently seen, chiefly in the eastern districts. The marmot inhabits the upper Alpine regions. Wolves are seen more frequently in the west than in the east; in the latter, on the other hand, bears, lynxes, and wild-cats are found, although constantly diminishing in number. Of the domestic animals, goats and oxen are scattered everywhere in large herds. There are fewer sheep and horses, and these are not of good breeds. Mules and asses are used more frequently in the south than in the north, especially as beasts of burden. Swine and dogs are not common; the latter are used almost solely by the herdsmen, or are kept in the hospices, to assist in searching for the unfortunate wanderers who may be lost in the snow.

The Alpine mountains are rich in singularly beautiful natural scenery, of which the inhabitants of flat countries can scarcely form an idea. Nature in the A. has an infinite variety of aspects. Here the hardened masses of the icy glacier cover the naked rock, avalanches are hurled into immeasurable abysses, the fall of rocks or mountain-slips overwhelm the dwellings, and cover the fields in the valleys; and in the east, the *bora*, with its hurricane strength, hurls before it the upraised masses of snow. There the sun glances upon the scattered silver threads of a water-fall, or mirrors himself in the peaceful waters of a glassy lake, while his rising and his setting are announced to the expectant traveller by the ruddy glow on the snowy mountain-tops. The inhabitant of the A., surrounded on every side by mountains, is unconsciously subdued by their presence, and receives from them a peculiar stamp of character; their dangers fascinate him as well as their charms. The most ceaseless variety of occupation demands all his time and his thoughts; in the mountains he acknowledges his only despots, who seize his soul, and lead it unresistingly. In his constant struggle with the elements, the Alpine dweller strengthens both his mind and body; he opens his heart to the impressions of nature; he gives utterance to his childlike gladness in simple songs, and at the same time defends with self-sacrificing devotion his mountain-fortresses against foreign aggression. But the manners and spirit of the neighbouring plains have penetrated into the larger valleys along with the dust of the highway. There the true Alpine life has more and more passed away. The simplicity and characteristic industry of the Alpine farms are now preserved only in the higher secondary valleys.

Six states share the A. The western portion is shared by France and Italy. Switzerland claims the Middle A. almost exclusively for her own. Bavaria has only a small share. Austria has the largest share of the A.—in the provinces of Tyrol, Illyria, Styria, and the archduchy. The wide valleys opening to the east allow the civilisation of the plains to enter easily among the mountains. The value of the minerals, and the fertility of the soil, have permitted mining, manufactures, and agriculture to take firm root, and a flourishing trade has caused large towns to usurp the place of mere Alpine villages. In the Tyrol, the pastoral life of the mountains has long been mixed up with the working of mines of salt or other minerals. The inhabitants of whole valleys are occupied in various branches of industry to a greater extent than in any other district of the A., and their sons travel far and near as artisans. See H. and A. Schlagintweit, *Researches into the Physical Geography of the A.* (*Untersuchungen über die Physikalische Geographie der Alpen*), Leip. 1850.

ALPUJA'RRAS (a corruption of an Arabic word which signifies 'grass'—an allusion to the splendid pasturage on the north side), a range of mountains parallel to the Sierra Nevada, and approaching the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. Their southern side

is precipitous, but the northern slopes away into broad valleys, beyond which rises the Sierra Nevada. They commence in the west at Motril, where they are separated by the Guadalfeo, from the lower Sierra de Holucar, and the adjacent vine-covered hills of Malaga, and stretch as far east as the river Almeria. The range is divided into two parts by the Adra, each of which bears a particular name. The highest peaks reach an elevation of 7000 feet. On the north side, owing to the copious rains, there is the richest pasturage, both in the deep valleys and on the uplands. The southern slope, however, is almost destitute of trees or shrubs, with the exception of the fertile valleys near the sea, which are abundantly watered by numerous little streams. Here flourish, under an almost tropical climate, all the products of the south, even the date-palm and the sugar-cane. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in rearing sheep, and in cultivating the vine and other fruits. A little mining also goes on. Lead, antimony, and silver are got. The Moorish element is still quite discernible in the population of this mountain region.

ALSACE, a province of Germany, reunited (all but the small district of Belfort) to that country in 1871, after two centuries' possession by France. It lies between the Rhine on the east and the Vosges mountains on the west, extending south to Switzerland, and north to Rhenish Bavaria, and occupying 3360 English square miles. It is exceedingly fertile; rich also in mines and manufactures; and contains the important cities of Strasburg, Colmar, and Muhlhausen. In Cæsar's time, A. was occupied by Celtic tribes; but during the decline of the empire, the Alemanni and other tribes from beyond the Rhine occupied and completely Germanised it. It afterwards formed part of the German empire, under various sovereign dukes and princes, latterly of the House of Hapsburg; till a part of it was ceded to France at the peace of Westphalia, and the rest fell a prey to the aggressions of Louis XIV., who seized Strasburg (1681) by surprise in time of peace. By the peace of Ryswick (1697), the cession of the whole was ratified. Thus as the Germans used to complain was this fine land, and one of the noblest branches of the race, alienated from the German people, and the command of the German Rhine disgracefully surrendered to the enemy in the time of misfortune, and, more disgraceful still, not demanded back when fortune favoured. German never ceased to be the language of the people, and all newspapers were, during the whole period of the French possession, printed in both languages.

ALSEN (Dan. *Alø*), an island in the Baltic, belonging to the duchy of Sleswig, and extending from the Apenrade to the Flensborg Fiord, is separated from the mainland by the Sound of A., in part very narrow but deep. Its greatest length is nearly 20 miles; its greatest breadth about 12; lat. 54° 46′ N., long. 9° 52′ E. The island, one of the finest in the Baltic, has a picturesque appearance, is very fertile, with rich woods, and numerous lakes abounding in fish. Its fruit-trees are celebrated over all Sleswig. The Gravenstein apple, in particular, forms an important article of commerce. The chief towns are Sonderborg or Sudborg (South Town), and Norborg or Nordburg (North Town). The former has an excellent harbour, with a population (1871) of 5475. Close to the harbour are the ruins of an old and famous castle belonging to the Augustenborg family. Here Christian II. of Denmark and Norway was confined from 1532 to 1549. In the war of 1864, A. was taken by the Prussians from the Danes. It now forms part of the Prussian province of Sleswig-Holstein.

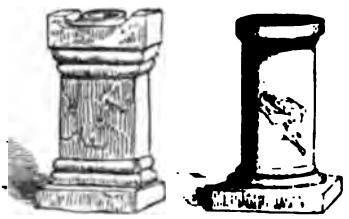
ALSTER, a river in Holstein, is formed by the confluence of three streams, and, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg, spreads itself out, and forms a lake, called the Great or Outer A., and, within the town, the Inner A. It flows by several canals into the Elbe.

ALSTRŒME'RIA, or ALSTRŒMER'S LILY, a genus of plants of the natural order *Amaryllideæ* (q. v.), and, according to Lindley, of the tribe *Alstræmeriæ*, which is distinguished by fibrous—not bulbous—roots, and by having the outer segments of the perianth different in form from the inner. In this genus, the two lower segments are somewhat tubular at the base, the capsules do not gape when ripe, are 3-valved or pulpy within, and the seeds globose. The leaves are twisted, so that what should be the upper surface, becomes the lower. The species are numerous, natives of the warmer parts of America. Many of them have tuberous roots. Some are sufficiently hardy to endure the open air in Britain, and are admired ornaments of our flower-gardens. Some have climbing or twining stems; amongst these is the salsilla (*A. salsilla*), a plant of great beauty, with lanceolate leaves, a native of Peru, which is cultivated in the West Indies, and its tubers eaten like those of the potato. In Britain, it requires the stove or a hot-bed. *A. ovata*, also a beautiful plant, with a slender twining stem, and ovate leaves, is cultivated in Chili for its tubers, which are used as food. It has been introduced into Britain, but its cultivation has made little progress. The tubers weigh from 3 to 6 ounces. A kind of arrow-root is also prepared in Chili from the succulent roots of *A. pallida* and other species.

ALTAÏ (i. e., gold mountain) is the term vaguely applied to the high range in the east of Asia, forming the northern border of that vast table-land known by the name of Chinese Tatary, and extending from 80° to 142° E. long. The A. mountains constitute the boundary between the Russian and Chinese empires, or between the long icy lowlands of Siberia, stretching away to the Arctic Sea, and the variegated central plateau that lies south of them. Their general direction is from east to west. They are divided into many ranges and groups, each having a distinctive name. From the Sea of Okhotsk, in the extreme east of Asia, they extend in a broad and winding mass to the plains of Turkestan, a little to the west of Lake Zaisan, or Zaizang, a distance of more than 3000 miles. The breadth of the system is, in some places, not less than 800 900 miles. From Okhotsk to the Lena, it is called the Aldan Chain; it is next separated into three groups by the valleys of the Amur, Yenisei, and Irtish, the last of which is called the Little A., to distinguish it from the spur that strikes off into Chinese Tatary in a south-easterly direction, and which is called the Great A., a range that in some places towers into the region of perpetual snow, and whose most easterly cliffs abruptly disappear in the dark clouds which overhang the sandy steppes of Gobi. The Russian A., between Semipalatinsk and the sources of the Obi, have been colonised by the Russians, and as they rival the Ural Mountains in their mineral wealth, they have already become one of the most important districts of the Russian empire. This chain consists of a broad Alpine range on the north-western edge of Chinese Tatary, and is called the Altai-Bjelki, or Snowy Mountains. It reaches in its highest peaks an elevation of nearly 11,000 feet. Little is known of the geology of the Altaian system. Jasper is found in considerable abundance near the summits, red porphyry lower down, and granite still lower. Around Lake Baikal there are numerous granitic masses,

interspersed with newer igneous formations, but active volcanoes do not appear until the range reaches Kamtchatka. The mines are rich in gold, silver, copper, and lead. The botany of the mountains is as imperfectly known as the geology, but it seems to be worthy of closer attention. North of the A.-Bjelki, lies the broad zone of the A. mineral districts, the inhabitants of which are employed as miners and agricultural labourers, over whom a strict watch is kept. The south-east is peopled by the Calmucks of the mountains, a Mongolian race. They are heathens, and their government is a patriarchal one. They lead a nomadic life, encamping in summer among the rich pastures on the mountain-terraces, and in winter within the sheltered recesses of the woody glens. See ALTAY in SUPPLEMENT.

A'LTAR (Lat. *altare*, from *altus*, high), the place whereon offerings were laid both by Jews and heathens. The first on record is that which Noah built on leaving the ark. The Israelites, after the giving of the Law, were commanded to make one. We find, from the Old Testament (1 Kings, iii. 3; 1 Kings, xi. 7; and 2 Kings, xxiii. 15), that altars were often erected on high places—sometimes, also, on the roofs of houses. Both in the Jewish tabernacle and temple there were two altars, one for sacrifices, and another for incense. For a minute description of these, see Exodus, Leviticus, and Numbers. The Jewish and oriental altars were generally either square, oblong, or approximating to such; those of Greece and Rome, on the other hand, were often round. Sacrifices were offered to the infernal gods, not on altars, but in cavities dug in the ground.



Roman Altars.

The word has been transferred into the Christian system. For upwards of five centuries, altars in the Christian churches were, for the most part, made of wood; but in 509 A.D., it was decreed by a council held at Epone, in France, that none should be consecrated with chrism except those built of stone. In the first ages of Christianity, there was only one A. in a church; but, from a very early time, the Latins have used more than one. In the 12th c., the adorning of churches with images and numerous altars was carried to a great extent, and they were embellished with gold, silver, and precious stones. The Greek Church use but one A. Altars were frequently placed at the west end of the ancient churches, instead of the east, but in England almost uniformly in the east. The only perfect A. of the old times in England is the high A. of Arundel Church, Sussex. The slab is 12 feet 6 inches long, by 4 feet wide, and 2½ inches thick. The support is of solid stone, quite plain, and plastered over. For 300 years after the time of Christ, the word A. was constantly used to describe the table of the Lord; subsequently, 'table' and 'altar' were used indifferently. In the first Prayer-book of King Edward, 1549, the word A. was used in the Rubric, and the Lord's Supper was still called the Mass; but in 1550, an order was issued for the setting up of tables instead of altars, and in the second Prayer-book of 1552, the word *altar* was everywhere replaced by *table*. The table was further ordered to be of wood, and movable. In Mary's reign the altars were re-erected; but in Queen Elizabeth's, some were riotously pulled down, and injunctions were then issued directing that this should not be done, except under the oversight of the curate and at least one churchwarden. It was charged against Archbishop Laud that he had converted communion-tables into altars. What he really did was to remove the tables out of the body of the church, and place them 'altarwise,' i.e., north and south, at the upper end of the chancels, where the altars formerly stood; and a dog having on one occasion run away with a piece of the consecrated bread, he directed that rails should be erected to prevent such desecrations in future. The old stone altars used frequently to be made in the shape of tombs, and they enclosed relics; this was from the early Christians having often celebrated the eucharist at the tombs of the martyrs, or, as others say, they were thus made with the design of representing Christ's humanity as having been real, and vouched for by the fact of his body lying in the tomb. The Credence Table and Piscina are adjuncts of an A. By the judgment in the Arches Court, 1845, in the case of Faulkner *v.* Litchfield, it was decided that altars may not be erected in churches. This case arose out of the erection, by the Cambridge Camden Society, of a stone A. in the Church of the Holy Sepulchre in that town.

The old English divines, and, indeed, all Protestant ecclesiastical writers of any importance, are unanimous in the opinion, that among Christians the word cannot mean what the Jews and heathens expressed by it. The later fathers used various phrases to denote the solemnity which should attach to the communion-table, such as 'the Mystical and Tremendous Table,' 'the Mystical Table,' 'the Holy Table,' &c. And they termed it an A., because, *first*, the holy eucharist was regarded as a kind of commemorative sacrifice, or, more properly, a consecrated memorial before God of the great sacrifice on Calvary; and, *second*, the prayers of the communicants were held to be in themselves sacrifices or oblations—sacrifices of thanksgiving, as it were. This is the view of those who hold High Church opinions, but does not exclude the other view. Again, they termed it a *table* when the eucharist was considered exclusively in the light of a sacrament, to be partaken of by believers as spiritual food. In the former case, the sacrifice was commemorated; in the latter, it was applied: in the former, it expressed more directly the gratitude; in the latter, more directly the faith of the Christian.

A'LTDORFER, ALBRECHT, painter and engraver, was born at Altdorf, in Bavaria, 1488, and died at Ratisbon, 1538. He is said to have been a pupil of Albert Dürer; but this is not certain. He belongs, however, to that religious school of artists of which Dürer was the head. His pictures are also animated by a glowing and romantic spirit of poetry, which is delightful to any one who appreciates the conditions of old German life. The landscape is delineated with the same truth and tenderness as the figures; a rich manifold life pervades the scenes, and everything is handled with the utmost delicacy. His master-piece, now in Munich, is 'The Victory of Alexander over Darius,' a painting which, it is said, affects the beholder like a heroic poem. As an engraver, A. is reckoned among the lesser masters.

A'LTEN, KARL AUGUST, COUNT of, one of the chief Hanoverian generals in the French and German war, was born October 20, 1764; entered the army in 1781, and gained distinction at the siege of Valenciennes, and in the decisive engagement at

Hondschooten. He was first lieutenant in 1800, but on account of the unhappy capitulation at Lauenburg, found it advisable to leave Hanover, and came to England. Here he was made commander of the first light battalion in the German Legion (1803). In 1808 he assisted, as general of brigade, in covering the retreat of General Moore to Corunna, and in the following year commanded the troops stationed in Sussex. In 1811, he took part, under General Beresford, in the siege of Badajoz and the battle of Albuera, and in the following year was promoted by the Duke of Wellington. In almost all the engagements of the Spanish war of liberation—at Salamanca, Vittoria, the Pyrenees, Nivelle, Nive, Orthez, Toulouse, &c., A. took a prominent part, and had the command of a corps of 30,000 men, stationed near Madrid, in 1812. He fought with great distinction at Quatre-Bras and at Waterloo, where he was severely wounded; his efforts greatly contributed to the decision of the battle. After his return to Hanover, he was made minister of war, and in this capacity died, April 20, 1840.

ALTENBURG, the capital of the duchy of Saxe-Altenburg, is situated in a fertile country about 24 miles from Leipsic, and contains 19,966 inhabitants. Standing on an almost perpendicular rock of porphyry, the old castle of A. forms a striking feature in the landscape. Its foundations are probably as old as the 11th c. It is remarkable as the scene of the historical incident known as the Prunzenraub (q. v.). Brushes, gloves, and cigars are among the chief manufactures carried on in A., and the book-trade is considerable. A railway connects it with Leipsic and Bavaria.

ALTENGAARD, or ALTEN, a seaport town in the province of Finmarken, Norway, situated at the mouth of the river Alten, in lat. 69° 55′ N., and long. 23° 4′ E. Beyond this point, no cultivation is attempted; and even here, potatoes and barley alone are produced. A. has a harbour and considerable trade. It is visited principally by Russian and Norwegian vessels. Pop. about 1000.

ALTEN-ÖTTING, or ALTÖTTING, a place of pilgrimage not far from the Inn, is situated in one of the most beautiful and fertile plains of Upper Bavaria. It is frequented by thousands of Roman Catholics from Austria, Bavaria, and Swabia, on account of a famous image of the Virgin Mary (the '*Black Virgin*') which it possesses, and may be called the Loretto of Germany. The Redemptorist fathers, who were invited hither in 1838, have built an educational institution, which may be held as a virtual revival of the old Jesuit college erected in 1773. A. was originally a *villa regia*. Several German emperors, such as Henry III. and Henry IV., held their court here. The emperor Leopold I., and other princes of the House of Hapsburg, made pilgrimages to it. It also contains the tomb of Count Tilly, who was buried here, at his own request. This tomb is called Tilly's Chapel, and is held in such high veneration, that Maximilian I., and numerous other princes and princesses of the Bavarian family, have had their hearts interred in it. Pop. 2050.

ALTERATIVES, in Medicine, a term applied to remedies that have the power of changing the state of the living solids of the body, and consequently altering the functions which they perform. It is generally applied, however, to medicines which are irritant in full doses, but which almost imperceptibly alter disordered actions or secretions; acting specially on certain glands, or upon absorption in general, when they are given in comparatively small doses, the treatment being continued for a considerable length of time. For example, mercury is an irritant in some of its preparations; but when small doses of blue pill, Plummer's pill, or corrosive sublimate are given at intervals for some length of time, they 'produce *alteration* in *disordered* actions, so as to cause an improvement in the nutrient and digestive functions, the disappearance of eruptions, and the removal of thickening of the skin or of other tissues' (Royle); and they will effect these changes without otherwise affecting the constitution or inducing salivation. So iodine, also an irritant in concentrated doses, and poisonous in some forms, is most useful, when given in small doses, in effecting the removal of enlarged glandular organs, and need not cause iodism, if carefully given.

The preparations of gold are likewise stimulants of the absorbents, and are used in cases of scrofula. Some preparations of arsenic are powerful A. in cases of skin-disease. So also are the decoctions of the *woods* and their substitutes, such as decoction of sarsaparilla, and the like, which, when taken in large quantities of water, must operate partly by their diluting and solvent properties, and partly by the stimulant effect of the active principles of the several ingredients in these diet-drinks, conveyed into the capillaries.

It will be seen, therefore, that the term A. rather implies the method in which some drugs are administered, than any special alterative action possessed by them. The most useful, it may be added, are also the most dangerous in unskilled hands.

ALTERNATE, in Botany. See LEAVES.

ALTHÆA. See MARSH MALLOWS and HOLLYHOCK.

ALTITUDE, in Astronomy, is the height of a heavenly body above the horizon. It is measured, not by linear distance, but by the angle which a line drawn from the eye to the heavenly body makes with the horizontal line, or by the arc of a vertical circle intercepted between the body and the horizon. Altitudes are taken in observatories by means of a telescope attached to a graduated circle (see CIRCLE), which is fixed vertically. The telescope being directed towards the body to be observed, the angle which it makes with the horizon is read off the graduated circle. The A. thus observed must receive various corrections—the chief being for parallax (q. v.) and refraction (q. v.)—in order to get the true A. At sea, the A. is taken by means of a sextant (q. v.), and then it has further to be corrected for the dip of the visible horizon below the true horizon (see HORIZON). The correct determination of altitudes is of great importance in most of the problems of astronomy and navigation. See LONGITUDE. An ALTITUDE and AZIMUTH INSTRUMENT consists essentially of a vertical circle with its telescope so arranged as to be capable of being turned round horizontally to any point of the compass. It thus differs from a Transit Circle (q. v.), which is fixed in the meridian. See AZIMUTH.

ALTO (*contralto decisa*) is the deepest or lowest species of musical voice in boys, in eunuchs, and best of all in females, where its beauty of tone gives it the preference. This quality of the human voice has been too much neglected by modern composers and singing-masters. The powers of expression which it possesses are quite peculiar, and cannot be supplied by any other kind of voice. Its tone-character (timbre) is serious, spiritual, tender, and romantic. The low A. in particular has a fulness of tone combined with power in the lower range. No other voice expresses so decidedly dignity, greatness, and religious resignation: it can also represent youthful manly power as well as romantic heroism. The high A. has generally the same range of

compass as the mezzo soprano, but differs from it in the position of the cantabile and in its character of tone. A. voices generally consist of two registers, the lowest beginning at F or G below middle C, and reaching as high as the A or B above the octave C. The higher notes up to the next F or G partake more of the character of the soprano. See VOICE.

ALTON, Jos. WILHELM EDUARD D', Professor of Archæology and the History of Art at Bonn, was born, 1772, at Aquileia, and died in 1840. In early years, his attention was directed to natural history, especially that of the horse, on which he published a splendid illustrated work (*Naturgeschichte des Pferdes*, Bonn, 1810), which was completed in 1817. In concert with his friend Pander, he projected an extensive work on comparative osteology, of which the first division was published at Bonn 1821—1828. His etchings of animals, &c. are esteemed as valuable. Albert, the late Prince Consort of Queen Victoria, was a pupil of A., in the History of Art.

A'LTONA, the largest and richest city in the duchy of Holstein in Germany, is situated on the Elbe, so near Hamburg that the two cities are only divided by the state-boundaries. Population (1872) 74,131. A. lies higher than Hamburg, and is much healthier; but, on the other hand, it is destitute of the numerous canals so necessary for the transport of goods, with which Hamburg is so abundantly provided. In a commercial point of view, it forms one city with Hamburg. Its trade extends to England, France, the Mediterranean Sea, and the West Indies. There are many important industrial establishments in A.; among others, the manufacture of tobacco is largely carried on, one factory working up 600,000 lbs. yearly. A. is a free port, and enjoys many privileges in respect of trade, and also of civil freedom; all sects are allowed the free exercise of their religion. The city is connected by a railway with Kiel, Rendsburg, and Glückstadt. The observatory is a private institution, which has gained a great reputation under the direction of Schumacher, who died in 1851. The rise of A. to its present importance has been recent and rapid, for a continental town.

A'LTORF, the chief town in the Swiss canton Uri, is situated in a sheltered spot at the base of the Grunberg, about two miles from the head of the Lake of the Four Cantons, and contains (1870) 2724 inhabitants. It is a well-built town, having several open places, a church, a nunnery, and the oldest Capuchin monastery in Switzerland. The little tower on which the exploits of William Tell are painted in rude frescoes, is known to be older than the legend of Tell. The lime-tree under which the scene of the shooting of the apple was laid, was removed in 1567, and a stone-fountain erected in its stead. Situated on the St Gothard road, A. has some transit trade, but little or no industry of its own.

A'LTO-RILIE'VO (Ital.), high-relief, the term used in sculpture to designate that mode of representing objects by which they are made to project strongly and boldly from the background, without being entirely detached. In Alto-Rilievo, some portions of the figures usually stand quite free, and in this respect it differs not only from *basso-rilievo*, or low-relief, but from the intermediate kind of relief known as *mezzo-rilievo*, in which the figures are fully rounded, but where there are no detached portions. In order to be in high-relief, objects ought actually to project somewhat more than half their thickness, no conventional means being employed in this style to give them apparent prominence. In bass-relief, on the other hand, the figures are usually flattened; but means are adopted to prevent [illegible] from appearing to the eye to be [illegible] because if an object projects less than [illegible] state it otherwise, be more than half [illegible] background, it is obvious that its true [illegible] profile cannot be represented. This rule [illegible] reliefs there shall be either a real or [illegible] projection of at least half the thi[illegible] objects, was strictly observed [illegible] Greek art, but it has been [illegible] execution of reliefs in later times, [illegible] have been made at foreshortening and perspective, which have necessarily resulted in partial failure.

Relief forms a kind of intermediate st[illegible] between plastic art and painting, the mode of re[illegible] being borrowed from the former, whilst [illegible] arrangement, to a certain extent, is in [illegible] with the latter. The plastic principle occupies the most prominent place in the simple and tranquil reliefs of the earlier art of Greece, whereas the pictorial principle preponderates in the crowded and often excited scenes represented in the later Roman reliefs. In such reliefs as have been produced in modern times, the one element or the other has prevailed, according as the one model or the other has been followed. The works which have been recovered from the ruins of Persepolis, Nineveh, and Babylon, still attest the extensive employment of relief in Persian and Assyrian art. Of the latter, which usually belongs to the class of *mezzo-rilievo*, some of the finest specimens in existence are now to

Winged Bull.

be seen in the British Museum. Though never exhibiting the life and freedom of classical or modern European art, the elaborately executed and majestic reliefs of these semi-oriental nations are greatly in advance not only of the whimsical distortions of nature exhibited by the Hindus, but of the inanimate and motionless representations of the Egyptians.

The earliest Greek reliefs possessed a hard and severe character, somewhat approaching to the art of those earlier nations of which we have just spoken, and were very slightly raised. Of this we have an example in the two lions over the gate at Mycenæ—probably the oldest Greek relief in existence. It was Phidias who gave to relief its true character, and finally brought it to a degree of perfection which it has never since attained. The alti-rilievi which adorned the metopes of the Parthenon at Athens, and the Temple of Apollo at Phigalia in Arcadia, now preserved in the British Museum, are still not only unsurpassed, but unapproached as examples of the style. In none of these do we see any attempt at perspective, and even foreshortening for the most part is avoided.

Under the Romans, sculpture was employed

to an enormous extent in the decoration of tombs and sarcophagi, whole streets of such monuments being constructed, as, for example, on the Appian Way. The result of the demand thus created was, that sculpture became a manufacture rather than an art, and attempts were made to supply by technical execution and mere mass what had been lost in thought and spirit. Relief was now applied, often by Greek artists resident in Italy, to purposes

Panathenaic Frieze.—From the Parthenon.

for which the Greeks, in their own land and in their better times, had rightly conceived it to be unsuited. Behind figures standing nearly free, a second rank was introduced, and those numerous examples of a false style, still to be found in every gallery in Europe, were produced, the imitation of which afterwards led to such a lavish expenditure of artistic talent in Italy. The attempt which the Romans had made to invade the province of painting, by means of sculpture, was carried still further by the Florentine artists of the 16th and 17th c. Not only were several rows of figures represented in perspective, but even landscape was introduced with a success which, in the hands of such artists as Ghiberti, was positively marvellous. If the highest perfection in the true plastic style of relief was attained by Phidias in the metopes of the Parthenon at Athens, a corresponding merit may be claimed as regards the degenerate pictorial style by Ghiberti in the celebrated bronze doors of the Baptistery of San Giovanni at Florence. Even Canova's reliefs partook to far too great an extent of the character of paintings in stone; and to Flaxman, and above all, to Thorwaldsen, must be assigned the merit of restoring this style of art to its genuine and original principles. It is to be remembered, in studying the reliefs of classical times, that studiously as the Greeks avoided a pictorial conception of their subject, they did not eschew the use of colour where it could be employed to heighten the effect of their reliefs. There is reason to believe that in many excellent examples the background was painted blue, and that the hems of the garments of the figures, and the like, were often coloured or gilded.

ALUM, a whitish, astringent, saline substance; properly it is a double salt, being composed of sulphate of potash and sulphate of alumina, which, along with a certain proportion of water, crystallise together in octahedrons or in cubes. Its formula is $KOSO_3 + Al_2O_3 3SO_3 + 24HO$. A. is soluble in eighteen times its weight of cold water, and in its own weight of hot water. The solution thus obtained has a peculiar astringent taste, and is strongly acid to coloured test papers. When heated, the crystals melt in their water of crystallisation; and when the water is completely driven off by heat, there is left a spongy white mass, called burnt A. or anhydrous A. A. is much used as a mordant in dyeing. This property it owes to the alumina in it, which has a strong attraction for textile tissues, and also for colouring matters; the alumina thus becomes the means of fixing the colour in the cloth. The manufacture of the colours or paints called lakes depends on this property of alumina to attach to itself certain colouring matters. Thus, if a solution of A. is coloured with cochineal or madder, and ammonia or carbonate of soda is added, the alumina of the A. is precipitated with the colour attached to it, and the liquid is left colourless. Alumina, the basis of pure clay—which is a silicate of alumina—derives its name from being first extracted from A. A. is also used in the preparation of leather from skins, and, in medicine, as a powerful astringent for arresting bleeding and mucous discharges. Its use in the making of bread, to give a white appearance and more pleasing consistence to bread made from indifferent flour, is highly objectionable. A. rarely occurs in nature, except in a few springs and in some extinct volcanoes, where it appears to be formed from the action of sulphurous acid vapours upon felspathic rocks. In this country, it is prepared artificially from A.-shale, obtained from coal-mines at Hurlett and Campsie, near Glasgow; and alum-slate, which occurs at Whitby, in Yorkshire, and there forms precipitous cliffs, extending about thirty miles along the east coast of England. The alum-slate, shale, or schist, consists mainly of clay (silicate of alumina), iron pyrites (bisulphuret of iron), and coaly or bituminous matter. When the shale is exposed to the air—as it is in the old *coal-wastes* or mines from which the coal has been extracted—the oxygen of the air, assisted by moisture, effects a decided change upon it. The original hard stony substance begins to split up into thin leaves, and becomes studded over and interspersed with crystals. The latter are the result of the oxidation of the sulphur of the pyrites into sulphuric acid, and the iron into oxide of iron, both of which in part combine to form sulphate of iron, whilst the excess of the sulphuric acid unites with the alumina of the clay, and produces sulphate of alumina. When the alum-shale thus weathered is digested in water, there dissolve out, the sulphate of alumina ($Al_2O_3 3SO_3$) and sulphate of iron ($FeOSO_3$); this solution is treated with chloride of potassium (KCl), which decomposes the sulphate of iron, forming sulphate of potash ($KOSO_3$) and chloride of iron (FeCl). When this liquid is evaporated to concentration, and allowed to cool, crystals of A. separate, consisting of sulphate of alumina, sulphate of potash and water, thus, $KOSO_3 + Al_2O_3 3SO_3 + 24HO$, and the chloride of iron is left in the solution or *mother-liquor*. The crystals of A. obtained from the first crystallisation are not free from iron, and hence require to be redissolved in water, reconcentrated, and recrystallised. This operation is generally repeated a third time before the A. is obtained pure.—As the preliminary weathering of the shale takes some years to proceed, a more expeditious method is now largely resorted to. The shale is broken in fragments, and piled up over brushwood in long ridges, shaped like huge potato-pits, and the brushwood being set fire to, the coaly matter of the shale begins to burn, and the whole ridge undergoes the process of roasting; the results of which are the same as that of the weathering operation – namely, the oxidation of the sulphur and iron, and the formation of sulphate of alumina and sulphate of iron. This material is afterwards worked up as previously described. The roasting operation is so much more expeditious than the weathering process, that months

suffice for years. The A. made at Tolfa, near Civita Vecchia, is extracted from alum-stone, a mineral containing sulphate of potash and sulphate of alumina, but united in such a form as to render them insoluble. When the mineral is calcined, the sulphates become soluble, and are extracted by lixiviation. The A. thus manufactured is prized, as being free of iron. The potash in A. can be replaced partly or altogether by soda or ammonia; the alumina by oxide of chromium or sesquioxide of manganese; or the sulphuric acid by chromic acid, or peroxide of iron, without altering the form of the crystals. There are thus soda, ammonia, chrome, &c., alums, forming a genus of salts of which common A. is only one of the species. The more important members of the class, expressed in symbols, are:

$KOSO_3 + Al_2O_3,3SO_3 + 24HO$, potash A.
$NaOSO_3 + Al_2O_3,3SO_3 + 24HO$, soda A.
$NH_4OSO_3 + Al_2O_3,3SO_3 + 24HO$, ammonia A.
$KOSO_3 + Cr_2O_3,3SO_3 + 24HO$, chromic potash A.
$FeOSO_3 + Al_2O_3,3SO_3 + 24HO$, ferrous A.

ALUM BAGH, a fort rendered famous, during the battles and sieges arising out of the Indian mutiny in 1857, by the indomitable resolution of its defenders. The A. B. ('Garden of the Lady Alum, or Beauty of the Soul') was a domain about four miles from the city of Lucknow, near the Cawnpore road. It comprised several buildings, including a palace, a mosque, and an emanbarra or private temple, bounded by a beautiful garden, which was itself in the middle of a park, and the park enclosed by a wall with corner towers. It had belonged to some members of the royal family of Oude; but when the wars of the mutiny had been fairly begun, the A. B. was converted by the rebels into a fort. It was large enough to contain a powerful military force, and might have become a formidable stronghold, if well defended; but it proved powerless against a small British force. In September, Outram, Havelock, and Neill crossed the Ganges from Cawnpore, marched rapidly towards Lucknow, and captured the A. B. on the way. About 300 soldiers were left at the place, with four guns, a number of sick, wounded, and 4000 native camp-followers, under Colonel M'Intyre; while the three generals proceeded with the main body of their force to Lucknow. It was intended that M'Intyre should soon be relieved or reinforced; but Havelock and Outram, shut up for two months within the Residency at Lucknow, could scarcely send even a small note in a quill to the A. B. Not until the close of November did the British, under Sir Colin Campbell, relieve both Lucknow and the A. B. He brought away all the garrison from the former place, but left Sir James Outram, with 3500 men, to hold the A. B. It was at that time the only spot in the whole province of Oude in the hands of the British; and during the whole winter, Sir James had to defend it against the enemy. On the 12th of January 1858, he was attacked by an armed rabble of sepoys and other malcontents, amounting to 30,000 men. These, however, he completely defeated. They attacked him again with 20,000 men on the 21st of February, at a time when his small force was weakened by the absence of a detachment employed in escorting a convoy of provisions and stores from Cawnpore; he, however, met them with the same heroic resolution, and effectually repulsed them. In the next following month, Sir Colin Campbell re-conquered Lucknow; and the garrison at the A. B. was relieved from its perilous isolation. Although only a domain converted temporarily into a fort, the A. B. must ever occupy a memorable place in military history.

ALUM ROOT. This name is given in the United States to two plants, natives of that country, very different from one another, but agreeing in the remarkable astringency of their roots, which are medicinally used. One of these plants is *Geranium maculatum* (see GERANIUM), a plant of general habit and appearance very much resembling some of the species of geranium which are common weeds in Britain. The root contains more tannin than kino (q. v.) does. The tincture is of use in sore throat and ulcerations of the mouth, and is also administered in various diseases.—The property of astringency belongs, in an inferior degree, to some other species of *Geranium*, and of the kindred genera, *Erodium* and *Pelargonium*.—The other American plant to which the name A. R. is given is *Heuchera Americana*, a plant of the natural order *Saxifrageæ* (q. v.), an order in which also astringency is a prevalent property. The genus *Heuchera* has the calyx 5-cleft, the petals undivided, five stamens, and the styles remarkably long. *H. Americana* is everywhere covered with a clammy down; the leaves are roundish, lobed, and toothed; the peduncles, dichotomous and straggling. The root is a powerful styptic, and is used to form a wash for wounds and obstinate ulcers.

ALU'MINA, the most abundant of the earths (q. v.), is the oxide of the metal Aluminium (q. v.), the formula being Al_2O_3. It occurs in nature abundantly in combination with silica, associated with other bases. The most familiar of its native compounds is felspar, a silicate of A. and potass ($Al_2O_3,3SiO_3 + KO,SiO_3$). This is one of the constituents of granite, and of several other igneous rocks. Certain varieties of these, by exposure to the atmosphere, become completely disintegrated, passing from the state of hard, solid rock, such as we are accustomed to see in building-granite, into soft, crumbling, earthy masses. It is the felspar which undergoes the change; and it appears to be owing to the action of rain-water charged with carbonic acid, which dissolves the potass and some of the silica of the felspar, leaving the excess of silica and the A. still united. It is not known, however, why certain specimens of granite are rapidly corroded and crumbled down, whilst others have resisted for ages the same causes of decay. By such a process of disintegration as we have described, the clays of our arable soils are produced. Clay consists of silica and A. in a state of chemical combination. It never is pure A., but the quantity of silica united to the latter is variable. When it is pure, clay is quite white, as we see in the porcelain clay of Devonshire and Cornwall, which is derived from colourless felspar. More frequently, clay is red, owing to the presence of oxide of iron; or black, from the diffusion through it of vegetable matter.

From alum, A. is prepared by adding to a solution of the former, water of ammonia, as long as it occasions a precipitate. The A. appears as a voluminous, white, gelatinous substance, consisting of the oxide of the metal combined with water. When A. is precipitated from a solution containing colouring matter, such as logwood, &c., it carries down the colour chemically united to the flocculent precipitate; in this way are formed the coloured earths, called *lakes* (q. v.). A. in the state of precipitate, after being gently dried, is readily soluble in acids and in alkalies; but if heated to whiteness, it loses the associated water, contracts greatly in bulk, and forms a white, soft powder, not at all gritty, and with difficulty soluble in alkalies and acids. A., as generally prepared, whether hydrated or anhydrous, is insoluble in water, possesses no taste, and does not alter colouring matters; but some time ago Mr Walter Crum obtained A. in an allotropic form, in which it is soluble in water.

It is quite different, therefore, in properties from the alkaline earths, and is a much weaker base. In the anhydrous state it absorbs water with great readiness without combining with it, so that it adheres to the tongue, and is felt to parch it. Clay retains this property; and the ends of tobacco-pipes are glazed, to prevent adhesion to the lips or tongue. A. is not fusible by a forge or furnace heat, but it melts before the oxyhydrogen blow-pipe into a clear globule, possessing great hardness. It occurs in nature in a similar state. The more coarsely crystallised specimens form the emery which is used for polishing; the transparent crystals, when of a blue colour, owing to a trace of metallic oxide, constitute the precious gem the sapphire, and, when red, the ruby. A., in common with other sesquioxides, is a feeble base. The salts it forms with the acids have almost all a sour taste, and an acid action on colouring matter.

ALUMINIUM is one of the metals present in clay, granite, and other rocky and earthy substances. It was discovered by Wöhler in 1828, and was re-examined by him in 1846, when he obtained the metal in minute globules or beads, by heating a mixture of chloride of A. and sodium. In 1855, the French chemist Deville shewed, as the result of a series of experiments conducted at the cost of Napoleon III., that A. could be prepared on a large scale and in a compact form without much difficulty. The mineral cryolite found in Greenland, which is a double fluoride of A. and sodium, was the ore first used for its manufacture; but bauxite, a mineral found in France, and consisting chiefly of alumina, or oxide of A. and oxide of iron, has more recently been employed as a convenient source of the metal. An aluminate of soda is first obtained by heating the bauxite with soda ash in a furnace, and separating it (the aluminate) from the insoluble portions by lixiviation. When carbonic acid is added to the solution, pure alumina is thrown down. The alumina is then formed into balls with common salt and charcoal, which are heated in an earthenware retort through which chlorine gas is passed. In this part of the process, the charcoal combines with the oxygen, and the chlorine with the A.; the latter sublimes over with the common salt (chloride of sodium), and is collected as a double chloride of A. and sodium. When this double chloride is heated in a reverberatory furnace with fluxes and metallic sodium, the latter seizes the chlorine combined with the A., which is then set free, and falls to the bottom ready to be cast into ingots for use. A. was made for some years near Newcastle-on-Tyne, by Mr J. Lothian Bell, but the demand for it not being sufficient to keep the work constantly in operation, it was stopped, and the metal is now chiefly manufactured in France.

The properties of A. are, that it is a white metal, somewhat resembling silver, but possessing a bluish hue, which reminds one of zinc. It is very malleable and ductile, in tenacity it approaches iron, and it takes a high polish. When heated in a furnace, it fuses, and can then be cast in moulds into ingots. Exposed to dry or moist air, it is unalterable, and does not oxidise as lead and zinc do. Cold water has certainly no action upon it, and in the majority of experiments, hot water has not sensibly affected it. Sulphuretted hydrogen, the gas which so readily tarnishes the silver in households, forming a black film on the surface, does not act on A., which is found to preserve its appearance under all ordinary circumstances as perfectly as gold does. When fused and cast into moulds, it is a soft metal like pure silver, and has a density of 2·56; but when hammered or rolled, it becomes as hard as iron, and its density increases to 2·67. It is therefore a very light metal, being lighter than glass, and only one-fourth as heavy as silver. This property was taken advantage of by Napoleon III., who ordered the eagles surmounting the standards of the French army to be made of A. instead of silver; and thus the same-sized eagle was reduced to one-fourth of its former weight. A. is very sonorous; and when a rod or small bell made of it is struck, it gives out a very sweet clear ringing sound. A. forms, with copper, several light, very hard, white alloys; also a yellow alloy, which, though much lighter than gold, is very similar to it in colour. This gold-like alloy, which contains from 5 to 10 per cent. of A., and is of great strength, was discovered by Dr Percy of London, and has hitherto been much more used for manufacturing purposes than A. alone. It is much used for watch chains, pencil-cases, and other ornamental articles. By itself, A. is used for jewellery, small statuettes, and other works of art. It is also employed for the tubes of opera-glasses. Its bluish colour can be whitened by hydro-fluoric and phosphoric acids, and also by a heated solution of potash. On the whole, considering its valuable properties, this metal has not received such extensive application in the arts as might have been expected.

ALU'NNO, Niccolo, or Niccolo of Fuligno, one of the old Umbrian painters, whose works first indicated the qualities discernible in that school. His earliest known piece is a 'Madonna with Angels and Saints,' 1458 A.D. There is also a gonfalon—a banner used in religious processions—of the year 1466, in the church of Santa Maria Nuova at Perugia, which A. painted for the brotherhood, as the inscription testifies: '*Societas Annunciamenta fecit fieri hoc opus.*' It is a work of peculiar beauty, displaying deep religious feeling and exquisite sweetness. A. painted several of these gonfalons. Some of his pictures were carried off by the French, and sent to Paris; but at the restoration of artistic spoil, 'The Nativity,' 'The Resurrection,' &c., were returned, although 'The Agony in the Garden' still remains in the Louvre. There is also a 'Madonna between Two Angels,' of the year 1499, to be seen in the parish church of the village of Bastia. Fragments, too, are still in existence of an altar-piece for the cathedral of Assisi. The picture represented a Pieta, with two angels bearing torches, and, according to Vasari, weeping so naturally, that 'no one,' he thinks, 'could have painted them better.' A. is not so remarkable for the originality or fertility of his invention, as for his selection of details, warmth of feeling, purity, and devout faith. His earnestness, however, leads him at times into exaggeration.

ALURED, or ALRED, of Beverley, in Yorkshire, an old English historian of the time of Henry I. Little is known regarding him; but he is said to have been educated at Cambridge, and to have greatly distinguished himself by the variety of his learning. It is also stated that he had enriched his mind by travel, both in France and Italy, and that at Rome he became domestic chaplain to Cardinal Otholoni. His permanent office, however, appears to have been that of canon and treasurer of the church of St John in his native town of Beverley, where he wrote his *Annals*. This work commences with a fabulous period of British history, and extends down to the twenty-ninth year of Henry I. It was published at Oxford in 1716 by Thomas Hearne, and is a remarkable production, for various reasons. Its Latin is extremely good, and even elegant, while its accuracy, especially in dates, is unusual for the age in which its author lived. He is said, though it is very doubtful, to have written,

besides the *Annals*, a work on the liberties or privileges of the church of St John of Beverley. The work, whoever wrote it, is a translation of old Saxon documents, charters, &c., relative to that edifice, and is still in manuscript. A. died in 1128 or 1129.

ALVARA'DO, PEDRO DE, a famous companion of Cortes, was born at Badajoz in Spanish Estremadura, towards the close of the 15th c. In 1517 or 1518, he sailed for the new world, and in the same year was despatched from Cuba, by Velasquez, the governor of that island, to explore, under the command of Grijalva, the shores of the American continent. The expedition touched at Acozamil (the Isle of Swallows), and at various places in Yucatan. Ascending also the rivers Tabasco and Banderos, Grijalva was so enchanted with the beauty of the country, its fine cultivation, and the numerous traces of advanced civilisation, that he named it *New Spain*. Now, for the first time, the Spaniards heard of the riches of Montezuma, and of his vast empire. A. was ordered to return to Cuba, and inform Velasquez of the result of the expedition. The sight of the gold which A. brought with him, stimulated the covetousness and ambition of Velasquez, who became greatly incensed against Grijalva, because the latter had not penetrated further into the new region, and on his return to Cuba deprived him of his command. In February 1519, Cortes sailed from Havanna, solely for the purpose of conquest, with eleven ships, containing 508 soldiers, and 109 seamen. A. commanded one of these ships; but a storm separating the fleet, he arrived at the rendezvous, Isle of Swallows, three days earlier than the others. Here the conquest of Mexico was planned by these intrepid adventurers. A. figured in every conspicuous incident; he was, indeed, hardly less distinguished than the sagacious Cortes himself, who knew his worth, and whom he served with unfaltering zeal and fidelity. While he held the city of Mexico, during the absence of his chief, he massacred, in the midst of a fête, a great number of Aztec nobles, which act is said to have excited the indignation of Cortes; but, on the other hand, it is asserted that the Mexicans had plotted the destruction of the Spaniards, and that A. had become cognizant of the scheme. In the famous night-retreat of 1st July 1520, A. commanded the rear-guard. After the conquest of Mexico, he was sent, in 1523, at the head of 300 foot, 160 horse, with 4 pieces of cannon, and a troop of Mexican auxiliaries, to subdue the tribes on the coast of the Pacific in the direction of Guatemala. He was completely successful, receiving everywhere the submission of the native chiefs, while the people brought him presents, in token of the sincerity of their friendship. He now returned to Spain, where the emperor, Charles V., gave him a splendid reception, and appointed him governor of Guatemala. On departing again for the new world, he was accompanied by numerous friends and cavaliers desirous of making their fortune. His adventurous spirit soon launched him into new enterprises. Pizarro and Almagro were prosecuting a brilliant career of conquest in South America. A. resolved not to intrude upon their territories. He considered the province of Quito to be without the limits of these, and so, embarking with a force of 500 soldiers, 227 of whom were cavaliers, he landed at Bahia de los Caraques, near Cape San Francisco, whence he penetrated into the heart of the country, crossing the Andes by as bold and hazardous a march as it is possible to conceive. In the plain of Rio Bamba he was met by some of the troops of Pizarro, headed by Almagro; but instead of disputing by force of arms his right to the possession of the country in which he found himself, he agreed to retire, on receiving an indemnity for his arduous undertaking. He therefore retired to Honduras, and aided the colonists in establishing new settlements, amongst others, Gracias-a-Dios and San Juan de Puerto de Caballos. Meanwhile, Pizarro, loaded with wealth, went back to Spain in 1534, and misrepresented the conduct of A. to the emperor; but the latter following, vindicated himself so successfully, that he received the government of Honduras in addition to Guatemala. Again he embarked for the new world, and pursued his course of discovery and conquest; but in an affray with the Indians upon the coast of Michoacan, in 1541, he was accidentally killed by his horse falling upon him and crushing him. In the same year, an inundation, accompanied by a frightful tempest, overthrew the walls of the town of San Jago, when his wife and children all perished.

ALVAREZ, DON JOSE, a Spanish sculptor, was born April 23, 1768, at Priego, in the province of Cordova. During youth he laboured with his father, a stone-mason; and when twenty years old, began to study drawing and sculpture in the academy at Granada. His early essays in sculpture secured for him the patronage of the Bishop of Cordova, and in 1794, he was received into the academy of San Fernando, where, in 1799, he gained the first prize in the first class. Subsequently, he gained the second prize for sculpture in the Institute of Paris, and in 1804, increased his celebrity by a plaster-model of Ganymede, which proved that he could rival Canova in gracefulness of style. He now attempted greater works in the more severe style, and prepared a model for a wounded Achilles, which was accidentally broken. Having removed to Rome, he was here employed by Napoleon to design bass-reliefs for the Quirinal Palace on Monte Cavallo; but, on account of political changes, his works were not allowed to occupy the places for which they had been destined. In Rome, where he lived on terms of friendship with Canova and Thorwaldsen, he executed, among other works, his *Grupo Colosal de Zaragoza*, now in the Royal Museum of Madrid, representing a scene in the defence of Saragossa. This work alone is sufficient to establish A.'s fame. Clearness of design, dignified simplicity in execution, trueness to nature, and deep sentiment, mark the sculptures of A., who, next to nature and classical antiquity, studied the works of Michael Angelo. He died, in Madrid, November 26, 1827.

AMADE'US (i. e. Love-God), a common name in the House of Savoy. The first who bore it was Count A., eldest son of Count Humbert, who lived about the commencement of the 11th c. His successors gradually enlarged their paternal dominions; but the first to make an important figure in history was A. V., who was born in 1249, succeeded his uncle Filippo in 1285, and died in 1323. He acquired the dignity of a prince of the empire. He had a brother who resided for a long period in England, and while there, built the Savoy Palace in London.—His son, A. VI., the 'Green Count,' born in 1334, succeeded his father in 1343. He was a sagacious, moderate, and vigorous ruler, won various places from the Dauphin of France, became lord-paramount of Piedmont, and through the favour of the emperor Charles IV., obtained the viceregency over a great part of Upper Italy. His influence among the Italian states was very great. He died in 1383.—A. VIII., born in 1383, was at first under the guardianship of his grandmother, a woman of superior talents; but in 1398 he assumed the reins of government himself, and displayed a spirit of moderation, and, at the same time, a love of order which augured well for his people. The zeal with which he

nolicy of the Emperor Sigismund secured
rial favour, and the elevation of Savoy
(1416). On the extinction of its
dynasty, in 1418, Piedmont chose him for its
s he was next of kin. But a religious melan-
aking possession of his mind, he (November
l) laid down his authority, and along with
his knights, betook himself to a monastic
which he had caused to be built on the
Lake of Geneva. He was elected pope
when he assumed the name of Felix V.; but
ed the papal chair in 1448, and died three
rwards at Geneva. -A. IX., after govern-
years, handed over his authority to his
, on account of ill health; but she
very imprudently. While he lived, A. was
tool in the hands of grasping factions. He
1472.--The prince of this name who has
cently come under the notice of the civilised
elected king of Spain in December 1870,
ated the throne in February 1873.

ADIS, a much-used heroic name in chivalric
At the head of those heroes of romance,
A. of Gaul, called the Lion Knight, from the
on his shield, and also Beltenebros, or the
Beautiful. The other Amadises that figure
ance are represented as descendants more or
ote of A. of Gaul. He himself was what the
s call a love-child of the fabulous King Perion
ce and of Elisena, a princess of Bretagne. The
ship of several of the other Amadises to the
and princesses of Colchis, Trebisond, Greece,
thay, that figure as their parents, is of the
insanctioned kind. The romance which nar-
the adventures of A. of Gaul is both the
ncient and the best of all the A. romances.
found favour in the sight of Cervantes, who
rtal honour by overthrowing the long
dominion of this 'evil sect.' This one, how-
as maintained its reputation even to the pre-
y, not only because it was regarded by him as
rv curiosity, but also from its own merits, as
al production of a creative fancy.

question which was early raised, and cannot
demonstratively settled, as to whether this
e was originally a Portuguese, a Spanish, or
ch production, proves at least the absence in
ll national peculiarities, and the entire want
national traditions connected with it; and
the want also of a living historical back-
, which, in the case of all really national
s, is discernible through the purely epic struc-
It may be asserted with certainty, both from
l and external evidence, that this romance is
re subjective creation of the fancy of a single
lual; and that it was composed at a time when
uine epic style of chivalric writing was near
line, consequently, not earlier than the 14th c.
lso apparent that this romance must have
riginally written in prose, and intended to be
nd not to be recited. Lastly, it is not to be
l that the author was well acquainted with
lier legendary poetry, and has imitated it in
things, but has, nevertheless, struck out for
f a perfectly new path, in an opposite direc-
hich naturally tended to lead his less gifted
rs into a bottomless abyss, and at last brought
the extinction of the whole class. For these
ic romances - doubtless, unintentionally —
e by degrees more and more of an ironical
nd only a genius like Cervantes was wanting
r to complete their extinction, by making the
element the fundamental tone, and exagger-
incongruity inherent in such compositions.
Spanish A. romances consist of fourteen
of which the first four contain the history of
A. of Gaul. Yet, according to the researches of the learned Clemencin, as stated in his *Commentary on Don Quixote* (Madrid, 1833), it can scarcely be doubted that this most ancient part was originally written in the Portuguese language, by the knight Vasco de Lobeira of Oporto, who died in 1403; and that it must have been composed between 1342 and 1367. The original manuscript is said to have been first in the possession of the Infant Alfonso of Portugal, the son of John I., the founder of the House of Braganza, who died in 1461; and last, in that of the Duke of Aveiro, and to have been destroyed during the earthquake in Lisbon in 1755. At least, these first four books have only been preserved in the Spanish translation which was made by Garcia Ordoñez de Montalvo, about 1460, and was first printed between 1492 and 1505. The same Montalvo added to it the fifth book, *Las Sergas* [*ergas*, i.e., actions or deeds] *de Esplandian, Hijo de Amadis de Gaula*. He began this book in 1485, but did not complete it till 1492. The books from the 6th to the 14th contain the Exploits and Adventures of Florisando, by Paez de Ribera; of Lisuarte of Greece, and of Perion of Gaul, by Juan Diaz; and of A. of Greece, of Florisel of Nicea, and of Anaxarte, by Feliciano de Silva; of Rogel of Greece, and of Silves de la Selva, by the same; of Lepolemo, and of Leandro the Fair, by Pedro de Lujan; and lastly, of Penelva, by an anonymous Portuguese. The French translators and continuators, beginning with Nicolas de Herberay, Sieur des Essarts, who published the first eight books between 1540-1548, have increased this series of romances to twenty-four books. Gilbert Saunier, Sieur de Duverdier, has written a conclusion, in seven large volumes, to all the adventures begun in the whole series of legends, which he has called *Le Roman des Romans*.

How popular and widely circulated these romances were in their day, may be proved by the many editions of single legends, by the translations of most of them into Italian, English, German, and even into Dutch, and also by the numerous chivalric romances written in imitation of them. As, nevertheless, a change came over the public taste, they almost all fell into oblivion, and indeed justly so, because of their want of intrinsic merit. They were transferred from the Temple of the Muses to the literary lumber-room, where now at best they only serve to feast the eyes of bibliomaniacs. A. of Gaul has been deservedly excepted from this fate, and has not only found readers in the present day, but has been in modern times translated, revised, and imitated. The Portuguese Gil Vicente, and the Spaniard Andrés Rei de Artieda, extracted from it the materials for two Spanish comedies. De Lubert and Count Tressan revived this romance in tasteful extracts; and as Bernardo Tasso formerly did in his *Amadigi*, so now Creuzé de Lesser and William Stewart Rose have extracted from it the materials for epic poems: *A. de Gaule, Poëme faisant suite aux Chevaliers de la Table ronde* (Paris, 1813), and *A. of Gaul*, a poem in three books (London, 1803). On the other hand, Wieland's *Neuer A.* has nothing in common with the more ancient Amadises, except the title, and the multitude of adventures encountered by the hero.

AMADOU, a name given to *Polyporus igniarius* and *P. fomentarius*, fungi of the tribe or division *Hymenomycetes*, and formerly included in the genus *Boletus*. They grow upon old trees in Britain, and on the continent of Europe. The pileus is completely blended with the hymenium, which is pierced with thin-sided, rather angular, tubular, vertical passages — the whole fungus thus appearing as a leathery or fleshy mass; the under side of which is pierced by deep pores. *P. igniarius* is called Hard A., or

Touchwood. *P. fomentarius* is called Soft A., or German Tinder. They are used as styptics for stanching slight wounds; and when steel and flint were in general use for striking fire, were much employed as tinder, being prepared for this purpose by boiling in a solution of nitre. The Soft A. is used for making small surgical pads, for which its elasticity peculiarly fits it. *P. fomentarius*, or a very similar species, is found in India, and used there as in Europe. It is also employed by the Laplanders and others for moxa (q. v.). It is sometimes made into razor-straps, and this use is likewise made of *P. betulinus*.—*P. officinalis*, the *Agaricon* of Dioscorides, which grows upon larch-trees in the south of Europe, is a drastic purgative, now rarely employed. *P. suaveolens*, which grows upon the stems of willows, and is easily recognised by its anise-like smell, was

Polyporus suaveolens.

formerly employed in medicine, in cases of consumption, under the name of *Fungus salicis*. All these species are very similar in appearance. Another species of the same genus, *P. destructor*, is one of the fungi known by the name of Dry Rot (q. v.).—The remarkably light wood of *Hernandia Guianensis*, a shrub of the natural order *Thymelaceæ* (q. v.), is readily kindled by flint and steel, and is used in Guiana as A.

AMAIN, a peculiar phrase applied by sailors to signify *at once* or *suddenly;* in such orders or directions as 'lower amain,' 'strike amain,' &c.

AMALEKITES, one of the most fierce and warlike of the Canaanitish nations. They dwelt 'in the land of the south' (Numbers, xiii. 29), that is, in the land south of Palestine, or between Idumea and Egypt. From the very first, they manifested an uncompromising hostility to the Israelites, whose rear-guard they smote after the passage through the Red Sea. In consequence of this, they received no mercy at the hands of the Israelites, when the latter had established themselves in Palestine. Saul (1 Samuel, xv. 2) nearly annihilated them. Twenty years later, David, while dwelling amongst the Philistines, penetrated into their land, and made dreadful slaughter of them. After this, they made a last desperate reprisal, but were overtaken by David in the midst of their drinking and dancing; and 'from twilight, even unto the evening of the next day,' he smote them, 'and there escaped not a man of them, save 400 young men who rode upon camels and fled.' The descendants of these were finally extirpated in the days of Hezekiah, king of Judah, by the Simeonites.

AMA'LFI, a seaport on the Gulf of Salerno, on the E. coast of Southern Italy, contains above 6500 inhabitants; has a very ancient cathedral, and is the seat of a bishop. It is said to have been founded under Constantine the Great, and during the middle ages, was once a republic; afterwards, it was ruled by dukes of A.; and about the close of the 11th c., fell under the power of the Normans. The maritime laws of A. (*Tabula Amalphitana*) once prevailed throughout Italy. The unique manuscript of the pandects (q. v.) was discovered at A.; and Flavio Gioja, the inventor of the compass, and Masaniello, were born there.

AMA'LGAM is the term applied to that class of alloys (q. v.) in which one of the combining metals is mercury. On the nature of the union, it has been observed that 'on adding successive small quantities of silver to mercury, a great variety of fluid amalgams are apparently produced; but in reality, the chief, if not the sole compound, is a solid A., which is merely diffused throughout the fluid mass.' The fluidity of an A. would thus seem to depend on there being an excess of mercury above what is necessary to form a definite compound. Mercury unites readily with gold and silver at the usual temperature. It has no disposition to unite with iron even when hot. A solid A. of tin is used to silver looking-glasses.

Amalgamation is employed on a small scale in some processes of gilding, the silver or other metal being overlaid with a film of gold A., and the mercury being then driven off by heat. But its most extensive use is in separating gold, and especially silver, from certain of their ores. The mercury dissolves the particles of the metal, and leaves the earthy particles; it is then easily separated from the gold or silver. This process, discovered in Mexico in 1557 by Bartolomé de Medina, is very extensively used in Mexico at the present time, and has lately been introduced with great success into the Californian and Australian gold-fields. The mode of application is to crush the quartz rock which serves as the matrix in which the small particles of gold are embedded; place the fragments in a barrel or revolving drum with mercury, and agitate for some time. The mercury attaches all the gold particles to itself; and in the apparatus, when fully agitated, there is found a semi-fluid mass, which is the mercury, appearing half congealed, and containing all the gold. It is only necessary to place this A. in a retort and apply heat, when the mercury sublimes over—and can be re-employed for further amalgamation—and leaves the gold in the body of the retort. This process is the only known method of separating the finer particles of gold from a mass of rock, and is always used by the gold-crushing companies. Indeed, it is now believed that this truly commercial mode of gold-seeking is the only one which, in a few years, will be had recourse to.

Several amalgams may be regarded as definite chemical compounds. Thus, when gold-leaf is placed in mercury, and the A. so produced filtered by being squeezed in a chamois-leather bag, the uncombined mercury oozes through the skin, but a definite A. of 2 of gold and 1 of mercury remains behind in the leather filter. Tin A. is employed in silvering looking-glasses, and is formed by laying a sheet of tin-foil on a table, covering it with mercury, and then placing, by a sliding movement, the sheet of glass over it. This A. contains 3 of mercury and 1 of tin; glass balls are silvered with an A. of 10 mercury, 1 tin, 1 lead, and 2 bismuth. A silver A. highly crystalline—and, from the clusters of crystals somewhat resembling a tree, called *Arbor Dianæ*, or Tree of Diana—is prepared from 3 parts of the

strongest solution of nitrate of silver, 2 parts of solution of proto-nitrate of mercury added to an A. of 7 mercury and 1 silver. In a day or two, the arborescent appearance presents itself, and the crystals contain 65 per cent. mercury, and 35 silver. The A. used for fractional electric machines is made from 1 tin, 1 zinc, and 3 mercury, to which sand is afterwards added.

AMALIA, Anna, Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, an amiable lady, and generous patron of literature, was born in 1739, and, during the latter part of the 18th c., was the centre of the court of Weimar. Left a widow in the second year of her marriage (1758), her judicious rule, as guardian of her infant son, enabled the country to recover from the effects of the Seven Years' War; while her efforts were no less effectual in promoting the education of the people. She appointed Wieland tutor to her son, afterwards Duke, and attracted to Weimar such men as Herder, Goethe, Knebel, Böttiger, Musæus, Schiller; forming a galaxy of genius such as no single court, perhaps, was ever graced with. How much the fine qualities of head and heart possessed by the duchess herself contributed to this success, was shewn by the fact that, when she resigned the government into the hands of her son in 1775, she continued to be surrounded by the same society. She has the high distinction of having honoured and encouraged the greatest writers that Germany has produced. The battle of Jena is said to have broken her heart; she died (1807) six months after that event.

AMALIE, Marie, the wife of Louis Philippe, king of the French, was the daughter of King Ferdinand I. (IV.) of the Two Sicilies, and was born April 26, 1782. When she married Louis Philippe (then Duke of Orleans), he was a political exile, without a hope of ever rising to the throne of France. It was a marriage of personal choice on both sides, and was consequently happy. After Louis Philippe's elevation to the throne, the queen avoided interference in political affairs, and devoted her attention to plans of beneficence. In her domestic relations, her conduct was highly exemplary, and won the esteem of all parties; indeed, the only charge ever preferred against her, was her supposed excess of piety. She shared the fortune of her exiled husband, and was very respectfully received in England. Louis Philippe, shortly before his death (at Claremont, 1850), gave expression to the love and esteem with which he regarded his faithful wife. She died at Claremont in 1866.

AMANDE DE TERRE. See Cyperus.

AMANITA, a genus of Fungi, nearly allied to *Agaricus*, but bursting from a volva. *A. muscaria*, which is pretty common in woods, especially of fir and beech, in Britain, is one of the most dangerous fungi. It is sometimes called Fly Agaric, being used in Sweden and other countries to kill flies and bugs, for which purpose it is steeped in milk. The pileus or cap is of an orange-red colour, with white warts, the gills white, and the stem bulbous. It grows to a considerable size. Notwithstanding its very poisonous nature, it is used by the Kamchatkadales to produce intoxication, and it imparts an intoxicating property to the urine of those who swallow it, of which they or others often avail themselves, when abundance of the fungus is not at hand.

Amanita Muscaria, in a young state.

Amanita Muscaria, full grown, more reduced.

A'MARANTH (*Amaranthus*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Amaranthaceæ*. This order contains nearly 300 known species, natives of tropical and temperate countries, but chiefly abounding within the tropics. They are herbs or shrubs, with simple exstipulate leaves, and flowers in heads or spikes; the perianth usually coloured, 3—5-partite, hypogynous, scarious, persistent, generally surrounded with small bracteæ; the stamens hypogynous, either 5, and opposite the segments of the perianth, or some multiple of 5, distinct or united into a tube, sometimes partly abortive; the anthers either 2-celled or 1-celled; the ovary single, superior, 1-celled, with 1 or few ovules, which hang from a free central cord; style single or absent; stigma simple or compound; fruit, a small membranous bag or utricle, or a caryopsis (q. v.), rarely baccate; seeds lens-shaped, externally crustaceous, embryo curved round the circumference; albumen farinaceous. —The genus *Amaranthus* has mostly monœcious flowers (although the order is generally hermaphrodite), with two or three stigmas, and a 1-celled, 1-seeded utricle, bursting all round transversely. Some of the species are naturally of singular form, and others assume singular but monstrous forms through cultivation. *A. caudatus* (Love-lies-bleeding), *A. cruentus*, *A. hypochondriacus* (Prince's Feather), and other species, are common annuals in our flower-gardens. The spikes of *A. caudatus* are sometimes several feet in length. The dry red bracts which surround the flower retain their freshness for a long time after being gathered; for which reason the plant has been employed by poets as

Love-lies-bleeding (*Amaranthus caudatus*).

an emblem of immortality.—The Globe A. (*Gomphrena globosa*) and the Cockscomb (q. v.), well-known tender annuals, belong to the same natural order. The Globe A. is much cultivated in Portugal and other Roman Catholic countries for adorning churches in winter. Its flowers, which are of a shining purple, retain their beauty and freshness for several years. No species of the order can be regarded as a true native of Britain, although *Amaranthus Blitum* is now found in waste places near London and elsewhere. *A. Blitum, A. oleraceus* (Chusan Han-tsi), and other species, are used as pot-herbs; but rarely in Britain. Wholesome mucilaginous qualities are very generally found in the leaves throughout the order. The seeds of *Amaranthus frumentaceus* (called Kiery) and of *A. anardhana* are gathered as corn-crops in India.—Medicinal properties are ascribed to some species of the order, particularly to *Gomphrena officinalis* and *macrocephala*, which have a high and probably exaggerated reputation in Brazil as cures for many diseases.

AMARAPU'RA, or UMMERAPOORA, a town of Burmah, on the left bank of the Irrawaddy, 9 miles north-east from Ava, in lat. 21° 57′, long. 96° 7′. It was founded in 1783, and made the capital of the empire, which, with a short interval (1822—1837), it has continued to be. It was burned to the ground in 1810. The population at that time was estimated at 170,000; but at present it counts only about 27,000; with its suburbs, 90,000. In 1839, it was again almost destroyed by an earthquake. The whole city is built of bamboo, with the exception of some temples, the most celebrated of which is that containing a colossal bronze image of Gaudama.

AMARA-SINHA, a celebrated Hindu grammarian of great antiquity, who wrote a variety of works, only one of which has come down to us, the *Amara-Kosha*, or Thesaurus of Amara; sometimes called the *Trikanda*, i. e., the Tripartite. Regarding the author's life, little is known, nor is the precise period during which he flourished definitely ascertained. He is generally supposed to have been one of the 'nine gems' who adorned the throne of King Vikramaditya I. (56 B.C.). But Mr Bentley (*Asiatic Researches*) places him as late as the 11th c. A.D., while Mr Colebrooke assigns the close of the 5th as the most probable. He is known to have been a Buddhist; and it is universally believed that his writings perished during the fierce persecution to which that sect was subjected by the orthodox Brahmins, in the 3d, 4th, and 5th centuries. This tradition harmonises with the earliest of the three ages in which he is said to have lived.

The *Amara-Kosha* is a Sanscrit vocabulary, divided into 3 books and 18 chapters, and containing in all about 10,000 words. The words are classed according to the nature of the things signified by them. Almost all the grammarians of Hindustan imitate, translate, or comment upon the work of A.

An excellent edition of the *Amara-Kosha*, with notes in English and an index, was published by H. T. Colebrooke, Serampore, 1808; reprinted in 1829: the Sanscrit text at Calcutta in 1813; and in 1839 a French translation appeared in Paris.

AMARI, MICHELE, an Italian historian and orientalist, was born at Palermo, July 7, 1806. At the age of sixteen, he entered a government office; and shortly after—his father being condemned to thirty years' imprisonment for a political crime—the duty of supporting his mother and the other members of the family devolved upon him. His straitened circumstances soured him; and he even meditated becoming a bandit, but was roused from his morbid wretchedness by falling passionately in love with an English lady. Although he did not win her hand, he secured a knowledge of the English language, the first result of which was a translation of Sir Walter Scott's *Marmion*, published at Palermo in 1832. A. soon became a political '*suspect*;' and although he had conducted himself during the tumult of 1837 with exemplary moderation, he was summarily transferred to a situation in Naples, where he remained four years, and where he pursued with the utmost diligence his historical investigations. In 1842 appeared his *La Guerra del Vespro Siciliano* (The War of the Sicilian Vespers), which has been often republished, and remains the master-piece of its author. Its great merit arises from its having successfully combated the common notion, that the terrible massacre so named was the result of a deep and ramified conspiracy on the part of the nobles. A. proves from a letter of Charles of Anjou himself, as well as from numerous other sources, that it was a popular or national outbreak, occasioned by the tyranny of the foreign rulers, that really brought about the deliverance of Sicily. The book was quickly prohibited, and, as a consequence, widely read. It was translated into German by Dr Schroëder of Hildesheim, and into English by Lord Ellesmere. A. was now ordered to Naples, but fled to France, where he gave himself up to the study of Arabic and modern Greek, and to the preparation of his *History of the Mussulmans in Sicily*. At the revolution of 1848, he returned to Palermo, where he had been appointed professor of public law, but shortly after his arrival was elected vice-president of the committee of war. He was next sent on a diplomatic mission by the provisional government to France and England. In 1849, he published at Paris *La Sicile et les Bourbons*, to shew up the pretensions of the Neapolitan sovereign. After the Sicilian insurrection had been quelled, A. took up his residence in Paris, where he devoted himself to literary pursuits till 1860, when he returned to Italy. He was made senator next year, and in 1862 became Minister of Instruction. Other writings of A. are upon the language and history of the Arabs, in the *Revue Archéologique*, the *Journal Asiatique*, &c., besides an English translation of the *Solwan* of Ibn Djabr.

AMARYLLI'DEÆ, or AMARYLLIDA'CEÆ, a natural order of Monocotyledonous plants, including many species distinguished by the beauty of their flowers. They are herbaceous plants, or when, as in the genera *Agave* and *Fourcroya*, they form woody stems, they have still the character of gigantic herbaceous plants rather than of shrubs. The greater part are bulbous-rooted. The leaves are sword-shaped, with parallel veins; the flowers have spathaceous bracts. The perianth is regular, 6-cleft, sometimes with a corona. The stamens are 6, arising from the perianth, sometimes cohering by their dilated bases; the anthers bursting inwardly. The ovary is inferior, 3-celled, with 1, 2, or many anatropal ovules; the style is single; the stigma 3-lobed. The fruit is a 3-celled, 3-valved capsule, or a 1—3-seeded berry. The seed is albuminous, with the embryo nearly straight.—There are about 400 known species of this order, natives of tropical or sub-tropical, and more sparingly, of temperate regions—particularly abundant at the Cape of Good Hope. A few species only are European. Many of them are much prized ornaments of our gardens and hot-houses. Amongst these are different species of NARCISSUS (q. v.), AMARYLLIS (q. v.), CRINUM (q. v.), ALSTRŒMERIA (q. v.), NERINE, COBURGIA, BRUNSVIGIA, PANCRATIUM, FOURCROYA, &c. To this order belong the SNOWDROP (q. v.) and SNOWFLAKE (q. v.), and it includes also the AMERICAN ALOE (*Agave*, q. v.).

AMARYLLIS, a genus of bulbous-rooted plants

natural order *Amaryllideæ* (q. v.), having a simple 6-partite perianth, and containing a large number of species, natives of the warmer regions of the globe. Many of them have flowers of very great beauty. A species of this genus, *A. formosissima*, was brought to Europe from South America in the end of the 17th c., and has since been in common cultivation as a garden-flower. Its flowers are of a beautiful red colour, exhibiting a play of golden gleams in the sunshine. They are scentless. *A. amabilis*, *A. Josephinæ*, and *A. vittata* are amongst the most admired bulbous-rooted plants. *A. Sarniensis* is one of the most hardy species, flowering freely [illegible]ey, with a little protection during winter, commonly called Guernsey Lily, although it is said to be a native of Japan. By artificial [illegible]ation, a great number of hybrid forms have been produced in this genus.

Amaryllis formosissima.

AMA'SIS, a king of Egypt. Of humble origin, he rose to be general under Apries, the last king of the line of Psammetichus. Being sent to put down an insurrection, he joined the rebels, and was proclaimed king (569 B.C.). He cultivated the friendship of the Greeks, opened up to them the commerce of Egypt, formerly confined to Naucratis, married a Greek wife, and took a body-guard of Greeks into pay. Pythagoras and Solon are said to have visited him. For his alliance with Polycrates, and the singular reason for which Herodotus makes him break it off, see POLYCRATES. During his reign of 44 years, he greatly promoted the prosperity and adornment of Egypt. Immediately after his death, the country was conquered by Cambyses of Persia.

AMATITLA'N, a district of Central America, near Guatemala city, embosomed in abrupt mountains of volcanic origin. It produces cochineal largely.

AMAU'ROSIS (Gr. *amauros*, obscure) is a blindness or obscurity of vision caused by disease of the optic nerve, and this cause may be situated either at the origin of the nerve in the brain, in some part of its course, or at its termination in the retina; and of course the degree of blindness will be in proportion to the extent these parts are involved by the disease. See OPTIC NERVE. A. may also depend upon causes remote from the organ of vision; the suppression of accustomed discharges from the body may lead to congestion of the vessels of the brain, and cause A.; and it may spring from many very slight causes, if a predisposition to the disease exists. This is occasionally hereditary. Beer mentions several cases in one family; for three successive generations, all the females who had not borne children became blind in middle age; the males shewed a tendency to the disease, but did not become blind. A common cause is exposure to bright light, great heat and light, either natural or artificial, occupation upon minute objects, and employment of the eyes during the hours which ought to be devoted to sleep. In many instances, a single imprudent exposure of the eyes to the operation of some such cause, has been sufficient to extinguish the sensibility of the retina; but, in general, it is from long-continued over-excitement of the organs of vision that they begin to fail, and at last become totally unable to continue their office. The heat of the sun, rage, continued stooping, and fevers or other causes, causing congestion, inflammation, or serous effusion in the head, cause A. Some poisonous substances cause A. suddenly, as belladonna, stramonium, and other narcotics given in large doses; and others, applied to the body every day in small quantities, have the same effect, but more slowly. Tobacco may be justly signalised as a poison of this sort, as also mercury and lead.

Exhaustion of the body and depressing mental affections also are causes of A. But we can seldom attribute its occurrence to the influence of any single remote cause, but to a number of circumstances which have been acting for a length of time upon one individual, either consecutively or together.

We recognise the presence of A. by the history of the case and the appearance of the eyes. The latter have generally a vacant, unmeaning stare, dilated pupils, and do not converge towards an object, but appear to be looking steadfastly at something in the distance. The sclerotic or white of the eye is generally altered in colour, and crossed by enlarged blood-vessels. The history of the case varies with the patient. Among the first symptoms are difficulty in calculating distances, as in threading a needle or pouring fluid into a glass; and sometimes there is occasional loss of sight in one eye (*amaurosis vaga*), confusion of vision—sometimes a part of the field of vision will be clear, and part obscured. There are also present spectra or *muscæ volitantes*, which sometimes are permanent, arising from the existence of insensible patches on the retina. Floating specks are merely coincident with the disease.

A. is treated by depletion in the robust, alteratives and tonics in the feeble, and by those remedies which act upon the nervous system, and counter-irritation by blisters or issues behind the ears, or in the neighbourhood. Except in very recent cases, the prospect of recovery is slight.

AMAXI'CHI, the capital of the Ionian island of Santa Maura or Leucadia, is built on the edge of the shallow lagoons that separate the north-east part of the island from the mainland. The harbour constructed by the Anglo-Ionian government is protected by a mole, at the end of which is a light-house. It is fitted only for small-craft. A. derives its name from the Greek *amaxai*, 'cars,' which the Venetian garrison employed in bringing down the oil and wine from the inland districts to the point nearest the fort of Santa Maura, where, subsequently, houses began to be erected. The town has a very mean appearance; the buildings are partly of wood, on account of the frequent earthquakes. Slight shocks occur about once a month. Behind A. there is an old olive-wood, extending to the base of the neighbouring hills, and checkered with cypresses and gardens. The town is the residence of a Greek archbishop and of a British governor. Pop. 5000, a fourth of that of the whole island.

AMAZON, MARANO'N, or ORELLA'NA, a river which, after traversing nearly the entire breadth of South America, enters the Atlantic between Brazil and Guiana, by a mouth of about 150 miles in width—a mouth which, though it admits the tide for nearly 500 miles, is yet so far from meeting our ordinary notion of an estuary that it repels, or at least overlays, the ocean to a distance of more than 50 leagues. With its various tributaries—the Napo, the Putumayo, the Yapura, and the Rio Negro from the north, and the Huallaga, the Yavari, the Jutay, the Jurua, the Coary, the Purus, the Madeira, the Tapajos,

and the Xingo from the south—the A. drains 2,330,000 square miles, an area equal to two-thirds of Europe, and is estimated to afford an inland navigation of 50,000 miles, a line double the circumference of the globe. In every respect, then, the A. may well claim to be the largest of rivers, excepting only that, in volume of contents as distinguished from volume of discharge, the St Lawrence, with its computed mass of 11,000 cubic miles, has been estimated to be equal to all the other bodies of fresh water on the earth's surface, from the A. downwards. With this exception, which—as the St Lawrence is really a series of lakes—is rather apparent than real, the Amazon stands forth as the king of rivers, whether trunk be compared with trunk, or branches with branches, alike in essential features and in the area of basin. Viewed as one grand system, the A., from its sources, from which the Pacific may be seen within a distance of 60 miles, to its embouchure, comprises a course of about 4000 miles; while, gathering its tribute from both sides of the equator along more than 20° of latitude, it presents, perhaps, between south and north, a longer line of natural communication than even between west and east. Reckoning from the western range of the Andes, the A. is but little better than a mountain-torrent, till it has burst through the gorges of the eastern range of the chain, where it is overhung by peaks that tower thousands of feet above its bed. But, within 300 miles from the Pacific—a journey of about 20 days for loaded mules—the branch called the Huallaga is practicable for steamers, while, after a run of 325 miles, the A. is navigable for vessels drawing 5 feet, growing deeper and deeper, and more and more available as it rolls its steadily swelling flood towards the ocean. Nor is this the remotest point of clear navigation from the sea, for the Maranon itself is estimated by Herndon to carry the clear navigation about one-fifth higher up, amounting in all to 3360 miles. What an idea do these single threads afford of this matchless net-work of inland navigation! But it is not to its own basin alone, vast as that basin is, that the value of the A. is confined. The Rio Tapajos has its navigation separated only by a portage of 18 miles from that of an affluent of the Plata; the Rio Branco, the main tributary of the Rio Negro, has a water-communication which is only two hours distant from that of the Essequibo; while the Rio Negro itself is doubly connected with the Orinoco, receiving from it the navigable Cassiquiare (q. v.), and wanting only a canal over a portage of six hours to complete a still more useful bond of union, whose superior advantages will certainly one day lead to the necessary improvement. In addition to all this, the outlet of this mighty river, besides washing Cayenne, is itself, under nature's guidance, a feeder, as it were, of that highway of nations, the Gulf Stream. Thus does the A., to say nothing more of its maritime relations, bring its inland navigation, mediately or immediately, to bear, Chili alone excepted, on every country in South America—Venezuela, Ecuador, New Granada, Bolivia, Peru, Brazil, the Guianas, and the several Argentine Republics. This is not mere prospect: not only has the basin proper of the A. been more or less frequently traversed, but also the various points that knit it to other basins have been tested by experience. The grandest and most singular of them all, besides being explored by Humboldt, has been placed beyond a doubt by the discoveries of the country. The hardy builders of San Carlos at the entrance of the Cassiquiare into the Rio Negro have long sent vessels, not only down the Rio Negro to Para on the Lower A., but likewise up the Cassiquiare to Angostura, on the Lower Orinoco; thus solving, in their own way, the problem which systematic geographers were elsewhere deriding as worse than a fable—as a sheer impossibility. Steamboat navigation began on the A. in 1853. In that year, the Amazon Navigation Company, a Brazilian commercial association fostered by the government, sent its first steamer from Pará, the maritime emporium of the A., to Nauta, in Peru; and steamers of 1000 tons constantly trade between these two ports. The Peruvian government has also inaugurated a line of steamers on its reach of the A., and up the Huallaga. Freedom of navigation would tend enormously to develop the resources of the vast region which is dependent for its prosperity on the Amazon. If open to all comers, these countries might become the garden of the world teeming as they do with game, fish, coffee, sugar, cotton, tobacco, maize, rice, sarsaparilla, cocoa, indigo, grapes, bananas, spices, dyes, drugs, india-rubber, cabinet-woods, building-timber, and precious metals. Because Brazil continues to maintain its control over the lower A., the trade of about one-half of Bolivia, two-thirds of Peru, three-fourths of Ecuador, and one-half of New Granada goes west over the Andes to Callao. It is shipped there, and, after doubling Cape Horn, and sailing eight or ten thousand miles, it is only off the mouth of the A. on its voyage to Europe and the United States; whereas the cargo might have been landed at Pará for the amount of money it costs to convey it across the Andes to the ports of the Pacific.

The wonderful discoveries made by the late Professor Agassiz (1865—1866) in the *fauna* of the waters of the A. have proved what he himself calls 'a true revelation for science.' Their importance will be seen by contrast. The number of species of fish on the whole globe known to Linnæus about a century ago was 300; in 1840, Captain Wilkes collected only 600 species in a voyage round the world with three ships, in an expedition lasting four years; but Agassiz saw in five months on the A. alone 1300 species of fish, nearly 1000 of them new, and about 20 new genera. The *Vaca marina*, the largest fish inhabiting fresh waters, and the Acarí, which carries its young in its mouth, especially when there is danger, are denizens of the Amazon.—See *Brazil and the Brazilians*, by Fletcher and Kidder (London and Boston, 1866); *A Journey in Brazil*, by Professor and Mrs Agassiz (London, 1868).

AMAZONS, AMAZONES. According to a very ancient tradition, the A. were a nation of women, who suffered no men to remain among them, but marched to battle under the command of their queen, and formed for a long time a formidable state. They held occasional intercourse with the men of the neighbouring states. If boys were born to them, they either sent them to their fathers, or killed them. But they brought up the girls for war, and burned off their right breasts, that they might not be prevented from bending the bow. From this custom, they received the name of A. that is, 'breastless.' Such is the ordinary tale; the origin of which is perhaps to be accounted for by supposing that vague reports, exaggerated and poetically embellished, had reached the Greeks of the peculiar way in which the women of various Caucasian districts lived, performing military duties which elsewhere devolved on husbands, and also of the numerous examples of female heroism which, travellers inform us, still distinguish the women of that region. In later times, however, the word Amazon has been supposed to have some connection with the Circassian word 'Mazz,' signifying the moon, as if this myth of the A. had taken its origin in the worship of the moon, which prevailed on the banks

of Asia. Three nations of A. have been mentioned by the ancients. 1. The Asiatic A., from whom the others branched off. These dwelt on the shores of the Black Sea, and among the mountains of the Caucasus, especially in the neighbourhood of the modern Trebisond, on the river Thermodon (now Termeh). They are said to have at one time subdued the whole of Asia, and to have built Smyrna, Ephesus, Cumæ, and other cities. Their queen, Hippolyte, or, according to others, Antiope, was killed by Hercules, as the ninth of the labours imposed on him by Eurystheus consisted in taking from her the shoulder-belt bestowed on her by Mars. On one of their expeditions, the A. came to Attica, in the time of Theseus. They also marched under the command of their queen, Penthesilea, to assist Priam against the Greeks. They even appear upon the scene in the time of Alexander the Great, when their queen, Thalestris, paid him a visit, in order to become a mother by the conqueror of Asia. 2. The Scythian A., who, in after-times, married among the neighbouring Scythians, and withdrew further into Sarmatia. 3. The African A., who, under the command of their queen, Myrina, subdued the Gorgons and Atlantes, marched through Egypt and Arabia, and founded their capital on the Lake Tritonis, but were then annihilated by Hercules. See Nagel, *Geschichte der Amazonen* (Stuttgart, 1838).

AMBA'SSADOR is a title by which the highest order of diplomatic ministers is distinguished, and the person holding such a high commission may be defined to be an officer sent by one sovereign power to another to treat on affairs of state. In a less restricted sense, writers on public law employ the term to denote every kind of diplomatic minister or agent. The credentials, or letters of credence, of an A. are addressed directly by his own sovereign to the sovereign to whom he is sent, and with whom he has the privilege of personal communication. In the performance of all his diplomatic duties, an A. is understood to represent, not only the affairs, but the dignity and the power of his master; and by the law of nations, he has many important rights and privileges, the chief of which is exemption from the control of the municipal laws of the nation wherein he is to exercise his functions, an exemption that is not confined to the A. himself, but is extended to all his suite, including not only the persons employed by him in diplomatic services, but his wife, chaplain, and household generally. But there is a dispute among legal writers whether this exemption extends to *all crimes*, or whether it is limited to such offences as are *mala prohibita*, as coining, and not to those that are *mala in se*, as murder. The law of England appears to have formerly allowed the exemption in the restricted sense only; and in the year 1654, during the Protectorate of Cromwell, the Portuguese A. was tried, convicted, and executed, for an atrocious murder. But now, according to the general practice of this country, as well as that of the rest of Europe, it is considered that the security of an A. in conducting the intercourse of nations, is of more importance than the punishment of a particular crime, and therefore few examples have happened in modern times where an A. has been punished for any offence. In regard to civil suits, it was at one time held and laid down by Sir Edward Coke that an A. to the English court was answerable for any contract which was good according to the law of nations. The full exemption of an A. from legal process in civil cases was first recognised by 7 Anne, c. 12, a statute whose history is thus related by Blackstone. 'In the reign of Queen Anne, an A. from Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, was actually arrested, and taken out of his coach in London, for a debt of £50, which he had there contracted. Instead of applying to be discharged upon his privilege, he gave bail to the action, and the next day complained to the queen. The persons who were concerned in the arrest were examined before the privy council (of which the Lord Chief-justice Holt was at the same time sworn a member), and seventeen were committed to prison, most of whom were prosecuted by information in the Court of Queen's Bench, at the suit of the Attorney-general; and at their trial before the Lord Chief-justice, were convicted of the facts by the jury; reserving the question of law, how far those facts were criminal, to be afterwards argued before the judges; which question was never determined. In the meantime, the Czar resented this affront very highly, and demanded that the sheriff of Middlesex, and all others concerned in the arrest, should be punished with instant death. But the queen (to the amazement of that despotic court) directed her secretary to inform him, *that she could inflict no punishment upon any the meanest of her subjects, unless warranted by the law of the land; and therefore was persuaded that he would not insist upon impossibilities.* To satisfy, however, the clamours of the foreign ministers, who made it a common cause, as well as to appease the wrath of Peter, a bill was brought into parliament, and afterwards passed into a law (the 7th Anne c. 12), to prevent and punish such outrageous insolence for the future; and with a copy of this act elegantly engrossed and illuminated, accompanied by a letter from the queen, an A. extraordinary was commissioned to appear at Moscow, who declared, *that though her majesty could not inflict such a punishment as was required, because of the defect in that particular of the former established constitutions of her kingdom, yet, with the unanimous consent of the parliament, she had caused a new act to be passed, to serve as a law for the future.* This *humiliating* step,' says Blackstone, 'was accepted as a full satisfaction by the Czar; and the offenders, at his request, were discharged from all further prosecution.'

But although an A. is not amenable to any tribunal of the country he resides in, he cannot misconduct himself with impunity. He must respect the laws and customs of the country in which he is officially resident; and if he violates or offends these laws and customs, he may be complained of to the court or government which he represents; or if the offence is of a very serious nature, his recall may be demanded, or the sovereign to whom he has given such offence may dismiss him peremptorily, and further require that he be brought to trial in his own country. It hardly need be added, that if an A. is guilty of an offence which threatens the safety of the state, he ceases to enjoy the privileges of the exemption in question.

There are some other and inferior privileges which are very generally allowed to ambassadors: they are, for instance, permitted the free exercise of their religion; they are, in general, exempted from direct taxation, they have special letter-bags, and they are usually allowed to import their goods without paying any custom-house duties – a privilege, however, which, being liable to abuse, has sometimes been limited.

Ambassadors are of two kinds—first, those who reside regularly at the court to which they are accredited; and, secondly, those who are sent on special occasions, when they receive the designation of AMBASSADORS EXTRAORDINARY. The employment of permanent ambassadors originated in modern times. Her Majesty's diplomatic corps includes only five ambassadors in the more restricted sense of the word, who are accredited to the courts of

Vienna, Paris, St Petersburg, Constantinople, and Berlin respectively. Inferior diplomatic agents receive the title of CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES, MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY, or ENVOY (q. v.).

A'MBER, a substance analogous to the vegetable resins, and, in all probability, derived from an extinct coniferous tree, although now appearing, like coal, in connection with beds of which it is usually found, as a product of the mineral kingdom. It is usually of a pale-yellow colour, sometimes reddish or brownish, is sometimes transparent, sometimes almost opaque. It occurs in round irregular lumps, grains, or drops; has a perfectly conchoidal fracture, is slightly brittle, emits an agreeable odour when rubbed, melts at 550° F., and burns with a bright flame and pleasant smell. It becomes negatively electric by friction, and possesses this property in a high degree—which, indeed, was first observed in it, and the term electricity is derived from *elektron*, the Greek name of A. The specific gravity of A. is 1·0—1·1. It is ultimately composed of carbon 79, hydrogen 10·5, and oxygen 10·5. An acid called succinic acid (named from the Lat. *succinum*, amber) is obtained from it. A. had formerly a high reputation as a medicine, but the virtues ascribed to it were almost entirely imaginary. An antispasmodic volatile oil is obtained from it by distillation. A. is employed in the arts, for the manufacture of many ornamental articles, and for the preparation of a kind of varnish. Great quantities are consumed in Mohammedan worship at Mecca, and it is in great demand throughout the east. It was obtained by the ancients from the coasts of the

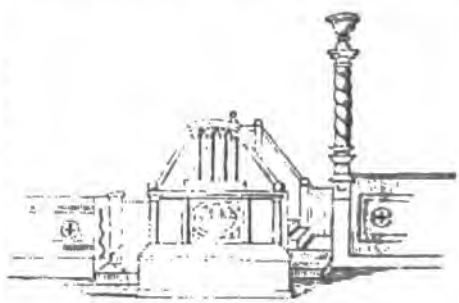
Amber, with enclosed insects.

Baltic Sea, where it is still found, especially between Königsberg and Memel, in greater abundance than anywhere else in the world. It is there partly cast up by the sea, partly obtained by means of nets, and partly dug out of a bed of bituminous wood. It is found elsewhere also in coal, and occasionally in diluvial deposits, as in the gravel near London; but it is very rare in Britain. It is obtained in small quantities from the coasts of Sicily and the Adriatic, and is found in different parts of Europe, in Siberia, Greenland, &c. It sometimes encloses insects of species which no longer exist. Leaves have also been found enclosed in it. Specimens which contain insects or leaves being much valued, fictitious ones are often manufactured and imposed upon collectors. According to an ancient fable, A. is the tears of the sisters of Phaethon, who, after his death, were changed into poplars. The ancients set an immense value upon it. Pieces of A. have occasionally been found of 12 or 13 lbs. weight, but such pieces are extremely rare.

A'MBERG, the old capital of the Upper Palatinate in Bavaria, 35 miles east of Nürnberg, and 32 north of Ratisbon. It is situated on both sides of the Vilz, is well built, with double walls and five gates, and contains (1871) 11,688 inhabitants. It is the seat of the court of appeal for the district, possesses a library of 34,000 volumes, a lyceum, an agricultural and industrial school, a house of correction, an arsenal, &c. The principal products are firearms, earthenware, woollen cloths, ironmongery, and beer. A. has 14 breweries, a large cattle and swine market, a market for hops, and an important salt-trade. Many of the inhabitants are employed as miners in the neighbouring mountains. The suburbs are adorned with beautiful gardens and shaded alleys.

A'MBERGRIS (i. e., gray amber), a fatty substance, of an ash-gray colour, with yellow or reddish striæ, like those of marble, which is found in lumps of from half an ounce in weight to 100 lbs. and upwards, floating on the sea, or cast upon the seashore in different parts of the world, and is also taken by whale-fishers from the bowels of the spermaceti whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*). Much A. is obtained from the coasts of the Bahama Islands; it is also brought from different parts of the East Indies, and the coasts of Africa and Brazil. It is probable that all of it is produced by the spermaceti whale, and that it is a morbid secretion in the intestinal canal of that animal, derived from the bile. It is highly valued, upon account of its agreeable smell, and is much used in perfumery. The price is about 20*s.* an ounce. It has been strongly recommended for medicinal uses, but is scarcely employed in Europe; although, in some parts of Asia and Africa, it is much used as a medicine, and also in cookery as a condiment. The specific gravity of A. is scarcely more than 0·9. It almost always contains black spots, which appear to be caused by the presence of beaks of the *Sepia octopodia*, the principal food of the spermaceti whale. It consists in great part (85 per cent.) of a peculiar brilliant white crystalline substance called *Ambrein*, which is obtained from it by treating it with alcohol.

A'MBO (Lat.), a kind of reading-desk or pulpit, which, in early churches, was placed in the choir. The Gospels and Epistles were read from the A., and sermons were sometimes preached from it, although the more usual practice in the primitive church was for the preacher to stand on the steps in front of



Ambo, St Clement's Church, Rome.

the altar. The A. is still to be found in oriental churches, and specimens of it may be seen in Rome. The A. had two ascents—one from the east, and the other from the west. In the Roman churches, there were two ambos, one on each side of the choir, from one of which the Gospel was read, and from the other, the Epistle. Where two such ambos were used, their construction was somewhat different. The name A. was also given to the analogium or

reading-desk used in monastic choirs, which was usually in the form of an eagle.

AMBOISE, a town on the left bank of the Loire, in the department of Indre-et-Loire, France. It is 15 miles by railway east of Tours, and lies in a region so rich in vineyards that it has been called 'the Garden of France.' Its manufactures are unimportant. A. possesses a castle, in which several of the French kings have resided. Charles VIII. was born here. It was also the scene of his death. The town is memorable as the place in which the religious wars that devastated the kingdom during the 16th c. broke out, and where the word 'Huguenot' was first applied to the Protestant party. The castle of A. was much improved by Louis Philippe, and was the residence of the Arab chief, Abd-el-Kader, during his captivity in France. Pop. (1872) 4098.

AMBOISE, GEORGE D', cardinal and prime-minister under Louis XII. of France, was born, 1460, at Chaumont-sur-Loire. When only fourteen years old, he was made Bishop of Montauban, and almoner to Louis XI., and, in 1493, was made Archbishop of Rouen. Initiated in early years into the intrigues of court, he soon, by his zealous services, secured the confidence of Louis of Orleans (Louis XII.), by whom he was made premier in 1498. From this time, A. became the prime mover in all the political affairs of France. By his advice, the king undertook the capture of Milan, which had such great influence on the fortunes of France. After the death of Pope Alexander VI., A. endeavoured to raise himself to the papal see, and having failed, became the dangerous enemy of the succeeding popes, Pius III. who occupied the papal chair only 27 days, and Julius II. To secure his own election, A. encouraged a schism between the French Church and the See of Rome, and convened a separate council, held first at Pisa, afterwards at Milan and Lyon; but his plans were frustrated by the failures of the French army in Italy. He died at Lyon, May 25, 1510. The Cardinal A. was a dexterous and experienced statesman; but was accused of avarice, vanity, and ambition, and it was said that his vast fortune of 11,000,000 livres had not been accumulated by over-scrupulous means. His biography was written by Montagnes (1631) and Legendre (Rouen, 1724).

AMBOYNA, APON, or THAU, the most important of the Spice Islands belonging to the Dutch, lies S.W. from Ceram, N.W. from Banda, and E. from Buru, in 127° 51' 30" - 128° 22' 15" E. long., and 3° 25' 40" - 3° 49' S. lat. The bay of A. runs into the island lengthways, forming two peninsulas, the northern called Hitu, and the southern, which is the smallest, Leitimor. A. is mountainous, the highest peaks being in Hitu. The climate is healthy—average temperature, 82° F.; lowest, 72°. The east monsoon brings heavy rains and storms. There are many rapid streams, and the town of Amboyna is supplied with excellent water from three small rivers. Clove, sago, mango, and cocoa-nut trees are abundant, also fine timber for cabinet-work. The sago-palm grows along the shores. The hills are covered with the cajeput or leucadendron, from the leaves of which a medicinal oil is extracted. The clove produce varies much, but the average of ten years is about 400,000 lbs. In a good year, a bearing tree gives about 5 lbs. Sweet potatoes, coffee, pepper, indigo, rice, and fruits are grown. Fish is plentiful, and on the banks of A. beautiful shells are found. Deer are numerous on Hitu. There are hogs and goats, a few sheep, monkeys, civet-cats, anteaters, crocodiles, snakes, &c. Buffaloes, horned cattle, and horses are imported. The natives are for the most part civilised, though still very superstitious. They speak a Malay dialect, and observe customs which indicate a Hindu origin. Daughters are a source of wealth, a payment of jewels, slaves, or clothing being exacted from the bridegroom. The *villagers* are set apart for the clove cultivation, and employed in feudal service during one half of the year. The *freemen* follow handicrafts, grow fruits and vegetables, fish, make fragrant oils, and trade. The descendants of Europeans and natives are employed as clerks by the government. The trade, which is small, is chiefly carried on by Chinese and Arabs. Pop. 28,000, fully one half being Christians; the remainder, except 2000 heathen, Mohammedans.

AMBOYNA, the capital, is situated near the middle of the N.W. shore of Leitimor, on the bay of A., in 3° 41' 40" S. lat., and 128° 15' E. long. A wooden pier, where ships lie in 20 fathoms, leads to the town through Fort Victoria, in which are two companies of infantry and half a company of artillery, making a force of 271 men and 23 officers. The town is built at the base of Mount Soya. The streets are wide and clean; many houses are shaded by nutmeg trees. Principal buildings are two Protestant churches, an orphan house, hospital, &c. Europeans live south-west of the fort in low stone houses. There is a theatre, and well-kept markets. The Netherlands Missionary Society has a training school for native teachers and ministers, with a printing establishment for lesson-books. The Reformed Church has 1800 members, 1300 being natives, with 2 ministers who superintend other churches. Pop. 10,500. Since 1854, A. is a free port.

AMBROSE, SAINT, one of the most celebrated of the ancient fathers of the church, was born about the year 340, probably at Treves, where his father, as Prefect of Gaul, was wont to reside. A. received a fortunate omen even in his cradle: a swarm of bees covered the slumbering boy; and the astonished nurse saw that the bees clustered round his mouth, without doing him any harm. His father, perhaps remembering a similar wonder related of Plato, foreboded from this a high destiny for A. He received an excellent education, and went with his brother Satyrus to Milan, in order to follow the legal profession. He soon distinguished himself so much, that, in 369, he was appointed, by Valentinian, Prefect of Upper Italy and Milan. In this office, his gentleness and wisdom won for him the esteem and love of the people, whose prosperity had been much injured by the troubles caused by Arianism. Accordingly, by both Arians and Catholics, he was unanimously called to be Bishop of Milan, in 374. A. long refused to accept this dignity, and even left the city; yet he soon returned, was baptised, as hitherto he had been only a catechumen, and was consecrated eight days afterwards. The anniversary of this event is still celebrated as a fête by the Catholic Church. As a bishop, A. won the universal reverence of all, by his mild and gentle, though, towards wickedness of every kind, severe and unbending character. Thus, he repulsed the Emperor Theodosius himself even from the door of the church, on account of his having caused the rebellious Thessalonians to be cruelly massacred by Rufinus, excommunicated him, and only restored him to the church after eight months of severe penance. A. died in 397. The best edition of his works, in which he followed in many things the Greek theological writers, is that published by the Benedictines (2 vols., Paris, 1686-1690). The hymn, *Te Deum Laudamus*, is usually ascribed to A., but it is proved to have been written 100 years later. The Ambrosian ritual has also received his name, only because A. had made some changes upon it, which are retained at the present day in the Milanese Church. A commentary on the epistles of Paul, which was formerly ascribed to A., was probably composed by the Roman deacon

Hilarius, and is usually quoted as the Commentary of the Ambrosiaster. A. is the patron saint of Milan, and the Ambrosian Library received its name in honour of him.

AMBROSIA, in Greek and Roman Mythology, is the name of the food of the gods, which conferred immortal youth and beauty. It was brought by doves to Jupiter, and was occasionally bestowed upon such human beings as were the peculiar favourites of the gods. A. was also used as a fragrant salve, which the goddesses employed to heighten their beauty; with which Jupiter himself anointed his locks; and which had the property of preserving bodies from corruption. Hindu mythology has also its *amrita* (from *a*, signifying 'without' or 'not,' and the Sanscrit root, allied to the Lat. *mort*, and Greek *brot*), or liquor of immortality, that resulted from the churning of the ocean by the gods; and the gods of the Scandinavian pantheon were preserved in perpetual vigour by eating the apples guarded by Idun.

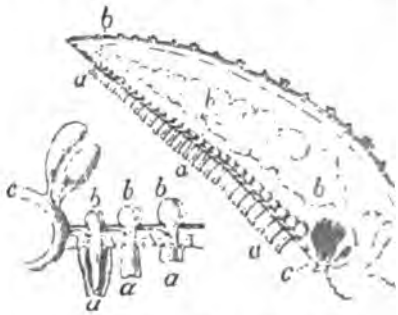
AMBRO'SIAN CHANT, the choral music of the early Christian Church, introduced from the eastern church into the western by St Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, in the 4th c.; it was founded on the first four authentic modes of the ancient Greeks, and was sung antiphonally. It continued in use until the 6th c., when Pope Gregory the Great reformed the music of the church by introducing the Gregorian chant. There exists still another specimen of music by Ambrosius, which is now known only in the German-Lutheran Church by Luther's translation of the words, *Nün kommt der Heiden Heiland;* it is beyond a doubt 1400 years old, and remains to this day a beautiful specimen of melody, expressive of filial humility and submission. The A. C. continued to be still sung in the cathedral at Milan long after Gregory's reformation, and till this day, it is said, it may be heard there.

AMBROSIAN LIBRARY, a library in Milan, so named in honour of St Ambrose, the patron saint of that city. It was established in 1609 by the Cardinal Archbishop Federigo Borromeo, who employed learned men to collect books both in Europe and Asia. This library was afterwards enriched by the acquisition of the MSS. of the Pinelli collection. Borromeo intended to establish, in connection with the library, a college of sixteen learned men, each having charge of a particular department, to make known the works in the library, and assist strangers in their researches. The want of funds limited the number of members of this college. The chief acting officer, or *prefetto*, and four assistants, are Doctores Bibliothecæ Ambrosianæ. The library contains 140,000 volumes of printed books, and 8000 MSS. Among the many rarities belonging to it, besides the Palimpsests and other as yet unedited MSS. discovered by Maio, Castiglione, and Mazzuchelli, it contains a 'Virgil,' in which Petrarch had written an account of his first meeting with Laura.

Ambry, Rushden, Northamptonshire—14th century.

A'MBRY, AUMERY, ALMERY (supposed by some to be a corruption of Almonry), a niche in the wall of a church, shut in by a door; or a small cabinet of wood placed by the side of the altar, for the purpose of holding the vestments and utensils, such as the chalices, basins, cruets, &c., used service of the mass. In monastic buildings, were used for various purposes, such as plate, hanging towels for the monks to hands with before dinner, and the like. sense, the term A. seems to have been applied kind of cupboard which was closed in and and it is so used in Scotland at the present d

AMBULA'CRA (from the Latin *ambu* walk), the name given to peculiar organs of tion with which star-fishes and other *Echinod* are furnished. They are fleshy, more or le gated, and terminated by suckers. They pass orifices in the shell or other external integu the animal, and are generally arranged i Those of the *Echini*, or Sea-urchins, are long



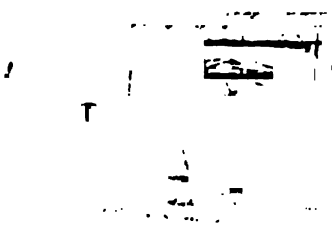
Ambulacra of Star-fish,

As seen in a longitudinal and vertical section of on rays; and three of them in a separate figure on scale, in which they are shewn in different a, a, a, tubular feet; b, b, b, internal vesicl which supplies the fluid with which they are

to extend beyond the point of the spines, means of them the animal is able to climb a dicular rock. They are tubular, and each ha base a vesicle, filled with a fluid which, traction of the vesicle, is forced int dilating it to its full extent, whilst, on th tion of the tube, the fluid returns again vesicle. The fluid is not secreted by these but provided for them by distinct secreting o

A'MBULANCE, a military term which i what differently applied in different c France, an A. is a portable hospital, one attached to every division of an army in and provided with all the requisites for the succour of sick and wounded troops. Such is stationed at some spot removed from im danger; and soldiers are sedulously employ a battle in seeking out those who have fall conveying them to the A. Baron J ev. the great wars of the First Napole department of medical business to efficiency, and set an example to the When England engaged in war with the A. arrangements, like many others relati army, were in a very imperfect state. In th army, an A. sometimes means a litter for from the field of battle those who have been *hors de combat;* while at other times the applied to a four-wheeled wagon or a two- cart fitted up for the reception of w When Lord Raglan was about to be the army, Dr Guthrie, President of Surgeons, devised a new form of Dr Andrew Smith, Director-general of the Ordnance Medical Department, invented wagon. Annexed is a figure of Dr Guthrie's

v wounded were laid on it at full length, se slightly hurt sat in front and rear, se sides. A stretcher is slung from the the accommodation of the former. The



Ambulance cart.

oard is let down for cases requiring ampu- . The hospital chests are lashed under- Many of Smith's A. wagons and of ie's A. carts were at once made and sent the East; but they were not at the proper when most wanted. After the battle of the in which 1986 British officers and soldiers killed or wounded, Lord Raglan, who was without A. and draught-animals, was much ressed for the means of dealing with his poor ng men; the conveyance of them down to ach for shipment to the military hospitals at i, was a work of delay and misery to all ned. The French, who had 1360 killed or led at the same battle, adopted excellent ments for conveying their invalids down to ach; they had a large number of *cacolets*, had been suggested to them by their experi- Algeria. Each of these consists of a sort y-chair—or rather two easy-chairs—slung in rs across the back of a mule: they are com- le to the wounded men, and are available tracks where no wheel-carriage could pass. the siege of Sebastopol, the English were early months at least much distressed ar A. arrangements by the want of men, animals, forage, and vehicles; but the ce thence gained will doubtless be valuable years.

LANCE CORPS. When the A. wagons noticed in the last article, were ordered ction, the War authorities made arrange- s supplying a body of men, to drive the s and to attend the sick and wounded. These ere to constitute an A. C., to which there had nothing before analogous in the English army. xperiment was unsuccessful; and at a later of war, the A. C. was superseded by the ort Corps; which has given way to the , and later still, to the Army Service

ULATORY. A name occasionally given ecture to the cloisters of a cathedral, col- like.

BUSCADE is one of the manœuvres adopted . The original Italian, *imboscata* ('concealed ood'), denotes the general nature of the A.; aning is now much more extended, seeing lies to any attempt to attack an enemy and coming upon him unexpectedly. , when soldiers fought hand to hand quently than at present, the A. was much to; but the tactics of modern times render vailable. It was by an A. on the part of the d sepoys that so many British soldiers were and wounded in that adventure which was wars of the Indian mutiny, as the 'disaster at Arrah,' in July 1857. An A. is neither an 'attack' nor a 'surprise,' in military language; it is something more sudden and unexpected than either.—AMBUSH is another name for ambuscade.

AMELANCHIER, a genus of plants of the natural order *Rosaceæ* (q. v.), sub-order *Pomeæ*, distinguished by having five ovaries, each of which is divided into two cells, with one ovule in each cell, the ripe fruit including 3—5 carpels. It consists of a few species of small trees with deciduous simple leaves, abundant racemes of white flowers, and small fruit of the size of a pea, or a little larger, but soft, juicy, and agreeable. The common A. (*A. vulgaris*) is a native of the Alps, Pyrenees, &c. The other species are natives of North America. *A. botryapium* is sometimes called June-berry, from its fruit ripening in June, before that of any other tree or shrub; and *A. ovalis* produces a very pleasant fruit, which makes excellent puddings. The amelanchiers are planted in Britain merely as ornamental trees. They are very hardy.

A'MEN, a Hebrew word of asseveration, is equivalent to 'Yea,' 'Truly,' and has been commonly adopted in the forms of Christian worship. In Jewish synagogues, the A. is pronounced by the congregation at the conclusion of the benediction given at parting. Among the early Christians, the prayer offered by the presbyter was concluded by the word A., uttered by the congregation. Mention is made of the practice in the 1st Epistle to the Corinthians (xiv. 16). Justin Martyr is the earliest of the fathers who alludes to the use of the response. 'In speaking of the sacrament, he says that, at the close of the benediction and prayer, all the assembly respond "A." According to Tertullian, none but the faithful were permitted to join in the response.' A somewhat noisy and irreverent practice prevailed in the celebration of the Lord's Supper until the 6th c., after which it was discontinued. 'Upon the reception both of the bread and of the wine, each person uttered a loud "A.;" and at the close of the consecration by the priest, all joined in *shouting* a loud "A."' The same custom was observed at baptism, where the sponsors and witnesses responded vehemently. In the Greek Church, the A. was pronounced after the name of each person of the Trinity; and at the close of the baptismal formula, the people responded. At the conclusion of prayer, it signifies (according to the English Church Catechism) *So be it;* after the repetition of the Creed, *So is it.*

AMENDMENT is a term used both in judicial and parliamentary proceedings. In the former, it is a power of correction of any errors in actions, suits, or prosecutions, which has been greatly extended of late, and which has largely improved and simplified the administration of the law, both in England and in Scotland. In parliament, the word A. is used when it is intended to oppose, vary, or qualify a question or resolution; and in the case of bills, it is employed as a courteous method of dismissing the bill from any further consideration, by moving that instead of 'now,' it be read at the end of three months, six months, or any other term beyond the probable duration of the session. It is also competent to a member to move as an A. to the question a resolution declaratory of some principle adverse to that of the bill, provided it be strictly relevant, as was done successfully, in 1859, by Lord John Russell, when he moved and carried, as an A. to the motion for the second reading of the Reform Bill of Lord Derby's government, a resolution declaratory of a principle which the supporters of that measure considered to be subversive of it.

AMENTA'CEÆ, according to some botanists, a natural order of dicotyledonous or exogenous plants, consisting entirely of trees and shrubs, whose flowers are unisexual, the male flowers, and very often also the female flowers, disposed in *amenta* or CATKINS (q. v.), and the perianth either wanting or incomplete. This order, which contains many well-known and important trees, is divided into a number of sub-orders, which by many have been erected into distinct orders, forming the *Amental Alliance* of Lindley. Under A. are ranked *Salicineæ* or *Salicaceæ* (see WILLOW), *Myricæ* (see CANDLEBERRY MYRTLE), *Casuarinaceæ* (see CASUARINA), *Betulaceæ* (see BIRCH), *Altingiaceæ*, called also *Balsamaceæ*, but not to be confounded with *Balsaminaceæ*, or *Balsamineæ* (see LIQUIDAMBAR); by some also *Corylaceæ* or *Cupuliferæ* (q. v.), and *Plataneæ* (see PLANE), both of which Lindley excludes from his Amental Alliance, associating the former with *Juglandaceæ* (see WALNUT), as a distinct *alliance*, and referring the latter to the *Urtical Alliance*. See URTICACEÆ. On the other hand, he unites with the Amental Alliance the order *Elæagnaceæ*. See ELÆAGNUS.

AME'NTHES, an Egyptian mythological word equivalent in meaning to the Greek word *Hades*, the unseen world. Plutarch explained it as signifying 'the giving and taking,' an interpretation generally adopted, but erroneously. A. literally means 'the hiding' (-place understood). On Egyptian monuments we find the god Anubis leading to A. the souls which, in the form of birds, are escaping from the body through the mouth. He conducts them before the throne of Osiris, who sits as judge, with a council or jury of forty-two persons. The female deity, AMENT, represented on monuments in Upper Egypt, is merely a female form of Ammon, and her name has no connection with that of A.

AME'RICA, one of the four quarters of the globe; being smaller than Asia, but larger, perhaps, than both Europe and Africa taken together. It is the only one of the four main divisions of the land that is washed by all the four great oceans—the Northern, the Atlantic, the Southern, and the Pacific.

If Tierra del Fuego and Greenland are included—as ought to be done on geological grounds—A. occupies about 150° of long., and about 135° of lat. Speaking generally, its extreme length may be said to be on a meridian, and its extreme breadth on a parallel—facts which, in the light of analogy, look more like a law than an accident. As the map will shew, similar coincidences occur in South A. by itself; in Africa, in Europe, in Asia, and in Australia. As between Asia and A., moreover, it deserves to be noticed that the meridional semicircles, along which run their respective lengths, form, with an interval of 180°, one and the same meridional circle.

Like the old continent, A. has been divided by nature into two peninsulas—Darien and Suez being the isthmuses, while South A. corresponds with Africa, and North A. with Asia and Europe. Even to this extent, however, the resemblance is by no means close. In the new world, the whole of the lower peninsula is to the south of the whole of the upper one, while Asia overlaps half the latitude, and more than half the magnitude, of Africa.

Of the northern half of A., the southern section, on account of essential differences in character and appearance, is in general contemplated by itself under the name of Central A.—the most convenient limit, perhaps, being a line drawn from the mouth of Rio Bravo del Norte to the lower end of peninsular California; and this line, besides its geographical propriety on both coasts, has the recommendation of marking, on the nearer coast, the international boundary of the United States and Mexico. A., it is to be observed, has a political sign as well as a physical one, comprising, in th sense, the comparatively small states Mexico and New Granada—Guatemala, H San Salvador, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua.

Physically, however, these three subdi A. may be regarded as one, being k the west side by a backbone, as it tains, which, under various names aspects, stretches from the extreme so Horn to nearly the extreme north at the Mackenzie. To this mountain-syst have occasion to refer under the di ANDES, CORDILLERAS OF CENTRAL MOUNTAINS, restricting ourselves at t accordance with the general aim of such features of the entire ch come under our notice in c quakes, volcanoes, climate, or with regard to this article generally, being A. as a whole, we shall, as seldom little as possible, anticipate details, whi anticipated here, must still be re respective heads of their proper loc

In thus treating of A., we its *earthquakes and vol graphy*, its *history*—co its *colonisation*, annals of any individual state—and, *geology*, *botany*, and *zoology*.

The *earthquakes and volcanoes* of A. found chiefly in the backbone of mentioned. In South A. they exclusively so found, being confined to th proper, that skirt the Pacific, and to th zuelan spur or branch of the main ra same remark may be applied to Central North A., the energy which produces b of phenomena appears to have followed coast, than the continuous chain which gradually from it—earthqual the maritime towns of U canoes having left thei islands of Russian A. to have travelled from north to south alo having exhausted itself in its more an and this view derives support fr formation of the Sandwich Islan nearly as possible parallel w A., between Behring's On this interesting subj George Simpson's *Overland Journey*. group appears to have been thrown deep by volcanic action advancing from west to the south-east, and increasing advanced; so that, while island ros each grew at once in height and in bre to the intensity of the power that hea from the waters. Thus Bird Island, a taking its name from its only inha considered as the germ of the archipe fruits of a submarine energy that kindling its fires; while the other links in Kauai, Woahoo, Mowee, and Hawaii. not as I have just mentioned, at once elevation, but also present. as t less evidence of antiqu ing proportions of proof the more co whole group und of gifts of years and ages and the visible laboratories of the which are scattered over the are the same view: the crater are all on Hawaii; and e

uth-easterly of its three great safety-valves, ars living testimony to the creative impulse called the whole chain into existence, and , too. only through its lateral volcano of , v h. besides itself looking to the east, b. dual advance of subsidiary out- ...rn declivities, to be rolling the ... of its strength—peradventure there slands—under the bed of the ocean.'

...and comparing A. with the older con- ...e must contrast not east and west with r, but west with west, and east with east— Newfoundland with England, nor British with Kamtchatka, but Kamtchatka ...foundland, and England with British . Such a comparison shews that the ... lies not, as is often assumed, between ... continents, but between the opposite f either continent within itself. For instance, , in Labrador, the mean temperature is 7° r freezing; while at Archangel, in Russian 12° above freezing. This difference of 19° ... and west coasts of the New World, ... le less than the difference between ... ... the New, and the west coast of the ... erature of Gottenburg, in Sweden, as ... than that of Nain. It is to be d, hov...ver, that this difference between the coasts of the two continents diminishes as ed southwards. New York is only 7° colder ples; and Florida has the same temperature

stration of the contrast between the east and ts of A., we are told, by the traveller already at the mouth of the Columbia River, ; half of December presented one deluge after another from the south-east, this winding up on the 16th of the month of thunder and lightning; 'while, to ... ...ference of climate between the two the continent, the good folks of Montreal, occupying a lower parallel than ourselves, ighing it merrily through the clearest and atmospheres.' Nor is the difference, accord- he same authority, less palpable in the old t than in the new. 'To place in the most light the contrast in point of climate between site shores of the old continent, Kamtchatka British Isles may be said, with sufficient for this purpose, to lie in the same latitudes, resent the same area, and even to occupy s position with respect to the proximity of ... yet, while the British Isles, with but aid, feed at least 25,000,000 inhabitants, ... with the help of extraneous supplies, prevent its population of 4000 souls from

-hatever influences may be common to ates of both continents, the climate of A. ct to two peculiar influences—that con- prolongation southward, and its backbone tains. With respect to the former point, A. s at least 20° further southward than Africa more than half the interval between the nd antarctic ice; so that the southern which, in summer, bring freshness and to the Cape of Good Hope, waft cold and to Cape Horn. Two of Cook's people, on voyage, were frozen to death in Tierra del owards the end of January—in a month ading with our July, and in a latitude the that of Edinburgh. The backbone of moun- gain, that other point which peculiarly the climate of A., does its work in two ughout almost its entire course, its height passage of the clouds and rains. Within and about the tropics, these are borne from the east by the trades; in the more temperate regions, they are brought from the west by the prevailing counter-currents of air. But in either case, the windward slope of the mountain barrier is a fertile garden, the leeward slope a barren desert. In the more central plateaus, again, of Quito and Mexico, the various terraces present as many climates, and bring together, under the same parallel, all the temperatures and energies of nature.

But there exist, more particularly in North A., peculiarities of climate which cannot, perhaps, be referred to any known cause. On the opposite sides, for instance, of the great water-shed between the Gulf of Mexico and Hudson's Bay, antagonistic results are said to shew themselves in winter. On the northern side, the climate is understood to improve as one advances westward, the Saskatchewan, though in a considerably higher latitude, opening earlier in spring than the St Lawrence; whereas, on the southern side, ice forms in New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi, strong enough to bear half-grown boys, a thing wholly unprecedented on the corresponding parallel of the Atlantic shore. Even in summer, at least on the northern side of the water-shed in question, something of a similar change of climate has been observed, for maize, which, in Lower Canada, is a precarious crop, even on the international line of 45°, regularly ripens, in Red River settlement, which, besides 5° more of latitude, is at least 1000 feet higher above the level of the sea.

With respect to that portion of A. which is best known, a popular misapprehension generally prevails as to the steadiness of its climate in any given season of the year. The Canadian summer, for instance, is supposed to be an unbroken period of tropical heat; and the Canadian winter to be, in its turn, an unbroken period of hyperborean cold. Now, in both directions, this is a great mistake. The summer of British A. is often tropical, and its winter often hyperborean, the extreme ranges of the thermometer, according to the experience of credible informants in localities to the south of London, sometimes being, in one and the same year, 104° F. above zero, and 52° below it. But this difference of 156°, which is measured probably by an interval of six months, is far less remarkable than the differences which a few days may bring forth. The highest range occurred within four days after parlour-fires had been given up; and the lowest fell on a day which, a year or so before, had been marked by a powerful thaw. In the city of Montreal itself, 36 hours, or less, have sometimes exhibited a difference, up or down, of 60° F. in winter; and even in summer, whether in Lower Canada or in the north-west, one can seldom reckon on any other month than July as free from night-frosts. In this respect, the Canadian climate may be taken as a sample of the climate of North A. in general, extreme ranges of temperature, as prevailing respectively in summer and winter, being naturally attended by more or less considerable vicissitudes in each individual season.

In the tropical regions, however, of A., whether Central or Southern, a singular uniformity of temperature does exist on each of the various terraces of the mountain chain. The same parallel, as has been already mentioned, presents at once the torrid, the temperate, and the frigid zones. Such a view of the matter, however, is, to a certain extent, deceptive, for in not one of the three cases are the vicissitudes of the respective zones, properly so called, found to shew themselves. Each level is said to be so steady in its temperature as to enfeeble and enervate the inhabitants through the monotony even of that which is in itself good; and in such cases, the

salutary prescription is to ascend or to descend, for a time, from one terrace to another.

Hydrography.—With the backbone of mountains as the principal water-shed of A., the rivers on opposite sides of the continent are still more different than the climates. Excepting in Central A., the difference in question is enormous. Even in North A., where it is less than in South A., the contrast is sufficiently striking. On the west side of the Rocky Mountains, the only streams worthy of notice in such a summary as this are the Colorado, which flows into the head of the Gulf of California; the Sacramento, which enters the harbour of San Francisco; and the Columbia, which empties itself into the open ocean—three rivers which, if compared with the waters of the opposite coast, are, in practical value, inferior singly to the Hudson, and collectively to the Rio Bravo del Norte. On the east side, however, there exist rivers to which the Rio Bravo del Norte and the Hudson are but as brooks. To begin with the extreme north: the Mackenzie, besides draining a large basin on its own side of the Rocky Mountains, draws from beyond them two of its principal feeders, the Peace and the Liarde, burying itself, however, under the perennial ices of the Arctic Ocean. Passing, without further notice, the Coppermine and the Fish River, of both which the interest is purely historical in connection with arctic discovery, we come to the Nelson, which brings down to Hudson's Bay the Winnipeg and the Red River, two streams bordering respectively on the head-waters of the St Lawrence and the Mississippi, and also the two branches of the Saskatchewan, which all but touch the sources of the Columbia and the Missouri. Next in order is that long alternation of mighty river and mightier lake—that reservoir of half the life-blood of the earth—which, under the name of the St Lawrence, gradually becomes a sea. South of the St Lawrence, along the coast, we meet the Atlantic streams of New Brunswick and the United States, all of them valuable beyond their magnitude, and most of them connected, more or less closely, with the Alleghanies—the St John, the Penobscot, the Connecticut, the Hudson, the Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Potomac. Round into the Gulf of Mexico, and we reach, besides many second-rate rivers in either direction, perchance the most important stream on the face of the globe—a stream which, after uniting the Mississippi and the Missouri under the name of the former, receives on the right the Arkansas and the Red River, and on the left the Ohio, enriched, as it is, with the tributes of the Wabash and the Tennessee.

In South A., again, the difference between east and west is still more remarkable. On the west, the Guayaquil, the only stream worth mentioning, is not to be compared even with the rivers that flow from the subordinate ranges of Brazil or Guiana; while, on the east, the Andes send down, besides the Magdalena flowing into the Caribbean Sea, the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Plata, into the open ocean across the almost entire breadth of the continent—three networks of inland navigation, which, under the head of the Amazon (q. v.), we have already shewn to be virtually one, and, beyond that, to be virtually linked with the Essequibo of British Guiana.

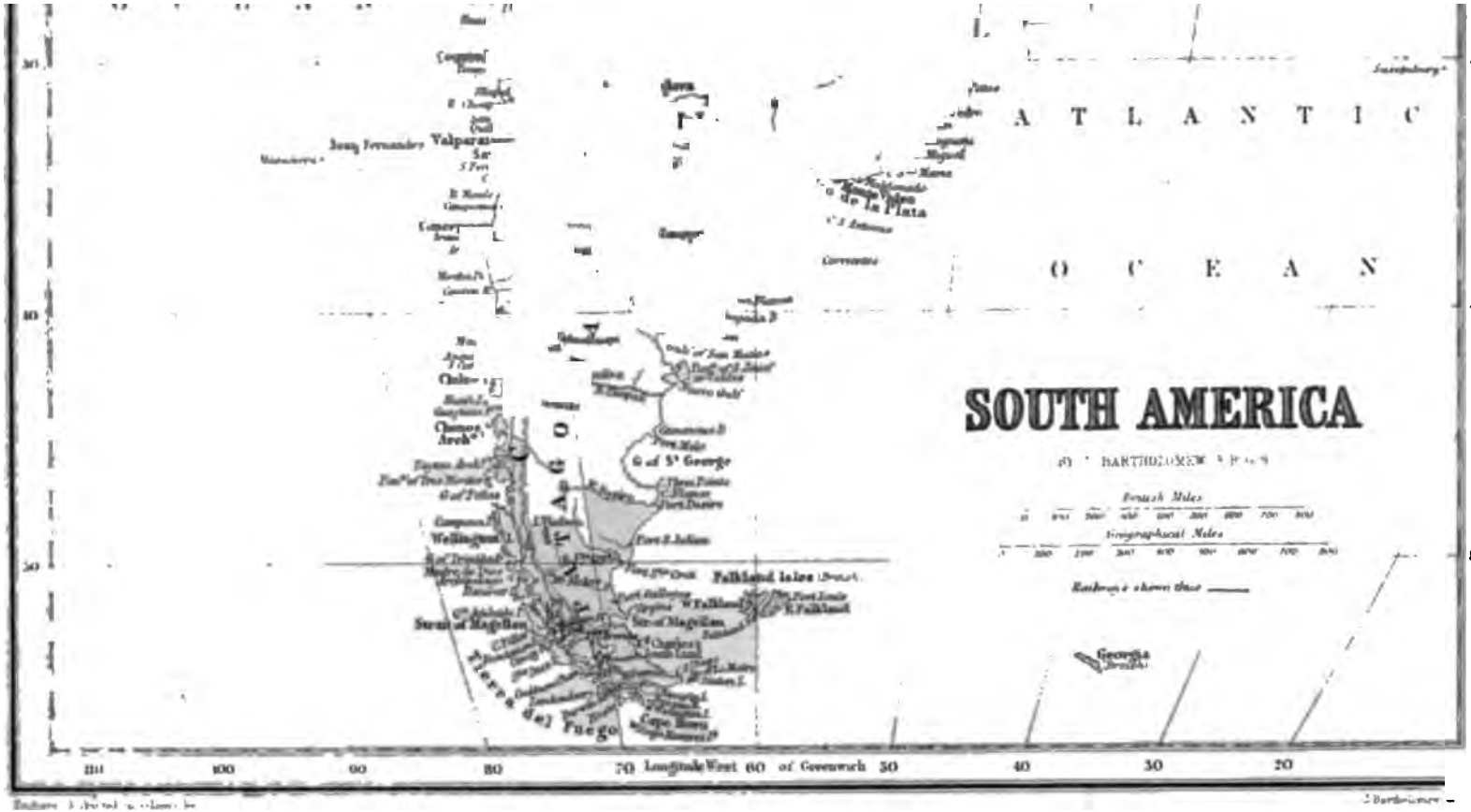
Nor will the disparity between the two coasts of the continent be less striking, if the harbours are considered as well as rivers, the external outlets as well as internal channels. On the Pacific, South A. possesses, to the north of Chili, only two ports entitled to the name, Panama and the Guayaquil already mentioned; while, on the same coast, North A., along a line of 3000 miles up to British Columbia, presents only five safe and convenient havens—Acapulco, Mazatlan, Magdalena Bay, San Diego, and San Francisco. But the Atlantic side presents a contrast to which no language can do justice. To take the divisions as they come: Newfoundland has its St John's, Cape Breton its Louisburg, Nova Scotia its Halifax, New Brunswick its St Andrews, Maine its Portland, New Hampshire its Portsmouth, Massachusetts its Boston, Connecticut its Newhaven, Rhode Island its Newport, and so on. Nor is this all. While fully a third part of the rivers of Europe and Asia are lost to the commerce of the world at large in the frozen seas of the north, or in such land-locked pools as the Aral and the Caspian, all the considerable rivers of A., with the Mackenzie as the only exception, are, more or less, channels of communication between the open ocean and the interior. To take the three grandest examples—The Amazon, with a basin estimated to contain 1,500,000 square miles, is navigable for steam-vessels up every one of its main branches, nearly to the eastern foot of the Andes; thus comprising several available lines of 2500 miles each, and presenting, as a whole, a network of such lines to the amount of at least ten times that length. The Mississippi, again, navigable as it is at once to the Alleghanies and to the Rocky Mountains, and between them, more to the north, as far as the Falls of St Anthony, has been computed to afford to the steam-vessel an uninterrupted career of 36,000 miles. But perhaps the St Lawrence, if less extensive, is more marvellous still. Owing to British improvements of its channel, New York and Pennsylvania have virtually a seaboard on their inland shores; while Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, accessible to ships from the Gulf of St Lawrence by the lakes, and from the Gulf of Mexico by the Mississippi, far eclipse, in the heart of a continent, the peculiar boast of ancient Corinth as the mart of two seas.

To append a few subordinate examples: nearly all the considerable rivers along the coast between the St Lawrence and the Mississippi possess far more than an average value, in proportion to their lengths, as arteries of internal communication. The Atlantic slope of the Alleghanies, in particular, presents, as a whole, perhaps twice as many facilities in this way as any other region of equal extent on the face of the earth—facilities, too, which have been not less zealously and successfully improved than those of the St Lawrence. The Hudson has been, at vast expense, and with indomitable energy, connected with the basin of the St Lawrence at three points—on Lake Erie, on Lake Ontario, and on Lake Champlain; and the Susquehanna has been in like manner connected with the basin of the Mississippi by a canal which terminates at Pittsburg on the Ohio.

But in one part of A., still smaller streams than these last are entitled to particular attention. We allude to those streams, five in number, which promise to vie with each other in connecting together the Pacific and the Atlantic Oceans.

The five rivers in question form parts of three different routes. The Atrato of the Atlantic side co-operates with the San Juan of the opposite coast a little below the Isthmus of Darien; the San Juan of the Caribbean Sea, with the lake of Nicaragua, and with the smaller lake of Leon more to the westward; and, lastly, the Coatzacoalcos of the Gulf of Mexico, with the Tehuantepec of the bay of its own name.

To begin with the *first* route: the Atrato and the San Juan flow, in contrary directions, through the slightly undulating country into which the Andes gradually subside as they approach the Isthmus. Their head-waters are said to be near to each other, the Atrato being already navigable for small vessels, and the San Juan, manifestly a considerable stream,



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entering the sea by several mouths, after a course of 150 miles. With such streams separated by such a country, a ship-channel between the two oceans does not by any means appear to be impracticable. Next, as to the *second* route, which, as well as the third, is already in actual use as a place of transit: the San Juan itself, about 100 miles long, has a gentle current, which, though in some places impeded by short rapids, is stated to be always navigable throughout for boats of 10 tons, and for much larger vessels to a considerable distance from the sea. Lake Nicaragua, again, said to measure 140 miles by 40, is adapted for ships of any burden, being fifteen fathoms deep. At its west end it receives the Tipitapa from Lake Leon, which, with a length of 35 miles, and a breadth of 15, is only 28 feet higher than itself, or 156 above the level of the Pacific. Two schemes seem to be agitated with respect to the more westerly portion of the route—one scheme proposing to avail itself of Lake Leon, and the other to carry the ship-canal at once from Lake Nicaragua. Lastly, as to the *third* route, where the intervening land, actually designated as an isthmus, is only 130 miles wide: the Coatzacoalcos alone is said to traverse nearly the entire breadth; while the Tehuantepec, which gives name to the isthmus, goes far to complete what the other has begun.

The practical value of the enterprise of connecting by navigation the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans is already evidenced by the fact, that, in the face of the competition of the last two routes, the Panama Railroad is perhaps the most profitable undertaking of the kind in the new world. In fact, the completion of any one of those three routes for sea-going ships, would be to realise Columbus's idea of a western passage to the East.

Of the *Lakes* of A. a brief notice will be sufficient. In North A., besides the vast reservoirs of the St Lawrence, a line drawn north-west from the centre of Lake Superior, appears, on the face of the map, to intersect a kindred series—Lake Winipeg, Lake Athabasca, Great Slave Lake, and Great Bear Lake—the first of the four being connected with the Nelson, and the remaining three with the Mackenzie. It may not be out of place to observe, that the general direction indicated is pretty nearly parallel with the Pacific coast, just as the general direction of the St Lawrence from the great bend at the head of Lake Erie is pretty nearly parallel with the Atlantic shores. As to the secondary lakes of North-west A., their name is legion, almost every stream, whether large or small, expanding itself here and there vastly beyond its average width, and being, as it were, a St Lawrence in miniature. One lake, or rather pond, is too singular to be overlooked. On the Athabasca Pass of the Rocky Mountains, where the road, little better than a succession of glaciers, runs through a region of perpetual snow, a small body of water, named by the Hudson's Bay Company's voyageurs as the 'Committee's Punch-bowl,' sends its tribute from one end to the Columbia, and from the other to the Mackenzie. To proceed southwards along the continent, Central A. abounds in lakes. The Leon and the Nicaragua have been already noticed. But such bodies of water are perhaps most numerous on the table-land of Mexico, or as it is often termed, the plateau of Analuac. The largest of these is Chapala, estimated to contain 1300 square miles—an area which, however insignificant in comparison with the great lakes of the north, is more than equivalent to a circle of 40 miles in diameter. Many of these reservoirs of the table-land have no outlet. Such is the case with the various lakes of the valley of Mexico, enclosed as they are by mountains at a height of 7471 feet above the sea-level. Of the same description, too, is the Lake of Titicaca, decidedly the largest in South A. Raised by the table-land of Peru and Bolivia to a height of 12,846 feet, it yet has no outlet to the sea; for the Desaguadero, which empties it, loses itself in the apparently land-locked Lake Uros to the southward. Of this great body of water, the magnitude is not so well ascertained as its altitude. Besides such round numbers as 16,000 and 5000 square miles, which are never meant to be accurate, one is perplexed to meet statements so minute, and yet so discordant, as 4032 and 2225 square miles. But even the lowest estimate is more than equivalent to a square of 47 miles a side—an area which, with a depth ranging up to 120 fathoms, exceeds, perhaps, anything to be found to the south of the basin of the St Lawrence.

The vast advantage in point of fluvial communication possessed by the new world over the old, has already been adverted to. There is, however, a hydrographical feature in which one of the grand divisions of the eastern continent is decidedly superior to A. The coast-line of Europe, in proportion to extent of surface, is incomparably longer than that of even the northern half of the western continent. This is at once apparent on glancing at the two maps. It is surely a suggestive fact, that the two portions of the earth which are best fitted for human intercourse, are also hydrographically so connected as to be beyond comparison the most accessible to each other. The dividing sea, besides being itself physically by far the narrower of the two intercontinental oceans, is virtually narrowed still more by its winds and its currents. Along a belt of about 30° on either side of the equator, the easterly trade with its attendant current wafts the voyager westward from Africa; while above that belt, the reaction, strengthened and accelerated by the peculiar formation of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, is ready to carry him round again to Europe, under the double pressure of the Florida stream and its generally prevailing breezes from the south-west. Nor yet can the hydrographical relations of A. with Asia be denied their proportion of significance and influence, linked as the two continents are by Behring's Strait, and twice bridged as is their ocean, first by the Aleutian Isles—a continuation of the Kuriles and Japan—and then by the Polynesian clusters, that series of offshoots, as it were, from the Indian Archipelago.

History.—We propose to glance at this under the three heads of Aboriginal Ages, Discovery, and Colonisation.

As to the *Aboriginal Ages*, there arises a question, too interesting to be overlooked, and yet too doubtful to be solved, as to the origin of the native tribes and peoples of A. Without prejudicing the question (which will be considered under INDIANS) whether the aboriginal inhabitants of A. are to be considered, in an ethnological point of view, as substantially of one stock, it appears highly probable that they did not all spring from one and the same primeval hand of adventurers; in other words, that different colonies, voluntary or involuntary, must have reached the new continent at different times. This view, to say nothing of the direct testimony of local traditions, seems to be in itself more than probable, when we consider that, through the length and breadth of the universal ocean, even the most insignificant specks of land had each received, at least, one influx of human wanderers. But, beyond such probabilities, and such traditions, the view in question is strengthened by facts, which it is difficult otherwise to explain—by diversities of language, by different degrees, or kinds, of civilisation, and, above all, by monuments, architectural or otherwise, of

defunct races of bygone days. On this supposition, whence came the successive shoals of invaders? To this question no direct answer can be given. We can only scan the various routes by which, previously to what we call the discovery of A., the old world was most likely to people the American continent. To begin with the natural routes on the side of the Pacific—Behring's Strait, the Aleutian Isles, and the Polynesian Archipelagoes—we can hardly conceive anything but barbarism having been conducted to A. by any one of them. The country which stretches back from Behring's Strait to the Kolyma, may be asserted to be, without exception, the most inhospitable portion even of Siberia; and, moreover, the strait itself has more probably been a channel of migration from America than from Asia, the Tchuktchi of the latter regarding themselves rather as a branch, than as the stem, of the Tchuktchi of the former. With respect, again, both to the Aleutian Isles and the Polynesian Archipelagoes, the successive stepping-stones in either series, instead of being presumed to have been so many halts for Asiatic Columbuses and Magellans, must rather be viewed as each a mother-country to a new colony, as each a point of departure for a fresh swarm. Thus would the ever-aggravating blight of isolation—exemplified even in the old world among the Laplanders, the Kamtchadales, and the Hottentots—prepare at each remove a deeper and deeper barbarism to land at last on the western shores of A. Further, if civilisation, as certainly appears to have been the case, ever did find its way to A., it must have come directly and immediately from the old world, and that under circumstances and conditions of by no means a favourable character. In remote times, such accidental, or, to speak more correctly, unintentional visits of Europeans and Asiatics may have occurred, as we know to have actually taken place in more modern days. Japanese junks have repeatedly been driven, by stress of weather, across the Pacific to the new world; and again, on the Atlantic, the easterly trades, within eight years after Columbus's earliest voyage, wafted the unconscious Portuguese to Brazil, during their second voyage to India—the very first, in fact, which they had attempted by steering clear of the headlands of Africa. Such incidents, however frequently they might have happened, were much more likely to civilise existing communities than to found new ones; and it is at least a curious fact, that the only aboriginal nations which could be regarded as in any sense civilised at the date of the Spanish conquest, pointed in their traditions to such events as we have endeavoured to describe. Mexico and Peru had each had its Cecrops, or semi-divine civiliser—the former referring him to the east across the Atlantic, and the latter to the west, across the Pacific. How far such hypotheses may account for the admitted facts, we are not left altogether to conjecture. Isolated individuals of our own nation have enabled us to bring the light of the present to bear on the past. When we consider what William Adams achieved in Japan, two hundred years ago, and what John Young and James Brooke have, more recently, effected in the Sandwich Islands and in Borneo, we can perhaps the more easily understand certain undeniable traces and traditions of aboriginal civilisation.

Discovery.—Whatever may have been the kind and degree of aboriginal civilisation, A. was not destined to be the perpetual inheritance of the red man. New actors were to appear on the scene, before whom the old possessors were in a great measure to pass away.

Previously to the times of Columbus, Europeans had certainly visited A. The Scandinavians, after having colonised Iceland in 875 A.D., and Greenland in 983, had, by the year 1000, discovered A. as far down as 41° 30′ N. lat., a point near to New Bedford, in the state of Massachusetts. These Scandinavians afterwards settled in the neighbourhood—the mother-country, most probably through the intervention of Iceland and Greenland, maintaining an intercourse with the colony down to the 14th c. But these enterprises do not appear to have left any special impress on the character or prospects of the new continent, being more akin, perhaps, to similar incidents of yet earlier ages, than to the long-meditated and well-matured scheme of the illustrious Genoese. Subsequently to the Scandinavian discovery, and previous to that of Columbus, A. is believed by some to have been visited by a Welsh prince. In Cardoc's *Historie of Cambria* it is stated that Madoc, son of Owen Gwynnedd, prince of Wales, set sail westward in 1170 with a small fleet, and after a voyage of several weeks, landed in a region totally different both in its inhabitants and productions from Europe. Madoc is supposed to have reached the coast of Virginia. Neither this, however, if true, nor the earlier Scandinavian expeditions, can be said even to have formed a connecting-link between the A. of the red man and the A. of his white brother. Even if the northmen had possessed resources worthy of their heroic courage, the old world was not yet ripe for the appropriation of the new.

At the end of the 15th c., however, science and politics were alike strengthening Europe for its task. The mariner's compass and the astrolabe had facilitated long voyages out of sight of land; while, in almost every country of Christendom, various causes were consolidating government, and promoting the growth of population—a position which derives, perhaps, its best illustration from the fact that the capture of Granada—the last foothold of the Moslem in Spain—preceded by only a few months the discovery of A.

Columbus (q. v) set out on his great enterprise to discover A. under the patronage of the crown of Spain, on Friday, the 3d of August 1492; at which date, properly speaking, begins the deeply interesting history of A. Had the Atlantic been broader, or had not the easterly trades wafted Columbus almost on a parallel from the Canaries to the Bahamas, he must have failed in his bold attempt; and, in fact, those same easterly trades, assisted by a still nearer approach of the two continents, speedily proved their own value in this respect by carrying the Portuguese, without their own consent, to the shores of Brazil. Nay, Columbus's discovery of A., if not so accidental, was quite as unintentional as that of the Portuguese. It was towards the East that his hopes directed his western course, hopes whose supposed fulfilment still lives in the misapplication to the new world of the terms Indian and Indies. Much of our subsequent knowledge of America has been owing to the same desire of reaching the E. Indies that led to its discovery. The gorgeous East was the aim alike of Davis, Baffin, and Hudson at the north, and of Magellan, Schouten, and Lemaire at the south, to say nothing of the earlier enterprise of Balboa on the Isthmus of Darien; while, under a similar impulse, the French of Canada were ascending lake after lake as nature's ready-made highway to the same goal. Even to more recent times may these remarks be applied. While the eastern coasts of Africa, and the upper shores of Asia, as not bearing on the grand question of oriental traffic, were comparatively neglected and forgotten, our own Cook and Vancouver, in quest of a passage

between the two oceans, surveyed every nook and cranny of A. from Columbia River to Behring's Strait. Nor yet have the aspirations of Columbus and his noble band of successors and imitators been altogether disappointed. That same continent which, in their case, barred a westward advance along nearly the whole interval between the arctic and antarctic circles, has to us already become, or is gradually becoming, more than a substitute for the ocean which it was found so extensively to displace. By means of the railway across the Isthmus of Panama, the Caribbean Sea, whether for passengers or for goods, is virtually nearer to the Pacific than an open channel could have rendered it to any sea-going vessels. Nor is it merely across the scanty span of Central A. that art is outstripping nature in the race. For, to take one instance, the Grand Trunk Railway runs a steeple-chase over every obstacle, St Lawrence not excepted, for 1000 miles from the Atlantic to Lake Huron, fully one-third of the entire distance to be accomplished. Since October 11, 1492, the date of Columbus's first discovery, little more than three and a half centuries have elapsed; and if we look at the future in the light of the past, it seems not unreasonable to suppose, that, by 1892, the locomotive will, within three days, connect together oceans physically as distant from each other as are the Bahamas from the Canaries.

But Columbus found something better than what he himself or his successors and imitators looked for. He had discovered a land which, besides eclipsing India in the richness and variety of its commerce, was to confer on Europe a still more solid benefit. Colonisation, which, since the early ages of Greece, had slumbered for 2000 years, received an impetus, which, after building up empires in the West, was to build up others in an East richer far than that which was so long the loadstar of European navigators—an east where, almost without a metaphor, the grass was to be wool, and the stones to be gold.

The first-fruits of Columbus's enterprise were the Bahamas, Watling's Island probably being the spot where he landed on the 11th of October 1492. Without attempting, in so summary a sketch as this, to distinguish the results of each of his four voyages from each other, it may be sufficient to state that this great man, besides Hispaniola, or St Domingo, Cuba, Jamaica, and others of the Antilles, discovered and explored Central A. from Honduras southward along the coast of Veragua, and South A. from the mouths of the Orinoco westward, as far as Margarita. It was on this last-mentioned scene of his operations that he was followed by Hojeda, whose pilot, AmerigoVespucci (q. v.), has been allowed to wrest from Columbus the glory of giving his name to the new world. Within twenty years after Columbus's first discovery, Ponce de Leon discovered Florida; and, what was certainly of far more consequence, he ascertained that, through the strait which separated that peninsula from the Bahamas, there constantly ran a strong current to the north-east. In 1513, again, just one year later, Vasco Nunez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Darien to the Great South Sea, or, as it was afterwards named, the Pacific Ocean. About thirteen years before this last event, almost immediately after Columbus's own continental explorations, the interval left between his most southerly point from Honduras, and his most westerly point from the Orinoco, was, in a great measure, filled up by the voyage of Bastidas. To the south, again, of the Orinoco, Pinzon and Solis sailed along the continent down to 40° S lat., between the years 1500 and 1514. The former, after anticipating, by a few months, the Portuguese on the shores of Brazil, had seen the Amazon; and the latter, sent out for the express purpose of entering, if possible, Balboa's Great South Sea, found his way into the La Plata or Plate, being there slain by the neighbouring natives. Moreover, to return to the northward, by the year 1519, different navigators had between them completed the examination of the Gulf of Mexico. Within twenty-seven years, therefore, after Columbus's first departure from Spain, the eastern shores of South and Central A. had been almost continuously explored by the Spaniards down to within 15° of the southern extremity of the continent.

Nor had other nations been idle in the north. The Cabots, on behalf of England, had discovered Newfoundland, and portions of the adjacent continent, in 1497. In 1500, the Portuguese, under the Cortereals, sailed along the coast of Labrador nearly up to Hudson's Bay, having, it is supposed, entered the Gulf of St Lawrence, long known among them as the Gulf of the Two Brothers. Thus gradually there grew up the opinion, since proved to have been the true and sound one, that any practicable passage between the two oceans must be looked for towards the south of the Plate. Accordingly, in 1519, Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, undertook the voyage in which was discovered the strait that bears his name—a voyage which furnished the first instance of the circumnavigation of the globe. Thus there remained little to be done, unless in the extreme north and the extreme south. In the extreme south, Schouten, a Dutch navigator, discovered, in 1610, the passage round Cape Horn; while, six years thereafter, Lemaire, a mariner of the same nation, passed through the strait of his own name between Staten Land and Tierra del Fuego. Towards the north, again, the French and English divided the labours and honours of the enterprise between them. Scarcely had Magellan's companions—for he had himself been killed—returned to Europe, when Verazzano, under the auspices of Francis I. of France, sailed along what are now the Atlantic shores of the United States, thereby connecting the discoveries of the Cabots with those of Ponce de Leon; and again, about ten years later, Jacques Cartier, in the service also of the same prince, explored the gulf and river of St Lawrence, penetrating as far to the westward as the island of Montreal. In the extreme north, however, the English may be said to have been without a rival. It is unnecessary, in this summary sketch, to do more than mention names which tell their own story on every map. Davis, Baffin, Lancaster, and Hudson. (See these Heads.)

To pass now to the western coast of A. The conquerors of Mexico and Peru effected, in a few years, more perhaps than they left behind them for future ages to effect, ranging along the coast from the southern extremity of Chili to the peninsula and Gulf of California. Beyond Lower California, the only direction in which there was much to do, the English Drake, whose voyage took place in 1578, divided with the Spaniards the credit of having discovered Upper California. For nearly two centuries, excepting the half-fabulous voyages of Fonte and Fuca, the Spaniards and the English alike slumbered over their task; and it was not till towards the close of the last century, that Cook and Vancouver co-operated with Spanish and American navigators in dispelling the mystery that had so long hung over the north-west coast of A.

To advert to *inland* discoveries: As early as 1537, within six years after the landing of Pizarro in Peru, and within two after the founding of Buenos Ayres, the Spaniards met each other on the eastern borders of Peru, from the opposite shores of the continent; and, in 1540, within three years more, they sent forth that eastward expedition which ended

in Orellana's exploration of the Amazon, from its source to its mouth. In the northern half of the continent, similar enterprises were of a much later date. It was in 1682 that the French first descended the Mississippi; it was in 1771 that Hearne traversed the wilderness from Hudson's Bay to the mouth of the Coppermine; and it was respectively in 1789 and 1793 that Alexander Mackenzie reached the mouth of the river that bears his name, and passed through what is now British Columbia, to the shores of the Pacific Ocean.

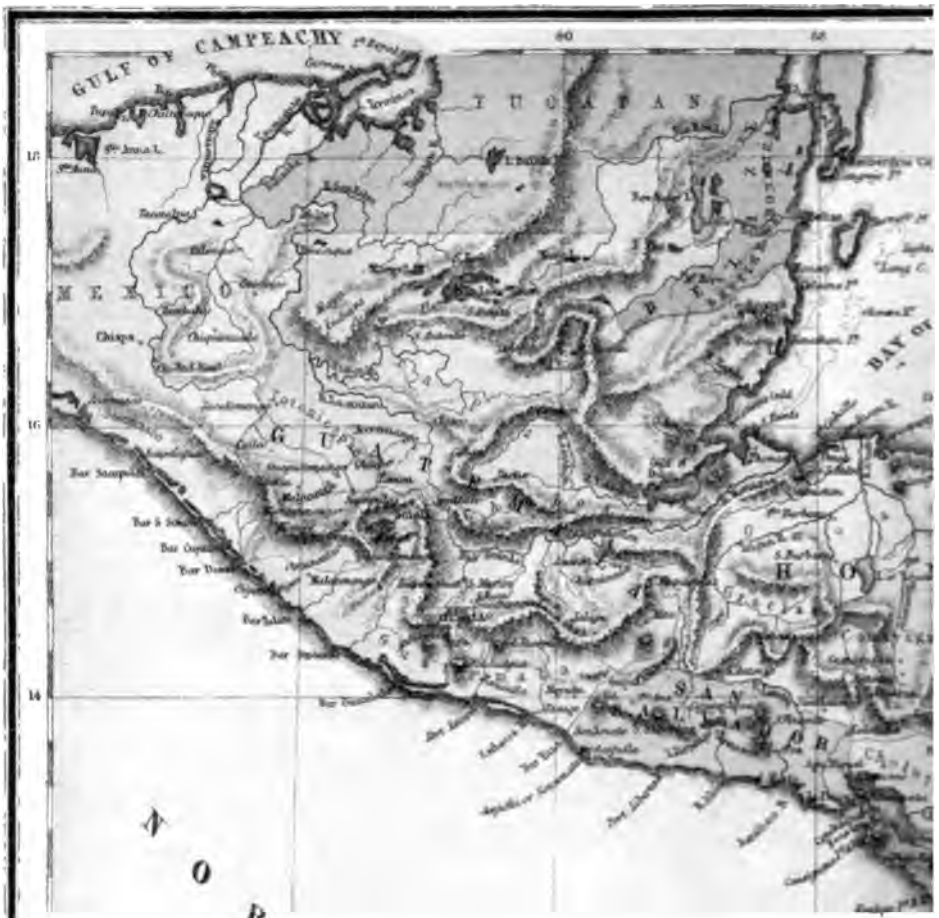
Colonisation.—Among the European powers that colonised A., the most prominent were Spain, Portugal, France, and England.

Spain, of course, took the lead, having, with few exceptions, accomplished its task before any rival state had entered on its share of the work. In one respect, its colonies differed from all others on the new continent. Spain alone came in contact with civilisation, such as it was among the aborigines; and, accordingly, in the cases of Mexico and Peru, colonisation required to be preceded by something like regular war and formal conquest. But, notwithstanding this peculiar obstacle, the colonies of Spain grew at first with a rapidity which, perhaps, has scarcely found its parallel even in the somewhat congenial case of Australia. As an illustration of this—for the statement needs no proof—it was colonial resources that armed Cortes and Pizarro for their respective enterprises. Without the direct and immediate aid, in either instance, of the old country, Cuba, within twenty-seven years after the first discovery, equipped the conquerors of Mexico; while the town of Panama, only twelve years later, sent forth the adventurers that were to subjugate Peru. So unexampled a degree of vigour and vitality continued to advance in Spain's transatlantic possessions, precisely while they were so organised and conducted as to afford scope to individual ambition. Never, perhaps, was this scope sufficiently free and full, for, even from the beginning, government often embarrassed and blighted the fairest schemes by its jealous and suspicious interference. But, for a time, it generally found its account in tolerating the unrestricted liberty, or licence, of its instruments. It was, therefore, only after law and order were established, and the original actors had disappeared from the scene, that the authorities of the mother-country stereotyped, as it were, their despotism along the length and breadth of every colony. From that moment, vigour and vitality were succeeded by stagnation and torpor. Still, with such elements of prosperity on every side—above the earth and below it—material interests could not fail to flourish. But the soul had fled; the body alone remained behind. Under these circumstances, Spain, though continuing to claim the entire continent to the north, more especially on the Pacific, did very little to enforce its pretensions. To this remark, New Mexico and Upper California were the only exceptions. It was not before 1594 that New Mexico was at all occupied; and it was not till a century later that the province, after ten years of bush-fighting, was finally subdued; while it was only in 1767 that the Franciscans, on behalf of Spain, took possession of Upper California. But Spain never abandoned the hope of extending its dominions towards the north-west coast. As late as 1790, that power, while restoring Nootka Sound, and acknowledging England's right of planting other settlements, took the precaution, useless as it proved, of expressly reserving a similar right to itself; and it was only in 1819, nearly thirty years later, that Spain formally ceded to the United States all its claims to the coast above the parallel of 42. See further under the separate head of AMERICA, SPANISH.

The efforts of Portugal, in the cause of American colonisation, were at first less energetic than those of Spain. In fact, Portugal, which had doubled the Cape of Good Hope in the year 1497, was so zealously engaged in the East as to allow an age to elapse before sending any colony to Brazil. The discovery of the country took place in 1500; but its colonisation only in 1531, or rather 1548. Within 32 years thereafter, in 1580, Brazil, at the same time as Portugal itself, was annexed to the Spanish monarchy, soon afterwards falling, in this its new character, partly into the hands of the revolted Hollanders. In 1640, Brazil, as well as Portugal, threw off the Spanish yoke with the help of the Dutch settlers. But the continued presence of the latter retarded the progress of the colony. It was only after their expulsion, that the Portuguese, who had lost nearly everything in India, turned their attention more largely to Brazil. It accordingly became the most flourishing colony, as such, to the south of the English settlements; and, as the refuge of the House of Braganza from French domination, it received, about fifty years ago, an impetus which has rendered it, as an independent state, the most flourishing power of Southern A.

France, as the claimant to the basins of the St Lawrence and the Mississippi, may be said rather to have pitched camps than to have planted colonies in those vast possessions. She regarded A. chiefly as a supplementary battle-field for England and herself. Every French settlement was but an inert part of a political machine, powerful, indeed, but unwieldy, expensive, and unproductive. The government was everything, and the individual subject was nothing. Hence, neither Louisiana nor Canada at all realised our idea of a colony. In corroboration of this may be cited two authentic and official facts. As an encouragement to marriage, rewards and exemptions were held out to the parents of three children; and the erection of a dwelling on a lot of less than forty arpents (about thirty-two acres) was prohibited by a royal ordinance. In 1762, France gave up Canada to England, and, as an indirect concession also to the same power, transferred Louisiana to Spain—events which, singularly enough, did much to facilitate France's grand scheme, the separation from England of her old colonies.

England, the most energetic and successful of all in the work of colonisation, was the last in the field among the four powers already mentioned. Among her continental colonies, to say nothing of Newfoundland, Virginia, the oldest, was established in 1607, just four years after the union of the crowns; and Georgia, the youngest, as late as 1733. With these two exceptions, the remaining eleven were, one and all, founded during that period of civil and religious troubles which, in the mother-country's own history, sent one Stuart to the scaffold, and drove another into exile. In 1620, Massachusetts was occupied by the Puritan fathers; in 1623 and 1631 respectively, New Hampshire and Connecticut were first settled; in 1634, Maryland was granted to Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic nobleman; in 1636, Rhode Island became a refuge from the sectarian intolerance of Massachusetts; in 1653, North Carolina became an offshoot from Virginia; in 1664, New York, New Jersey, and Delaware were taken from the Dutch; in 1670, South Carolina was established; and in 1682, Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn, the Quaker, continuing to be a proprietary government down to the Revolution. In nearly all these cases, the civil and religious liberties for which chiefly the colonists expatriated themselves were secured by liberal, nay, virtually republican charters. Subject only to the appointment of a governor on the part of the crown, every colony was



CENTRAL AMERICA

C A R I B
PANAMA BAY

practically a state within itself; and it is a suggestive fact that the very earliest assertion of legislative superiority on the part of the mother-country was 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 22, which, however, only operated negatively by forbidding every colony to make laws repugnant to those of England. With such aspirations and such institutions, the enterprising inhabitants of a new home could not fail to prosper; while their prosperity was rendered more solid and permanent by the comparative poverty of a region where steady industry, in agriculture or in the fisheries, was, as it were, a necessary of life. Under these circumstances, the germs of political independence were at work long before the year 1765; and it is not merely a probability, but a fact, that the expulsion of the dreaded power of France from Canada and Louisiana, in 1762, was closely connected with the troubles which so soon began.

The colonisation of the West Indies, Guiana included, will be seen at a glance in the appended table of American Governments.

It may be added, in conclusion, that the whole of A. is now in the hands of European races, excepting only the aboriginal Araucania to the south of Chili, and the African republic of Hayti, otherwise known as Hispaniola or St Domingo, the oldest among the colonies of Spain.

American Antiquities.—The architectural remains, to which we have already alluded in connection with a general estimate of aboriginal civilisation, are to be found in each of the grand divisions of the new continent. To begin from the north. That portion of the United States which lies between the Appalachians and the Rocky Mountains, presents in three groups at once the oldest and the rudest monuments of bygone times: the first group extending from the sources of the Alleghany to the waters of the Missouri; the second occupying the Mississippi Valley, vaguely so defined; and the third stretching from South Carolina to Texas. These several groups, apparently with very little difference among themselves, consist of numberless mounds, and circumvallations of earth and stone—1500 of the latter, and 10,000 of the former, being said to stud Ohio alone. The erections themselves range from 5 to 30 feet in height; while the areas enclosed—generally of some symmetrical figure, such as circle or ellipse, rectangular parallelogram or regular polygon—vary from twenty to forty acres, though among a few of greater extent, one in Arkansas is stated to embrace a square mile. The circumvallations, moreover, seem generally to contain the mounds; and sometimes a smaller circumvallation is surrounded by a larger one. Whether these colossal structures were intended for worship or for defence, it is impossible to decide; more probably, however, they were of a military character, provided, as they ordinarily were, with cisterns for water. But, whatever their origin, they derive interest from the analogous fact, that, within the same territorial limits, have been dug up vases of earthenware or copper in elegant forms, pipe-bowls decorated with human heads of the type of the existing aborigines, or with those of birds, &c., domestic utensils, personal ornaments, hatchets of stone, and, lastly, weapons of copper or mica, or shell or obsidian.—The architectural remains of Central and South A. are at once of more modern origin and more elaborate character, and may be roughly compared with the cyclopean ruins in Italy and Greece. Uniformly in the pyramidal style—a style likely enough to be indigenous in a region of earthquakes—they are composed of blocks generally huge, and sometimes enormous; those in the walls of Tiahuanaco in Bolivia being equivalent to cubes of about 16 feet each way. Between those of South A. and Central A., however, there are diversities as well as resemblances. Those of South A., situated, as they are, within the native limits of Peru, and referred, as they must be, to its closing era under the Incas, cannot reach back beyond the Spanish conquest more than 300 or 400 years: the principal ruins are those of Tiahuanaco, already mentioned; of a temple on an island in Lake Titicaca; of another edifice of the kind at Pachacamac, not far from Lima; and of the palaces and mausoleums of the royal race. Those of Central A., again, are reckoned to be considerably more ancient, reaching five or six centuries further back, and being partly the work of the Aztecs, whom the Spaniards conquered, and partly of the Toltecs, whom the Aztecs had themselves supplanted. Nor is the fact altogether without significance, that, in the two more southerly divisions of the continent, those mysterious records of the past are generally superior in development in proportion as they are anterior in age; those of Central A., as a whole, surpassing those of South A.; and, again, within Central A. itself, the earlier specimens of Oaxaca, Guatemala, and Yucatan, eclipsing the later ones of Mexico Proper. While attempting, in the light of these remains, to appreciate aboriginal civilisation, we cannot fail to be struck rather with their magnitude than with their beauty, rather with the evidence of despotism in the ruler than with traces of skill in the subject—Stonehenge affording us infinitely more of a parallel than Windsor Castle or Westminster Hall. Nor does the sculpture, so often subsidiary to the architecture, lead to a more favourable inference, being generally rude and clumsy, and sometimes grotesque and hideous. The only safe conclusion is this, that, in the new world as in the old, there were different degrees of civilisation; some of them confessedly higher than one could have expected in the utter absence of the useful metals, and the almost utter absence of beasts of burden. Nor has even this conclusion any necessary bearing on the better organised communities at large. Stray visitors of a higher type might have produced all the phenomena—visitors precisely such as appear to have figured in the traditions both of Mexico and Peru.

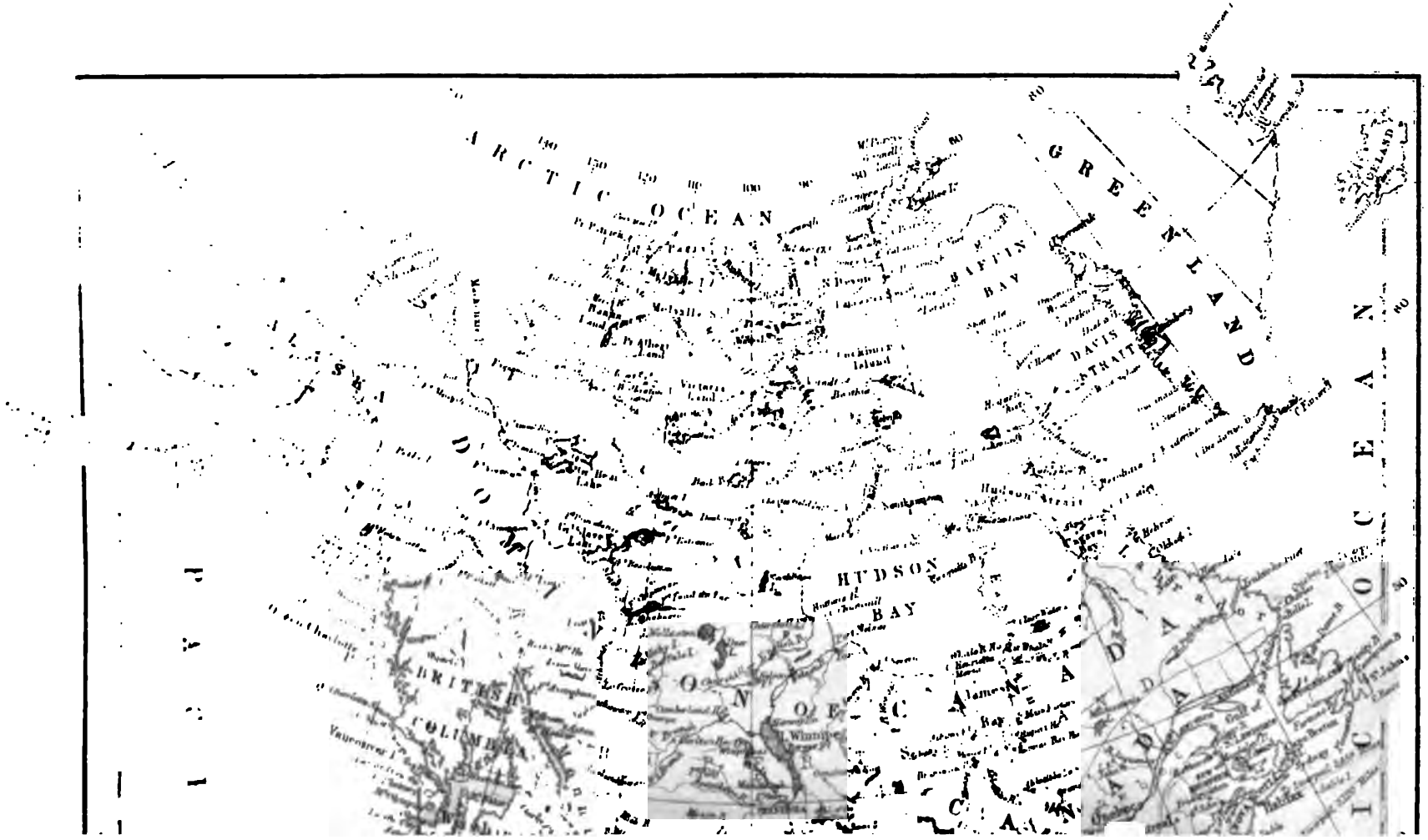
Front and back of a stone idol found at Copan, in Central America.

Geology.—The geology of the new world presents

paths, which they keep open by constant use. The treeless plains of South A., like those of North A., have, in general, much of a grassy vegetation. Part of the elevated regions of the Cordillera, within the torrid zone, is remarkably characterised by the presence of *Cinchonæ*, which form its principal botanical feature, and yield the celebrated Peruvian bark. In still more elevated regions, *Escallonieæ* and *Calceolariæ* give a novel aspect to a vegetation otherwise very similar to that of Europe in its general character, and containing saxifrages, gentians, and many other plants of genera common in the old world. The flora of Chili presents also some interesting points of resemblance to that of New Holland and New Zealand. An *Araucaria*, now not unfrequent in our pleasure-grounds, appears as a representative of the pines; and its seeds afford a large part of the food of the natives of the district in which it abounds. Towards the Strait of Magellan, vegetation again assumes forms more similar to those of Europe. The forests consist in great part of peculiar species of beech. Barberries, different from those of other parts of the world, but very nearly resembling them, are particularly abundant; and with them occur brambles, saxifrages, gentians, primroses, &c. There are also vegetable productions very different and peculiar, as the Winter's bark, which has obtained some reputation as a medicine. From this region are derived not a few of the fuchsias now so familiar an ornament of gardens, greenhouses, and cottage windows in Britain, and which are exclusively American.

Maize is one of the most important of the botanical productions of A. It is the only cultivated grain of American origin; it was in cultivation before the discovery of A. by Europeans, by whom, however, its value was soon recognised, and it has now become an important crop in climates suitable for it in all quarters of the world. The other grains have all been introduced into A. by Europeans, with the sugar-cane, the banana and plantain, coffee, cotton, flax, and many other plants now generally cultivated both in the tropical and temperate regions. The yam is regarded as amongst its native productions, common to its tropical regions with those of other quarters of the world. Tobacco is a native production of A., the cultivation and use of which extended from it to the old world, and rapidly became prevalent among a great part of mankind. (It is indeed supposed by some that there is a species of tobacco indigenous to the furthest east; but this, and the question of its use there before it was made known from A., are still involved in uncertainty.) But of all the vegetable productions of A., the potato is the most important and useful. We owe to it also the Jerusalem artichoke; and it produces several other plants, valuable for their roots and tubers, as the arracacha, the melloco, &c., the use of which has scarcely yet extended beyond their native regions. With them may be mentioned the quinoa, which is not a grain (the seed of a grass), but the seed of a species of *Chenopodium*, or goosefoot, resembling the seeds of the cereal grasses in its qualities, and extensively cultivated on the high table-lands of Chili and Peru. Tapioca, arrow-root, cocoa, vanilla, pimenta or Jamaica pepper, and Cayenne pepper, are among the native productions of the tropical parts of A. The Agave (q. v.) or American aloe, valuable both for its fibre and its juice, has now become common in the warm parts of Europe, and in similar climates in other quarters of the globe. The pine-apple is a native of tropical A., although now naturalised, or nearly so, in other tropical regions. Tropical A. and the West Indies produce also many other fine fruits, among which are the guava, different species of anona or custard-apple, and of granadilla or passion-flower.—The forests of North A. yield much valuable timber, chiefly consisting of different kinds of oak and pine. The black walnut and hickory of the United States are also much esteemed. The West Indies and neighbouring parts of the mainland yield mahogany; and from the same regions comes logwood, one of the most useful of dyewoods. The tropical forests of South A. produce many valuable timber-trees, of which perhaps the most deserving of notice are the Greenheart (q. v.) or Bibiri, and the Mora. Brazil wood and Pernambuco wood are among their dyewoods. One of the most remarkable productions of this region is the Cow-tree (q. v.), the juice of which possesses many properties in common with milk, and is used instead of it. The milky juice of some other trees of tropical A. thickens into caoutchouc.—Different parts of South A. produce *Maté* (q. v.) or Paraguay Tea, a species of holly, the leaves of which possess properties similar to those of tea and coffee, and afford a beverage which is extensively used, although not yet an article of export to other parts of the world; and the Coca (q. v.), a shrub of which the leaf has been, from a remote period, employed by the Indians as a narcotic.

Zoology.—In the animal kingdom, as in the vegetable, all seemed strange and new to Europeans when they first set foot in America. Yet here also the difference from the productions of Europe is not so great as in South Africa or Australia. In North A., many of the animals, as of the plants, of Europe are represented by others of the same genera or families. A few are common to the old and the new world; and in some which are now regarded as specifically different, the difference is not so great as readily to attract the notice of unscientific observers. North A. has its elk and its deers, its oxen (the bison, called buffalo in the United States, and the musk-ox), its sheep (the Rocky Mountain sheep), its beavers, hares, squirrels (some of them much sought after for their fur), mice, rats, weasels, bats, porcupines, bears, badgers, foxes, wolves, and several species of feline animals, among which are the puma and the lynx. The jaguar, more powerful and dangerous than any other of the feline animals of the new world, and the only very formidable beast of prey which it produces, inhabits the tropical forests of South A. The warm parts of South A. produce the great tapir, peccaries, sloths, ant-eaters, armadilloes, &c.; but the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, and boar of the old world, have no more nearly allied representatives. The lama and its congeners, among which is the alpaca, are peculiar to South A., inhabiting the Andes of Chili and Peru. Of the animals of the old world, the most nearly allied to them is the camel, which is entirely wanting in the new; as was also the horse (with all its congeners), until it was introduced by Europeans—a sight of wonder and of terror to the Mexicans and Peruvians who first found themselves opposed to Spanish cavalry, but now thoroughly naturalised, and roaming in vast multitudes on the South American plains. The dog existed in A. before the days of Columbus; it existed in different varieties as a domesticated animal, and the same difficulty arises concerning the origin of the domesticated varieties as when those of the old world alone are considered. The chinchilla, so valuable for its fur, is a small quadruped, peculiar to the north of Chili. The opossums of North A. were the first known of marsupial quadrupeds—i. e. those which have a pouch for their young—and are described as objects of great curiosity by the earlier writers on the new world and its productions. Monkeys are numerous in the warm parts of the new world as well as of the old, and of many species; but they are not only of different species


ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
BAFFIN BAY
DAVIS STRAIT
HUDSON BAY
BRITISH COLUMBIA
ONTARIO
CANADA

W & R CHAMBERS, LONDON & EDINBURGH

from those of Asia and Africa; they form a different section of the monkey family. There are no apes resembling the orang-outang or chimpanzee, and no baboons; but all of the American monkeys have long tails, and many of them prehensile tails, the latter peculiarity being found in none of those of the old world. The absence of cheek-pouches is another character of the American monkeys.

Among the birds of A. are eagles and others of the same family, vultures (among which is the great condor of the Andes), owls, ravens, crows, herons, thrushes of many kinds (of which the mocking-bird may be mentioned as a species particularly interesting), finches, sparrows, buntings, warblers, wrens, larks, &c. Few, however, are identical in species with those of Europe or of Asia. Few things in the natural history of North A. are more remarkable than its multitudinous flocks of pigeons. There are numerous species of grouse and partridge. Of the large gallinaceous birds, the first place in importance must be assigned to the turkey, now so common in a domesticated state in Europe, although in a wild state it has almost disappeared from great part of its native regions. Alectors and curassoes are large gallinaceous birds of Mexico, Guiana, and other warm parts of A. Parrots abound in the tropical forests, and although only one species extends northward into the United States, yet in South A., birds of this family range to the southern extremity of the continent. Humming-birds are peculiar to A., and are found not only in its tropical but in its temperate regions, of numerous species, and many of them of dazzling beauty, passing like bees from flower to flower, and often constituting a characteristic feature of the scenes in which they abound. Toucans and aracaris are among the other kinds of birds peculiar to A., and are found in South A. alone. Swans, geese, and ducks, with other waterfowl of many kinds, exist in great numbers in North A., and in the warmer parts the brilliant colours of the flamingo enliven some of the coasts.

Serpents are numerous. Among them are boas, remarkable for their great size. Rattlesnakes, the most venomous and dreaded of the serpent tribe, are peculiar to A. Alligators abound in the rivers of the tropical and sub-tropical regions. Turtles are caught in great numbers in the West Indian seas, and fresh-water turtles abound in some of the tropical rivers. The bull-frog is a native of the United States, remarkable for the loud noise which it makes, and which those who have been accustomed to it from their childhood learn to associate with all that is pleasant in nature. The lakes and rivers of A. abound in fish, of which many are of the salmon family, the common salmon itself being found as far south as 41° N. lat., and some are of the sturgeon family. The cod-fisheries of the Bank of Newfoundland and of the coasts of Nova Scotia are unequalled in productiveness; and herrings, and other species of the herring family, are taken in great numbers in the same seas.

Some parts of A. are grievously infested by mosquitoes and other insect tribes, the vast numbers of which are extremely annoying, so that some places on the banks of tropical rivers are rendered almost uninhabitable. Ants and termites, or white ants, are very abundant in some parts of South A. Many species of wild bees are found in the forests of Brazil, some of them very productive of honey; but the common hive-bee was unknown in A. till it was introduced from Europe. It has now become naturalised, and is found in the forests far beyond the settlements of white men. The cochineal insect of the opuntia is a native of Mexico and Central A., and the plant on which it feeds has long been cultivated there and in the West Indies for its sake.

Political Divisions.—The following are the chief political divisions of America, each of which will be described in its proper place. In North A., strictly so called, are Russian A., British A. as commonly understood, the United States, and part of Mexico. In Central A. are the remainder of Mexico, Central A., in its political sense, comprising Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica; and, lastly, a small portion of New Granada. In South A. are the rest of New Granada; thence along the Pacific are Ecuador, Peru, Chili, and aboriginal Araucania; while round by Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, the Atlantic washes Buenos Ayres, Uruguay, Brazil, Guiana, and Venezuela—the interior being occupied by Bolivia, Paraguay, and the Argentine Confederation. Finally, the West Indies consist of the Bahamas, the Greater Antilles, and the Lesser Antilles.

The annexed tables from the *Almanach de Gotha* (1873), and the *Statistical Abstract* for the British Colonies and other possessions (1872), give the states of America with their areas and populations.

1. *Governments of North America.*

Governments.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Capitals.
Danish America (Greenland)	390,000	9,825	Lichtenfels.
French Possessions,	81	3,971	St Pierre.
British North America:			
1. The Dominion of Canada, comprising the former independent governments of			
Canada East,	210,020	1,191,505	Quebec.
Canada West,	121,260	1,620,842	Toronto.
Nova Scotia,	18,660	387,800	Halifax
New Brunswick,	27,105	285,777	Fredericton.
Manitoba,*	13,000	11,963	
2. Newfoundland,	40,200	146,536	St John's.
3. Prince Edward Isld.,	2,173	94,021	Charlotte T'n.
4. Bermudas,	24	11,796	Hamilton.
5. British Columbia,	213,000	50,000	New Westminster.
6. Hudson's Bay Ty or Rupert's Land,	2,878,734	100,000	York Factory
U. S. of America,	3,611,844	38,877,000	Washington.
Mexico,	761,640	9,173,052	Mexico.
San Salvador,	7,334	600,000	San Salvador.
Nicaragua,	47,000	400,000	Managua.
Honduras,	58,168	350,000	Comayagua.
Guatemala,	40,776	1,180,000	Guatemala.
Costa Rica,	21,493	185,000	San José.
Total,	8,452,602	54,659,088	

* Part of Hudson's Bay Territory, newly formed into a province of the Dominion.

2. *West Indian Governments.*

Governments.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Capitals.
Hayti, } San Domingo	10,204	572,000	Port au Prince.
Dominica, }	17,626	136,500	San Domingo.
Spanish -			
Cuba,	45,881	1,414,503	Havana.
Porto Rico,	3,598	646,362	San Juan.
British -			
Jamaica,	4,250	506,154	Spanish Town
Trinidad,	1,754	109,634	Port of Spain
Barbadoes,	166	152,727	Bridgetown.
Grenada,	133	37,795	St George's.
St Vincent,	131	31,755	Kingston.
Tobago,	97	17,304	Scarborough.
St Lucia,	250	32,996	Castries.
Antigua,	183	37,125	St John's.
Montserrat,	47	8,931	Plymouth.
St Christopher and Anguilla,	103	26,940	Basseterre.
Nevis,	50	9,822	Charlestown.
Virgin Islands,	57	6,051	
Dominica,	291	28,517	Roseau.
Bahamas and Turk's Island,	3,021	35,237	Nassau

Governments.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Capitals.
French—			
Guadalupe, &c.,	635	152,910	Basseterre.
Martinique,	381	153,334	St Pierre.
St Martin's (N. side),	21	2,200	
Dutch—			
St Martin's (S. side), Curaçoa, &c.,	568	36,161	Wilhelmstadt
Danish—			
Santa Cruz, &c.,	73	22,760	Christ'nstadt.
St Thomas,	23	14,007	
St John's,	21	1,054	
Swedish—			
St Bartholomew's,	8	2,898	Gustavia.
Total,	89,770	4,195,736	

3. Governments of South America.

Governments.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Capitals.
Venezuela,	450,579	1,400,000?	Caracoas.
United States of Colombia,	514,025	2,900,633	Santa Fe de Bogota.
Ecuador,	218,984	1,040,371	Quito.
Peru,	619,977	2,500,000	Lima.
Bolivia,	536,679	1,987,352	Chuquisaca.
Argentine Confederation	825,828	1,853,490	Buenos Ayres.
Uruguay,	66,718	350,000	Monte Video.
Paraguay,	87,303	1,200,000	Asunçion.
Chili,	132,609	1,972,438	Santiago.
Brazil,	3,252,895	10,000,000?	Rio de Janeiro
Patagonia,	304,864	24,000?	
Guiana (British),	93,925	152,932?	Georgetown.
Guiana (Dutch),	59,795	50,210	Paramaribo.
Guiana (French),	35,078	25,151	Cayenne.
Falkland Islands,	4,741	686	Port Louis.
Total,	7,241,000	25,457,263	
Grand Total of America,	15,783,372	84,312,087	

AMERICA, BRITISH. From the small beginnings specified in the general article above, British A., in the proper sense of the words, is now, in mere extent, at least equal to the American republic, and vastly superior to any other state in the western hemisphere—occupying, as it does, a breadth of about 90° of long., and stretching, with more or less interruption, over a length of 120°. Besides touching, actually or virtually, every considerable power on the continent, England, in the new world as in the old, commands nearly every turning-point in navigation and commerce. In co-operation with Ireland, Newfoundland has linked together the two continents by submarine telegraph. Again, with the gulf and river of St Lawrence as its main artery, British A., in its ordinary acceptation, comprising Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and the Canadas, confederated in one 'Dominion,' has received from nature an advantage in respect of the western trade which even the energy of Pennsylvania and New York cannot counterbalance; Halifax, the Bermudas, and the Bahamas, are so many guardians of the gulf-stream, freighted as it is with the exports of half a continent. Jamaica forms the first link of a chain which girds the Caribbean Sea; Trinidad fronts the Orinoco, which is connected by the Cassiquiare with the Amazon; Western Guiana, also, as already mentioned under another head, finds, up the Essequibo, its own communication with the 'King of Waters;' and, lastly, on the Atlantic side, the Falklands, with their Port Egmont, flank alike the river Plate and the Strait of Magellan. Round, again, in the Pacific, British A. exerts an influence which is perhaps relatively greater. At the upper extremity of a coast which is, as a whole, singularly deficient in harbours, British Columbia, with its breastwork of islands from Vancouver's upwards, and its succession of indentations, bids fair, more especially with its inexhaustible supplies of magnificent timber, to form an admirable base of operations for sustaining the maritime greatness of Britain.

AMERICA, RUSSIAN, the name long given to what is now a territory of the United States, called *Alaska*, and which was purchased from the Russian government in 1867 for 7,200,000 dollars. It forms the north-western extremity of the American continent, and is bounded N. by the Arctic Ocean, E. by British America, W. and S. by the Pacific. It was discovered by a Russian expedition conducted by Behring (q. v.), which sailed from Kamtchatka in 1741. It is little better than a vast hunting-ground, having in this aspect been long held by the Imperial Fur Company, which differed, however, but little from the imperial government itself. Its only town, or rather village, worthy of the name, is New Archangel, on the island of Sitka. The most noticeable points in geography are Cape Prince of Wales, on Behring's Strait; Kotzebue's Sound, Norton Sound, peninsula of Alaska, Cook's Inlet, and Mount St Elias. See UNITED STATES in SUPP.

AMERICA, SPANISH. Spanish A. is now shrunk into Porto Rico and Cuba, and belongs rather to history than to geography. Yet for many years it embraced absolutely the entire continent. Its decay was caused by the colonists becoming mere hunters after the precious metals, instead of agriculturists, and by the exclusion of all but natives of the mother country from public employment.

AMERICANISMS are words and phrases current in the United States of America, and not current in England. These peculiarities are much more prominent in conversation than in writing; indeed, in the American writers that are usually considered classical, it is difficult to detect anything of the kind. The number of absolutely new words introduced into the English language in America is remarkably small. As an instance may be mentioned *caucus*, for a secret political assembly. This is a corruption of *calk-house*, a calker's shed in Boston, where the patriots before the revolution had usually held their meetings. The term *Yankee* (an Indian corruption of the French *Anglais*) is another. The great body of A. consist in giving an unusual sense to existing words: as *clever*, in the sense of amiable, and *smart* for clever; *wagon* for a very light kind of carriage; *book-store* for bookseller's shop; *wilted* for withered; *creek* for a small river, instead of a small arm of the sea.

The several divisions of the Union have their characteristic peculiarities. Thus, in the New England States—Yankeeland proper—*ugly* is used for ill-natured; *friends* for relations (so used also in Scotland); and *guess* for a great variety of things—to think, presume, suppose, &c. This use of *guess* is confined to New England; the inhabitants of New York and of the Middle States generally employ *expect* in the same way; while those of the Southern States *reckon*; and those of the Western States *calculate*. Several words current in the Middle States are of Dutch origin, as *loafer* for a vagabond, from the Dutch *loopen*, to run; and *boss* for a head workman or employer. The Southern States have fewer peculiarities than any of the other divisions. In the Western States, again, there is hardly any recognised standard of speech, and in some districts 'it would hardly be an exaggeration to say that every prominent person has his own private vocabulary.' The verb *to fix* is made to do duty for expressing every conceivable kind of action. The vague use of this word is common all over the Union, but in the West the abuse is carried to the extreme. *Help*, in the sense of servant, is common to the West and to New England, but is nearly unknown

in the Middle States. The well-known phrase *go a-head* is a coinage of the West; it is sufficiently expressive of the leading characteristic of the American people. *Posted-up* in a subject, for 'well informed,' is one of a class of metaphors indicative of the prominence of mercantile pursuits.

The tendency to the use of slang is excessive in America, especially in the Western States. 'Every state, every city has its own flash vocabulary; but it is in the political world that this tendency to cant phrases most develops itself. Every new party, every new modification of an old party, is bound to have at least one new name, either assumed by itself, or attached to it by its opponents.'

A variety of causes have been enumerated to account for the existence of those deviations from standard English, such as, the influence of the Indian languages; the various tongues spoken by settlers from Europe other than English; the original provincial peculiarities of portions of the English settlers, &c. But even supposing the language of the United States were at this moment in every respect identical with that of England, and to be henceforth unaffected by the importation of foreign elements, the complete identity could not be expected to continue long. Not only do new circumstances and wants make new terms necessary, and modify the application of old, but those changes of structure which constitute the organic growth of every living tongue, are evolved more or less rapidly according to the industrial and political activity of those that speak it. To complain, then, that the English language in America, or in any of the British colonies, should exhibit deviations from the standard of the mother country, is as unreasonable as to complain that an animal should exhibit changes in its coat or its habits when removed from one climate to another. Nothing is more desirable for the interests of humanity than that the language spoken by all the sections of the great Anglo-Saxon race should continue to be substantially one. All wanton innovations are to be reprobated; but when a great and diversified community adopt generally any new term or mode of expression, it is to be presumed that the cause lies deeper than any that can be controlled by criticism.

As the Americans of Anglo-Saxon origin do not exceed one-third of the whole population of the United States, it seems wonderful that the English language should have held its ground so well that it should not have been completely corrupted, or even in some places extruded by other tongues. Yet there is apparently no danger of this. The original Dutch of New York has disappeared, with the exception of a very few stray words; and although French is still spoken in one-half of the city of New Orleans, it has been preserved at the expense of the speakers isolating themselves and losing their due influence. The same is the case with those islands of German-speaking population that still hold out in Pennsylvania and elsewhere; and, what is remarkable, the proximity of these Germans has no sensible effect upon the language of their English-speaking neighbours; while, on the other hand, the influence of the English is reducing the language of the Germans to a corrupt patois, swarming with English words. See *The English Language in America*, in the Cambridge Essays for 1855; also Bartlett's *Dictionary of Americanisms*, New York, new ed. 1856.

AMERIGO VESPUCCI, a naval astronomer, from whom America accidentally received its name, was born at Florence, March 9, 1451. His father was a notary. The education of A. was intrusted to his uncle, Giorgio Antonio Vespucci, a monk and apparently a man of superior enlightenment. The youth made but indifferent progress in his Latin grammar, though he shewed great aptitude and liking for natural philosophy, astronomy, and geography—at that period, favourite objects of study, on account of their commercial importance. It is not precisely ascertained when he first went to Spain. We find him there, however, in 1480, engaged in mercantile pursuits. He was at the head of a large Florentine firm in Seville in 1490, when Columbus was making preparations for a second voyage to the new world. The success of the great discoverer inflamed A. with a passion for discovery, and having abandoned 'business,' he sailed from Cadiz on the 20th May 1499, in the expedition commanded by Admiral Hojeda, and, after a voyage of thirty-seven days, arrived at that portion of the continent of America now called Cumana, explored the Bay of Paria, lying between the isle of Trinidad and the mainland, and some hundreds of miles along the coast. He returned in the autumn of the same year, but commenced a second voyage under Admiral Pinzon in December, which resulted in the discovery of a crowd of small islands on the south of the Gulf of Mexico. He was now allured by promises into the service of Emanuel, king of Portugal, and undertook two other voyages with Portuguese ships; the first on the 10th of May 1501, and the second on the 10th of May 1503. His purpose was to sail westward, in hopes of discovering a passage to Malacca, the extreme point of discovery in the east. He lost one of his ships; and it was only after encountering great perils that the other five found refuge in All Saints' Bay, on the coast of Brazil. The monarch gave orders that some remains of the ship *Victoria*, in which A. made his last voyage, should be suspended in the cathedral of Lisbon, but fulfilled none of the promises which he had made. A. consequently returned to Spain, and in the year 1508 succeeded in obtaining the office of piloto-major. He died at Seville on the 22d of February 1512.

The character of A. V. has been covered with a great deal of unmerited obloquy. He has been accused of endeavouring to claim the honour of discoveries which he never made, and has been commonly regarded as an unprincipled adventurer. Humboldt, however, has successfully vindicated him from such aspersions. He had a very considerable knowledge of various branches of science, and it was on account of his superior attainments in these that he was selected to accompany the expeditions as naval astronomer. He was a prompt and skilful inspector of the commissariat while under his control; vigorous, practical, and severe in his demands for increased knowledge on the part of the naval functionaries under him; an earnest navigator and close friend of Columbus in the last years of the great admiral's life. How America came to receive its name from him is not quite clear; but it is certain, from Humboldt's investigation, that A. himself had nothing to do with it. The name of the new world probably came from Germany. A selection from A.'s narrative of his American voyages found its way into that country. Martin Waldseemüller of Freiburg in Baden translated it for a bookseller of St Dié in Lorraine. As the first account of the wonderful discovery, it was greedily devoured. Edition after edition was printed off, and, according to Humboldt, it was Waldseemüller who proposed that the new world should be called America in honour of the author. Afterwards, this name was generally employed by geographical writers, and even the Spaniards and Portuguese adopted it.

A'MERSFOORT, an ancient town in the Netherlands, province of Utrecht, on the Eem, which flows

into the Zuiderzee, has a large trade in grain. Tobacco is grown in the district, and cotton and woollen goods, leather, soap, beer, &c., are manufactured. The church of St Joris was completed in 1248. A. has a Jansenist college and court of justice. Here the statesman Oldenbarneveld, and the architect of the palace in Amsterdam, Jacob van Campen, were born. The railway from Amsterdam by Utrecht to Zwolle passes A., and a direct line between it and the former city is being constructed. Pop. 13,230.

A'METHYST, a variety of quartz (q. v.), differing from common quartz and rock-crystal chiefly in its beautiful violet-blue or purplish violet colour—well known as *amethystine*—which is owing to the presence of a little peroxide of iron or of manganese. It is, one of the most esteemed varieties of quartz, and is much employed for seals, rings, &c., although, being comparatively abundant, it is much inferior in price to the true gems. An amethystine tinge is frequently to be observed in specimens of quartz, which yet are not perfect A. The tinge is often very faint, and is frequently confined to the summits or edges of the crystals. The finest specimens of A. are brought from India, Ceylon, and Brazil. It is, however, a common mineral in Europe, and occurs in many parts of Scotland. It frequently occurs lining the interior of balls or geodes of agate, and in veins and cavities in greenstone and other rocks. The ancients imagined it to possess the property of preventing intoxication, and persons much addicted to drinking therefore wore it on their necks. The name is derived from a Greek word which signifies *unintoxicated*.—Not to be confounded with this mineral is that sometimes called the *oriental A.*, which is a variety of spinel (q. v.) having an amethystine colour, and is a very valuable gem.—False amethysts made of glass or *paste* are very common, and in general very coarse; but a very perfect imitation can be, and sometimes is made.

A'MHERST, a sea-port of Tenasserim, on the E. shore of the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 16° 4′ N., and long. 97° 40′ E., at the entrance of the Martaban or Saluen. In 1826, the province having been newly ceded by the Burmese, A. was founded, after a special survey of all the available sites, as the commercial capital, being named after the then governor-general of India, and proclaimed to be an asylum for the neighbouring Peguers, still subject to Burmah; but policy, prestige, and foresight alike have in some measure failed; for the harbour, otherwise commodious enough, labours under two serious defects—difficulty of access, and exposure to the south-west monsoon. Even in trade, A. has been distanced by Moulmein, selected at first merely to be the military station of the territory. Its exports, however, are said to be considerable, consisting chiefly of teak from the upper basin of the river, and partly of grain from Belu, an island at its mouth.

A'MHERSTBU'RG, a town on the river Detroit, which empties Lake St Clair into Lake Erie. It is one of the oldest settlements in Upper Canada, being named from Lord Amherst, who, by the capture of Montreal in 1760, completed what General Wolfe had begun at Quebec in 1759. It occupies the south-west extremity of the province, the turning-point of climate and character to the basin of the St Lawrence, the spot where its waters, after having gained southing from the 50th to the 42d parallel, suddenly assume a direction which carries them back to their original latitude above the island of Anticosti. Pop. (1871) 1800. A large business is done here in timber.

AMIDOGEN is a substance procured by the action of the metal potassium on dry gaseous ammonia. The latter contains one atom of nitrogen to three atoms of hydrogen (NH_3), whilst A. contains one to two (NH_2). A. forms a very important class of organic compounds called *amides*, and gives rise to a number of substances closely allied to the alkaloids, many of which, indeed, may be regarded as natural amides.

AMIENS, an ancient city in the plain of Picardy, and capital of the department of Somme; it is the seat of a bishop and of a court of justice, and has a citadel and fortifications. It possesses a college, an academy, a theological seminary, an industrial school, a school of medicine, a public library, a picture-gallery, a botanical garden, and several literary and scientific institutions. Among its public buildings, the cathedral is a noble edifice, built in 1220, and esteemed a masterpiece of Gothic architecture. Peter the Hermit was born here. A. has considerable manufactures of velvet, silk, woollen, and cotton goods, ribbons, and carpets. But the place owes its celebrity chiefly to the 'Peace of A.,' a treaty signed in this city, March 27, 1802, by Joseph Bonaparte, the Marquis of Cornwallis, Azara, and Schimmelpennink, and intended to settle the disputed points between England, France, Spain, and Holland. By this treaty, England retained possession of Ceylon and Trinidad, and an open port at the Cape of Good Hope; France received back her colonies; the republic of the Seven Islands was recognised; Malta was restored to the order of the Knights of St John; Spain and Holland regained their colonies, with the exception of Trinidad and Ceylon; the French were to quit Rome, Naples, and Elba; and Turkey was restored to its integrity. These terms were not received with satisfaction by the English, and war was declared against Bonaparte in 1803. In the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, A. was taken by the German General Manteuffel, an event which contributed to the fall of Paris. Pop. (1872) 54,498.

AMLETH, or HAMLETH, Prince of Jutland, is said to have lived in the 2d c. B.C. According to Saxo-Grammaticus, he was the son of Horvendill and Gerutha; and after the murder of his father by his uncle Fengo, who married Gerutha, he feigned himself a fool, to save his own life. Saxo relates a number of little things regarding A., which are a curious medley of sharp and lively observation, and apparent madness. We are told that, on one occasion, when he visited his mother, suspecting that he was watched, he commenced to crow like a cock and dance idiotically about the apartment, until he discovered, hidden in a heap of straw, a spy, in the person of one of Fengo's courtiers, whom he immediately stabbed; he then so terrified his mother by his reproaches, that she promised to aid him in his intended revenge on his father's murderer, and, according to the old chronicler, really did so. Scandinavian traditions confirm the existence of a prince of this name. A field is still pointed out in Jutland with a tomb bearing the name of A. In the vicinity of Elsinore is shewn the spot where the father of A. was assassinated. Saxo himself does not mention the manner or circumstances of his death; but his French translator says that he was murdered at a banquet. Most of the recent historians of Denmark consider the history of A. fabulous, but Müller thinks there is a substratum of fact in the old myth. It is the source of Shakspeare's tragedy of *Hamlet*, and thus possesses a perennial interest for all the civilised world.

AMMANA'TE, BARTOLEME'O, architect and sculptor, born at Florence in 1511, died in 1592. He was at first a pupil of Baccio Bandinelli, and afterwards

of Sansovino at Venice. In 1550, he married Laura Battiferri of Urbino, a lady celebrated for her poetical gifts. Pope Julius III. employed him in the decoration of the Capitol, and Cosmo de Medici appointed him his architect. His principal works are, the statues which adorn the tomb of Sannazar at Naples, the tomb of Cardinal de Monti at Rome, the bridge of the Trinity and several fountains at Florence. He also completed the Pitti Palace, commenced by Brunelleschi, and ornamented the court with three orders of columns, which were subsequently imitated by J. de Brosse in the palace of the Luxembourg at Paris. In the collection of architectural designs in the Florence Gallery, there is one by A., exhibiting the plans of different buildings, by which a city may be rendered at once magnificent and convenient. His works have all a certain grandeur of character, derived, probably, from his early admiration of Michael Angelo, but are somewhat marred by a quaint mannerism. His bronzes are executed with great delicacy.

AMMIA'NUS MARCELLI'NUS, a Roman historian of the 4th c., was present in several campaigns in Gaul, Germany, and the east, and afterwards lived at Rome, devoted to literature. Though a Greek by birth, he wrote in Latin a history of the Roman empire from 91 to 378 A.D., in 31 books, of which 13, containing the years from 91 to 352, are lost. This work, which commenced with the accession of Nerva, may be regarded as a continuation of Tacitus, and though the portions remaining have many faults of style, they are valuable on account of the author's love of truth, his careful descriptions of countries, and events from personal observation, and especially his remarks on Germany. After his time, Latin ceased to be employed by any Roman writer in the composition of secular history. The best edition of A. M. is that by Wagner and Erfurdt, in 3 vols. (Leip. 1808.)

AMMON, an Egyptian deity, styled Amun on hieroglyphic monuments, was compared by the Greeks with their supreme deity Zeus. The sacred name of Thebes, A.'s city ('*No-Ammon*' in the Old Testament), was therefore translated into Greek by Diospolis. In the temples of this town, his peculiar residence, A. is represented as sitting on a throne, holding the symbols of life and power, and wearing a crown with a peculiar ornament of two feathers, and a band falling behind and hanging down to his feet. He was especially the god of Thebes; though his temples are found in other places, as at Meroë, and over the whole of Nubia and Libya. The name Amun signifies the hidden, unrevealed deity, and, in Egyptian mythology, he held the highest place. His undefined character may serve to explain how other deities were identified with A. After the eighteenth dynasty, we find in hieroglyphics the name Amun-Ra frequently inscribed, indicating a blending of A. with the sun-god Ra. Similarly, the representation of A. with a ram's head shews the blending of him with Kneph. The worship of A. spread at an early period to Greece, and afterwards to Rome, where he was identified with Zeus and Jupiter. Temples for his worship were erected in Thebes (Boeotia), Sparta, Megalopolis, and other places.

AMMON, CHRIS. FRED., a German theologian, born January 16, 1766, died May 21, 1850, is chiefly known by his work on the *Development of Christianity as a Universal Religion* (4 vols., Leip. 1833—1840), in which he argues in favour of such liberal development of doctrine as may keep theology in harmony with the progress of science. A. was a leader of the Rationalist school. He was a man of extensive learning, united with great industry and earnestness, and was generally respected in Saxony, where he resided.—His second son, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS A., is well known in Germany as an able physician, and the writer of several works on practical medicine and surgery.

AMMO'NIA, Hartshorn, or the Volatile Alkali, was one of the few substances known to the chemistry of the ancients; being referred to by Pliny under the name of *vehement odour*, which he evolved by mixing lime with nitrum (probably sal ammoniac). It derives its name A. from its being obtained from sal ammoniac, which was first procured by heating camels' dung in Libya, near the temple of Jupiter Ammon. The atmosphere contains a minute quantity of A., amounting to 210—237 parts in the 10,000,000,000 parts of air, which is equal to 1 volume of A. in 28,000,000 of air. It is likewise present in rain-water in variable proportion. The supply of A. to the atmosphere is its evolution during the putrefaction of animal and vegetable substances, during the vinous fermentation, and the combustion of coal. It is likewise present in respired air, and is therefore a product of the daily wear and tear of the animal system. The principal source of A. at the present time is the destructive distillation of coal, as in gas-making. The materials which pass over from the retort are partly uncondensable and truly gaseous, and these are carried to our gas-jets, and burned; but in other parts they are condensable, and are received during the purification of the gas, as a mixed tarry and watery liquid. On allowing this liquid to settle, the water portion, containing A., can be separated, and, hydrochloric acid being added to it, there is formed a compound of A. and hydrochloric acid, called chloride of ammonium, which can be obtained dry, by evaporating the solution down in shallow vessels. Pure A. is manufactured from this impure chloride of ammonium by mixing it with its own weight of slaked lime in a retort, and applying a gentle heat, when the A. as a gas passes over, and is received in a vessel containing water. The solubility of A. in water is very great, 1 volume of water dissolving 670 volumes of ammoniacal gas, increasing in bulk, and forming a liquid (*liquor ammoniæ* of the chemist, and hartshorn of the shops), which is lighter than water, its density being 875. The solution of A. is transparent, colourless, and strongly alkaline. In taste it is acrid caustic, and in odour very pungent. Applied to the skin in a concentrated form, it blisters. Exposed to the air, the A. escapes, and the solution thus gets weaker, and, reduced to - 40° F., it freezes. As generally obtained, even in the gaseous condition, it is in combination with the elements of 1 atom of water, and contains 1 of nitrogen, 4 hydrogen, and 1 oxygen (NH_4O). Dry A. can be procured by passing the vapour of A., as ordinarily obtained, over fused chloride of calcium, when the water is abstracted, and true gaseous A. is left, having the composition 1 nitrogen, and 3 hydrogen (NH_3). Gaseous A. can be liquefied under pressure and cold, and then yields a colourless, clear, mobile liquid, with the characteristic odour and other properties of A. much intensified. A. combines with acids to form a class of salts which are of considerable importance. Thus, the crystallised sulphate of A. (HO,NH_4OSO_3) is very extensively used as a top-dressing by farmers, and is also mixed with manures where an increase of ammoniacal matter is desirable. The chloride of ammonium is also employed in agriculture; likewise largely by the Russian peasantry, as a condiment for flavouring food in place of common salt.

In medicine, the gaseous A. has been rarely used. The solution of A. is employed as a means of rousing the respiratory and vascular systems; and of the speedy alleviation of spasm. It is also used as a local irritant and antacid. It is serviceable in dyspeptic

complaints with preternatural acidity of stomach and flatulence; to produce local irritation or destruction of certain parts, and to render comparatively harmless the bites of poisonous animals, such as serpents and insects.

AMMONIUM is a hypothetical metal, which is said to consist of 1 volume of nitrogen with 4 of hydrogen. It has never been produced in an isolated state; but a singular amalgam of A. and mercury may be formed, by subjecting a globule of mercury, surrounded by a little water of ammonia, to the action of the galvanic current: when the galvanic agency ceases, this amalgam is decomposed into mercury, ammonia, and water. A. may likewise be prepared by acting on an amalgam of sodium and mercury with a solution of chloride of A. A portion of mercury is slightly heated in a porcelain vessel, and pieces of sodium introduced, when the sodium and mercury combine, and form an amalgam of sodium and mercury, which is a semi-solid substance, and scarcely occupies more space than the bulk of the mercury employed. If this be introduced into a vessel containing a strong or saturated solution of chloride of A. (NH_4Cl), the chlorine combines with the sodium (Na) of the amalgam, forming chloride of sodium (NaCl), and the A. unites with the mercury, forming the amalgam of A. and mercury. As the change referred to proceeds, the amalgam increases in size many times, and forms a spongy mass of the consistence of butter, which rises through the saline solution and floats on the surface. The amalgam of A. and mercury very readily decomposes, and hence the difficulty of determining its exact composition.

AMMONI'ACUM, or AMMO'NIAC, a gum resin, used in medicine on account of its stimulant and discutient qualities, is obtained from *Dorema A.*, a plant of the natural order *Umbelliferæ*, a native of Persia—a perennial, about seven feet high, with large doubly pinnate leaves. The leaves are about two feet long. The whole plant is abundantly pervaded by a milky juice, which oozes out upon the slightest puncture, and which hardens, and becomes A. The A. exudes from punctures made by an insect, which appears in great numbers at the time when the plant has attained perfection. Much of it is sent to India, and it is generally imported into Britain from Bombay, although sometimes from the Levant. It occurs in commerce either in tears, or in masses formed of them, but mixed with impurities. It is whitish, becoming yellow by exposure to the atmosphere, is softened by the heat of the hand, and has a peculiar heavy unpleasant smell, and a nauseous taste, at first mucilaginous and bitter, afterwards acrid. It is not fusible, but burns with white crepitating flame, little smoke, and strong smell.—It was for some time erroneously supposed to be the produce of a species of *Heracleum*, the seeds of which were found enclosed in it.—A similar substance is obtained from *Ferula Tingitana*, an umbelliferous plant, growing on light sandy soils in the north of Africa; and is said also to be obtained from *F. Orientalis*, a native of Asia Minor and of Greece. Both these plants have branched stems, and very compound leaves, somewhat resembling fennel. It would seem that the A. of the ancients was the gum resin of the Ferula, which has a more faint odour and less powerful medicinal properties than that of the Dorema.

A'MMONITES, a Semitic race of people, living on the edge of the Syrian Desert; the descendants of Ben-ammi, the son of Lot (Gen. xix. 38). They inhabited the country lying to the north of Moab, between the rivers Arnon and Jabbok, i. e. the desert country east of Gad. Their chief city was Rabbath-Ammon, to which the Greeks afterwards gave the name of Philadelphia. The Israelites were often at war with them and their other Bedouin confederates. Jephthah defeated them with great slaughter. They were also overcome by Saul, David, Uzziah, and Jotham; but after the fall of the kingdom of Israel (720 B.C.), spread themselves in the districts of Judæa on the east of the Jordan. In 582 they were subdued by the Babylonians. After the captivity, they recommenced their feuds with the Jews, but were conquered by Judas Maccabæus. The intermarriages of Jews with the A., which had been frequent, were prohibited by Nehemiah. The chief deity worshipped by the A. was named Milcom, who in his character seems to have resembled Moloch. Justin Martyr affirms that in his time the A. were still numerous.

AMMONI'TES, a genus of fossil shells, nearly

Ammonites:
1. Ammonites obtusus; 2. Section of Ammonites obtusus, shewing the interior chambers and siphuncle; 3. Ammonites nodosus.

allied to the recent genus *Nautilus*, being, like it, chambered and spiral. The molluscous inhabitant appears to have lodged in the last and largest chamber of the shell, the spaces left behind as it increased in size being successively converted into air-chambers, and all connected by a tube (*siphuncle*), so that the animal could at pleasure ascend or descend in the sea; whilst the transverse plates dividing the chambers gave strength to the whole structure w great increase of weight. A. have long been popularly called *Cornua Ammonis*, from a fancied blance to the horns on sculptured heads of Ammon. They are found throughout the series of fossiliferous rocks from the transition to the chalk. They abound in the cretaceous oolitic groups. Particular kinds distinguish particular formations, a circumstance which renders them of particular interest and importance to the The number of species is very great, co... above two hundred; and several genera hav... constituted, as *Baculites*, *Hamites*, *Scaphites*, ... *ites*, forming with *Ammonites*, the family of *A... tidæ*. A. are of very different sizes, from a very small size, to two, or even three or four feet in diameter. The larger ones were in former times ignorantly mistaken for petrified snakes; and impositions have been practised upon collectors by adding to specimens nicely carved snakes' heads; whilst the general absence of the heads was popularly accounted for by a legend of a saint decapitating the snakes, and turning them into stone.

AMMO'NIUM, now known as the oasis of Siwah, in the Libyan Desert, was in ancient times celebrated on account of the oracle of Ammon, the unfortunate expedition of Cambyses, and the subsequent journeys of Alexander the Great and Cato. Besides the temple of Jupiter, placed in the centre of a grove of palms, the ruins of which still exist, and which

contained an image of the god, composed of smaragdus and other gems, A. was remarkable for the palace of its ancient kings, surrounded by a triple wall, in the very heart of the oasis, and for its 'Well of the Sun,' of which the waters were coldest at noonday, and warmest at midnight. Here the Emperor Justinian built a Christian church. The length of the oasis is 15 miles, by 12 broad; it is about 150 miles distant from the Mediterranean, and is situated in lat. 29° N., and in long. 26° E.

AMMONIUS SACCAS, a Greek philosopher, founder of the Neoplatonic School, is said to have been in his earlier days a porter in Alexandria. His parents were Christian, but he himself is said to have abandoned his early religion, in which he had been instructed by Clemens Alexandrinus, and to have devoted himself to the study of heathen philosophy under Athenagoras; although both Eusebius and St Jerome deny that he ever formally apostatised from the Christian faith. His great endeavour was to harmonise, through a comprehensive eclecticism, the various philosophical theories which prevailed in the Roman world, especially those of Aristotle and Plato. He also laboured to amalgamate with these the doctrines of the Magi and Brahmans; but instead of boldly announcing the result as his own, he claimed for his system the highest antiquity. His most distinguished pupils were Longinus, Herennius, Origen, and Plotinus, the last of whom, by far the most subtle and profound of the Neoplatonists, always expressed the highest respect for his master. A. died at Alexandria, 241 A.D. He left no writings behind him.

A. is the name of several learned men in the later ends of Greek history; such as A., the master of a arch, who lived during the reign of the Emperor Aurelian, and, like A. Saccas, taught a species of eclecticism in philosophy; A., the Christian philosopher of the 3d c., who wrote a *Harmony of the Gospels*; A., son of Hermeas, a Peripatetic philosopher of 5th c., and disciple of Proclus; A., the famous son of Alexandria, who lived in the time of y Philadelphus; and A., the Grammarian, was at first high-priest in an Egyptian temple, devoted to the god Apis, and afterwards (389 A.D.) became teacher at Constantinople, where he had the church historian Socrates for his pupil.

AMMOPHILA, a genus of Grasses, closely allied to Arundo (see REED), and distinguished by a spike-like panicle, and by the *glumes* being nearly equal, keeled, longer than the *palea* of the single floret, and surrounded at the base by a tuft of hairs.—*A. arundinacea*, formerly called *Arundo arenaria*—a grass about 2—3 feet high, with rigid bluish leaves, the edges of which are rolled in, and very creeping roots—is frequent on the sandy sea-shores of Britain and the continent of Europe. It is sometimes called SEA REED or SAND REED, and sometimes MAT GRASS, the culms being wrought into foot-mats, coverings for stairs, &c., in the manufacture of which many families residing along the coast of Ireland are employed most of the year. It is also called *Marum*, *Marrum*, or *Marram*, by which name it is designated in laws both English and Scottish, by which the destruction of it was prohibited under severe penalties, because of its great utility in fixing the shifting sand. In Holland, and in Norfolk, it is extensively employed—along with the Sea LYME GRASS (q. v.)—in preserving the banks of sand which prevent the inroads of the sea. It is of little value as food for cattle, although they eat the very young leaves. The fibre has been used instead of flax, but is too short.

AMMUNITION. Sometimes this name is given to cannon and mortars, as well as to the projectiles and explosive substances employed with them; but more usually A. is considered to apply to the latter—such as shot, shell, gunpowder, cartridges, fuses, wads, grenades. Muskets, swords, bayonets, and other small-arms are sometimes, but improperly, included under this term. The Royal Laboratory at Woolwich is the place where A. is chiefly prepared for the British army and navy. The cannon-balls may be cast at some of the great iron-foundries in the north; the shells may be cast or forged in the shell-factory at Woolwich; the muskets may be made at Birmingham, and the rifles at Enfield; the bullets at the shot-factories; the gunpowder at Waltham-Abbey—and so on; but the 'making up' of the A. is mostly conducted at the establishment above mentioned. Bags of serge, in enormous number, are cut out and made, and filled to form the cartridges for large ordnance. Bags or tubes of paper are made and filled to constitute blank cartridges for small-arms; while the ball-cartridges are enclosed in thin copper cylinders. The tubes and combustibles for war-rockets and fuses are also manufactured. The cartridges for small-arms (rifles, muskets, carbines, and pistols) are made in millions; since it is on those that the main offensive operations of an army depend. It has been calculated by the Woolwich authorities, that a British army of 60,000 men, comprising a fair average of infantry, cavalry, artillery, and engineers, ought to be provided with no less than 18,000,000 ball-cartridges for small-arms, for six months' operations. These would require 1000 A. wagons, and 3600 horses, to convey them all at once. It is therefore deemed better that, under any such circumstances, there should be established *entrepôts* for supplying the troops from time to time. The wagons constructed for this kind of service will carry 20,000 rounds of small-arm A. each; the cartridges are packed in boxes, and the wagons are drawn by four horses each. Several wagons are organised into an 'equipment,' under the charge of a detachment of artillery; and there are several such equipments for an army of the magnitude above mentioned—one for each division of infantry, a small portion for the cavalry, and the rest in reserve. It has been laid down that an army of 60,000 men ought to have 2,680,000 cartridges *with them*, besides those in reserve; and that the conveyance of such a quantity, with a few forges and stores, would require 150 A. wagons, 830 men, and 704 horses. The equipment would return to the entrepôt for a new supply when needed. In the Peninsular War, and at Waterloo, the English used two-horse carts, carrying about 10,000 rounds of small-arm A. each; but a superior kind of wagon has been since introduced. In the field, an infantry soldier usually carries about 60 rounds, put in compartments in his pouch. When the word A. is used in connection with artillery matters, the 'fixed' A. comprises the loaded shells, cartridges, and carcasses; whereas the 'unfixed' are the unfilled case-shot, grape-shot, and shell. During peace, the Woolwich Laboratory serves out little less than a million lbs. of gunpowder annually, in A. for the army and navy, for purposes of exercising, saluting, &c.

The chief kinds of A. will be found briefly described under their proper headings.

AMNESTY signifies an act of pardon or oblivion, and the effect of it is, that the crimes and offences against the state, specified in the act, are so obliterated that they can never again be charged against the guilty parties. The A. may be either absolute, or qualified with exceptions. Instances of the latter are to be found in ancient and modern history: thus, Thrasybulus, when he overthrew the oligarchy in Athens, caused an A. to be

proclaimed, from the operation of which the Thirty Tyrants, who had formed the oligarchy, and some few persons who had acted under them, were excluded. Again, Bonaparte, on his return from Elba in 1815, issued a decree, which was published at Lyon, declaring an A., from the benefits of which he excepted thirteen persons whom he named. And in our own country, the historical reader will be able to recall the act of indemnity passed upon the restoration of Charles II., by which the persons actually concerned in his father's execution, were, as a class, excluded from the A.

A'MNION is the membrane which immediately invests the embryo, appearing very early in the development of the latter, and adhering closely to it. As gestation proceeds, this membrane secretes from its inner surface a fluid which separates it from the fœtus. This fluid, the liquor amnii, consists of water, with albumen, salt of soda, and extractive matters in solution; it has a specific gravity of 1008. It supplies nutriment to the fœtus, preserves around it an agreeable temperature, and when gestation is completed, by projecting the membrane through the os uteri, is the primary agent in opening the way for the fœtus. At this time, the A. is thin and transparent, slightly flocculent on the side next its enveloping membrane, the chorion, but smooth on the surface next the fœtus. Within it, the latter is suspended in the fluid which not only serves the purposes just mentioned, but protects it from injury. For further particulars, see EMBRYO, and for many curious superstitions connected with the subject, see CAUL.

AMO'MUM, a genus of plants of the natural order *Scitamineæ* (q. v.) or *Zingiberaceæ* distinguished by perennial stems; the flowers in close heads resembling cones, not upon the leafy stems, but arising by themselves from the root, and little elevated above the ground; the corolla without inner lateral lobes, and with a very large flat lip; the filament flat, extended beyond the anther, with two lateral lobes, and an emarginate middle lobe. It contains a number of species, natives of tropical countries, and almost exclusively of the eastern hemisphere, of which several yield the CARDAMOMS (q. v.) of commerce, and several the spice known by the name of GRAINS OF PARADISE (q. v.). The genus *A.* was formerly more extensive, and included species now forming the genus *Zingiber* (see GINGER), &c.

AMOO'R, or **AMUR**, a river formed by the junction (about lat. 53° N., and long. 120° E.) of the Shilka and the Argoun, which both come from the south-west—the former rising in Russian Siberia, near the head-waters of the Yenisei; and the latter in Chinese Tatary, not far from the sandy plateau of Kobi. From this starting-post, the A. presents, on its right, a tolerably symmetrical curve, which, after receiving, at its most southerly point, the Songari from beyond the Wall of China, besides other considerable feeders on both sides of either segment, enters, on nearly its original parallel, the Gulf of Saghalien, about a degree below the Sea of Okhotsk, properly so called. Great additions have been made to our knowledge of this large and important river within the last few years. It has been ascertained that its basin comprehends about 766,000 square miles, and that its course has a length of about 2500 miles. Steam-boats of light draught ascend it as high as Ust Strelka, at the junction of the Shilka; and that river is navigable for boats to the foot of the Yablonoi range in Eastern Siberia, part of which lies in the basin of the A. The Russians, after conquering Siberia in the 16th c., turned their attention immediately to the advantages which the possession of this river offered. The territory and the people had always been in possession of China—the people sometimes tributaries, at other times conquerors. From as early as 1636, Russian adventurers made excursions into the Chinese territories of the Lower A. In 1666, they built a fort at Albazin, and succeeded in navigating from that fort to the mouth of the river. In 1685, the fort was taken and destroyed by the Chinese, but was re-taken promptly by the Russians, who, however, abandoned it and the whole of the A. to the Chinese. But Russian writers did not cease to keep alive in the minds of their fellow-subjects that the lower A. belonged to them; and the fur-hunters of Siberia, encouraged by government, continued to pursue their vocation on Chinese ground. In 1854—1856, two military expeditions were conducted by Count Muravieff, who twice descended the A. from the mouth of the Shilka, unopposed by the Chinese. This was during the Crimean war. On the arrival of news of peace, the Russians were left to strengthen their positions at the mouth and other parts of the A. In 1857, Count Putiatin endeavoured in vain to obtain from China concessions on the river in favour of Russia. In 1858, the war between the former country and Great Britain and France induced China to agree to the treaty of Tientsin, by which the boundaries of Russia and China were defined. Several towns were, as the result, established by the former of these two powers on the left bank of the A., of which the largest are Khabarooka and Sofyensk; and an A. trading company was established. In 1860, after the occupation of Pekin by the British and French, in less than a month after Lord Elgin and Baron Gros had affixed their signatures to the peace conventions at Pekin, General Ignatieff secured the signature of Prince Kung to a treaty, by which Russia acquired the broad and wide territory comprised between the river A. and the mouth of the Tumên, extending ten degrees of latitude nearer the temperate regions, and running from the shore of the North Pacific eastward to the banks of the river Usuri, a principal affluent of the A. An enormous advantage to Russia of this acquisition of territory was the fact, that it conferred on that country the advantage of harbours on the Pacific in a comparatively temperate latitude, where navigation is impeded by ice for at most three or four months a year. The bay of Passiett, to the south of this region, lying at a point where the Russian, Chinese, and Corean frontiers adjoin each other, possesses a large trading town and a military station. Sixty or seventy miles north is situated the important harbour of Vladivostok ('Rule of the East'), or Port May, which, in 1872, was placed in telegraphic communication with Europe by the China submarine cable, and is now the capital of the Amoor provinces. The island of Saghalien (q. v.), lying immediately north of the Japan group, along a portion of the coast of Asiatic Russia, and formerly possessed partly by that government and partly by Japan, was recently taken entire possession of by the unscrupulous aggressive power which has so stealthily and silently acquired the adjacent A. provinces.

A'MORITES, a powerful nation of C[illegible]an, extending on both sides of the Jordan. [illegible] were vanquished by the Hebrews under Moses. [illegible] lands beyond Jordan were distributed [illegible] tribes of Gad, Reuben, and Manasseh. [illegible] most famous kings were Sihon, king of [illegible] and Og, king of Bashan. Og was the [illegible] giants, or at least of that gigantic race, the [illegible] In Deut. iii. 11, his iron bedstead is [illegible] as measuring 13½ feet in length; [illegible] [illegible] of this verse, with the exceptio[illegible] of is considered by s[illegible]

hold this bedstead to have been Og's cradle, and affirm that his full-grown stature was 120 feet! Joshua subdued, but did not wholly exterminate, the Amorites in Canaan. The residue of this people became tributary under Solomon. (Gen. x. 15–20; xv. 19–21; Numb. xiii. 29; xxi. 13; Deut. xx. 16; xxi. 31; Joshua, ix.)

AMORO'SO, in Music, affectionately, tenderly.

AMO'RPHA. See INDIGO.

AMORPHOPHALLUS. See ARUM.

AMO'RPHOUS (Gr., *a*, priv., *morphè*, form), shapeless. In chemistry, the term A. is used to describe the uncrystallised, in opposition to the crystallised, condition of bodies. There are substances which, in certain conditions, are capable of crystallisation, but in other conditions remain A. Thus, pure sugar contains carbon, which appears as an A. substance after the sugar has been burned in a platina crucible. The same substance, carbon, appears in its crystallised form in the diamond.

A'MOS, the Hebrew prophet, was a herdsman of Tekoa, in the neighbourhood of Bethlehem, and also a dresser of sycamore trees. During the reigns of Uzziah in Judah, and Jeroboam in Israel (about 784 B.C.), he came forward to denounce the idolatry then prevalent. His prophetical writings contain, in the first six chapters, denunciations of the Divine displeasure against several states, particularly that of Israel, on account of the worship of idols. The three remaining chapters contain his symbolical visions of the approaching overthrow of the kingdom of Israel, and lastly, a promise of restoration. The style of A., remarkable for its clearness and picturesque vigour, abounds with images taken from rural and pastoral life. The canonicity of the book of Amos is well attested both by Jewish and Christian authorities.

AMOY', a seaport town of China, in a small island of the same name, in the province of Fu-kien, on the sea-coast, lat. 24° 10' N., long. 118° E. It is an important commercial emporium of the East, and contains a population estimated at 250,000. It is divided into an outer and inner town, and has an outer and inner harbour, the entrance to the former of which, as well as the inner town itself, is fortified. A. has been celebrated as a trading town for more than a thousand years, and was one of the earliest seats of European commerce in China. The Portuguese had establishments here in the 16th, and the Dutch in the 17th centuries. In 1841, it was taken by the British; by the treaty of Nanking, a British consul and British subjects were permitted to reside there. The trade is now open to all nations. The chief imports are rice, cotton-twist, British long cloths, beans, peas, &c.; the exports are tea, sugar, paper, grass-cloths, gold-leaf, &c. Smuggling is carried on extensively. Mr Fortune describes A. as one of the dirtiest towns in the world. It had the misfortune to be taken and pillaged by the Tae-ping rebels, but is now recovering its former prosperity.

AMPERE, ANDRÉ MARIE, a distinguished mathematician and naturalist, was born at Lyon, January 20, 1775. The death of his father, who fell under the guillotine in 1793, made a deep and melancholy impression on the mind of young A., who sought for solace in the study of nature and antiquity. In 1805, after he had been engaged for some time as private mathematical tutor at Lyon, he was called to Paris, where he distinguished himself as an able teacher in the Polytechnic School, and began his career as an author by his essay on the Mathematical Theory of Chances (*Sur la Théorie Mathématique du Jeu*). In 1814, he was elected as a member of the Academy of Sciences; and in 1824, was appointed as Professor of Experimental Physics in the Collége de France. He died June 10, 1836. Scientific progress is largely indebted to A., especially for his electro-dynamic theory and his original views of the identity of electricity and magnetism, as given in his *Recueil d'Observations Electro-dynamiques* (Paris, 1822), and his *Théorie des Phénomènes Electro-dynamiques* (Paris, 1830). These researches prepared the way for the experiments of Dr Faraday. Several of A.'s writings may be found in the *Annales de Physique et de Chimie*.

AMPERE, JEAN JACQUES ANTOINE, son of the above named, Professor of Modern Literature in the Collége de France, at Paris, and member of the French Academy, was born at Lyon, August 12, 1800. He acquired a brilliant reputation, on account of the keen and searching character of his manifold literary efforts. After laying the groundwork of his comprehensive studies in Paris, he proceeded to Italy, Germany, and Scandinavia. In 1829, when he returned from his travels, he saw no prospect of becoming a professor in Paris, and so consented to give a course of lectures on the history of literature at Marseille. After the July revolution, he succeeded Andrieux as professor in the Collége de France, and also took the place of Villemain in the Normal School. In both chairs he taught with great success. He was especially versed in the knowledge of German literature; while his valuable writings upon China, Persia, India, Egypt, and Nubia, as well as his Levantine voyages, proved that the far east itself was embraced within the circle of his studies. A. allowed many of his linguistic and historico-literary investigations to see the light first in reviews, especially the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. In 1833 he published an essay on the relations of French literature to that of other countries in the middle ages; in 1841, an *Essay on the Formation of the French Language*—a most valuable contribution to philology in general; and in 1850, a work entitled *Greece, Rome, and Dante*, which shews his acquaintance with classical and south-European literature. Many of his papers for periodicals have been collected under the title *Littérature et Voyages* (2 vols., Paris, 1834). Deep research and judicious criticism, expressed in a clear and classical style, distinguish his various compositions. He died April 1864.

AMPHIBIA, in the Linnæan system of zoology, a class containing Reptiles and Cartilaginous Fishes. The term *amphibious* (Gr., having a double life) had been previously employed, as it still popularly is, to denote animals capable of sustaining existence for a considerable time either on dry land or in water. Of the animals of the Linnæan class, however, some only are capable of this, whilst some are strictly limited to the one element, and some to the other, and only a very few are truly amphibious, or adapted by the possession of lungs and gills at the same time for breathing either in air or in water. The Linnæan classification was soon altered by the removal of the Cartilaginous Fishes from the class Amphibia, and the name was retained for a class consisting of Reptiles alone—the *Reptilia* of Cuvier. See REPTILES. Some recent naturalists have divided this into two classes, *Reptilia* and *Amphibia*, the former having lungs only, the latter having both lungs and gills; the former including the Chelonian, Saurian, and Ophidian Reptiles; the latter only the Batrachian Reptiles, or the former order Batrachia. But if it must be admitted that these differ from the other orders more than they do from each other, yet the propriety of separating them as a distinct class is not acknowledged by naturalists in general; and only a very few of them possess lungs and gills at the same period of their existence. See BATRACHIA.

AMPHICTYONIC COUNCIL. This central politico-religious court of several Grecian tribes, was held twice a year. In spring, the members assembled in the Temple of Apollo, at Delphi; in autumn, in the Temple of Ceres, at the village of Anthela, near Thermopylæ. Their purpose was twofold: 1. To determine questions of international law; 2. To preserve the religious institutions of the Greeks. As there were many amphictyonics in the early days of Greek history—of which, however, by far the most important was that which forms the subject of our article—it has generally been supposed that they originated out of a desire for social union, and were, consequently, a result of the national instinct for civilisation. Like the Olympic games of a later period, their tendency was to develop a spirit of brotherhood where it was greatly required. The restless Greek intellect, in its application to political life, had naturally an excessive and perilous love of individualism, out of which rose the numerous strifes and animosities of the various states. These councils, on the other hand, were calculated to exert a wholesome centralising influence. They knit together, for a time, the distracted tribes in a bond of common interest and piety. Like the Olympic games, too, they became the occasion of vast gatherings of the Greek peoples, who crowded thither for every variety of purpose, sacred and secular; and thus a feeling of unity and pure national patriotism was, temporarily at least, excited in the popular mind. The special origin of the A. C. or league is unknown, though we know that it was composed of twelve tribes. The ancient writers differ in the names of these; but the list given by the orator Æschines, though containing only eleven, is perhaps the safest to adhere to: the Thessalians, Bœotians, Dorians, Ionians, Perrhæbians, Magnetes, Locrians, Œtæans, Phthiots, Malians, and Phocians. Probably the remaining tribe was the Dolopians, who are mentioned in other accounts. It has been justly concluded that the great preponderance of the northern tribes, who were of the old Pelasgic race, proves the antiquity of the Council. It must have been older than the descent of the Dorians upon the Peloponnesus, or the emigration of the Ionians to the coasts of Asia Minor. Each of the twelve tribes sent to the A. C. two members. These twenty-four representatives possessed equal authority, although some of the tribes were very small, and hardly independent. They bound themselves by an oath that 'they would destroy no city of the Amphictyons, nor cut off their streams in war or peace; and if any should do so, they would march against him and destroy his cities; and should any pillage the property of the god, or be privy to, or plan anything against what was in his temple at Delphi, they would take vengeance on him with hand, and foot, and voice, and all their might' (Æschines). It is only right to state, what indeed most people would naturally conclude for themselves, that so excellent an oath was very indifferently kept. In the primitive period of Greek history, it, in all likelihood, exerted the beneficial and civilising influence of which we have spoken; but it opposed only a feeble check to the passions and ambition of a more powerful age. The members at times connived and even took part in many political crimes, and thus violated their oath. By the time of Demosthenes, the A. C. had ceased to command respect; in the 2d c. after Christ, it still existed, but was then just wavering on the verge of extinction.

AMPHIPOLIS, a city of Macedonia, built on an island at the mouth of the river Strymon, which flowed almost round the town, whence it derived its name (Gr. *amphi*, around, and *polis*, a city). In ancient times its position must have been invaluable, as it commanded the only safe entrance from the Strymonic Gulf into the broad Macedonian plains. It belonged originally to the Edonians, a Thracian people, and was called, on account of the roads which met here, Ennea Hodoi (Nine Ways). The first who attempted to colonise it, Aristagoras of Miletus, was cut off with his followers by the Edonians. The Athenians next tried to gain possession of it. Their first army, amounting to 10,000 men, was utterly cut to pieces at Drabescus, 465 B.C., but their second, 437 B.C., under Agnon, son of Nicias, was successful. The Thracians were expelled, and a new city built, to which Agnon gave the name of A. On account of its situation as an emporium for Upper Thrace, and of its neighbouring forests of timber for ship-building, A. was an important place. In 424 B.C., it was taken from the Athenians by the Spartan Brasidas, was restored to Athens by the Antalcidean treaty of peace, and afterwards was taken by Philip of Macedon. Under the Romans, it was made the capital of East Macedonia. In the middle ages, it was called Popolia. Its site is now occupied by a Turkish town, but a few of its ruins are still visible.

AMPHITHE'ATRE, a spacious building, generally elliptical in form, used by the Romans for exhibiting gladiatorial combats, fights of wild beasts, and other spectacles. The A. differed from a theatre for dramatic performances (*theatrum*) in this, that whereas the theatre had only a semicircle of seats fronting the stage, the A. was entirely surrounded by them; and hence the name of Amphitheatre (Gr. *amphi*, 'on both sides' or 'all round'). Till a late period at Rome, these erections were of wood, and merely temporary, like a modern race-stand. They seem, however, to have been of enormous size, as Tacitus mentions one, during the reign of Tiberius, which gave way, and caused the death or injury of 50,000 spectators. Amphitheatres of stone had begun, however, to be erected at an earlier period than this, the first having been built at the desire of Augustus. The Flavian A. at Rome, known as the Colosseum, which was begun by Vespasian, and finished by

Colosseum.

Titus 80 A.D., ten years after the destruction of Jerusalem, was probably the largest structure of the kind, and is fortunately also the best preserved. It covers about five acres of ground, and was capable of containing 87,000 persons. Its greatest length is 620 feet, and its greatest breadth 513. On the occasion of its dedication by Titus, 5000 wild beasts were

slain in the arena, the games having lasted for nearly 100 days. The exterior is about 160 feet in height, and consists of three rows of columns, Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian, and, above all, a row of Corinthian pilasters. Between the columns there are arches, which form open galleries throughout the whole building; and between each alternate pilaster of the upper tier there is a window. There were four tiers or stories of seats, corresponding to the four external stories. The first of these is supposed to have contained twenty-four rows of seats; and the second, sixteen. These were separated by a lofty wall from the third story, which is supposed to have contained the populace. The *podium* was a kind of covered gallery surrounding the arena, in which the emperor, the senators, and vestal virgins had their seats. The building was covered by a temporary awning or wooden roof, called *velarium*, the mode of adjusting and fastening which has given rise to many antiquarian conjectures. The open space in the centre of the A. was called *arena*, the Latin word for sand, because it was covered with sand or saw-dust during the performances. The taste for the excitement of the A. which existed at Rome, naturally spread to the provinces, and large amphitheatres were erected not only in the provincial towns of Italy, as at Capua, Verona, Pompeii, &c., but at Arles and Nismes, in France; and even in this country, at Cirencester, Silchester, and Dorchester.

AMPHITRITÉ, the daughter of the sea-god Nereus and of Doris—or, according to Apollodorus, of a daughter of Oceanus—was the wife of Neptune. When the latter demanded her in marriage, she fled to Mount Atlas, but was discovered by a dolphin, which Neptune had sent after her, and borne back to him. As goddess and queen of the sea, she is represented with her husband's trident in her hand, sitting in a car of shells drawn by Tritons, or on a dolphin, before which a Cupid swims.

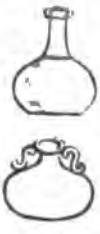
AMPHORA, among the Greeks and Romans, was a large vessel, usually made of clay, shaped like our pitchers, with a narrow neck and two handles (hence the name, from Gr. *amphi*, on both sides, and *phero*, to carry), and often ending in a sharp point below, for being inserted in a stand or in the ground. Several of this sort, and in an upright position, were found in the cellars at Pompeii. The A. was chiefly used for the preservation of various liquids, especially wine, the age of which was marked on tickets affixed to the vessel. There is also evidence that amphorae were employed as cinerary urns and as coffins. The A. among the ancients was likewise a measure for liquids. In Greece, it contained about 9 English gallons. The Roman amphora was only two-thirds of the Greek A. In modern times, *Anfora* is the name of a wine-measure in Venice.

Amphora.

AMPLIFICATION, i.e., enlargement, a term in Rhetoric, meaning that an idea, an opinion, or an inference is presented to the mind, accompanied by accessory circumstances. Its aim is to produce a powerful and vivid impression through the instrumentality of epithets, particulars, or other methods of elaboration. Rhetorical A. is generally produced—1st, by similitude; 2d, by contrast; 3d, by illustrating the universal in the particular; 4th, by piling up logical arguments. *Exaggeration* is an illegitimate kind of A.; being the result of an undue enlargement of particular facts and circumstances.

AMPLITUDE, in Astronomy, is the distance of a heavenly body, at the time of its rising or setting, from the east or the west point of the horizon. When the sun is in the equator (i. e., at the time of either equinox), he rises exactly east, and sets exactly west, and therefore has no A. His A. is at its maximum at midsummer, and again at mid-winter; and that maximum depends upon the latitude of the place, being 23½° at the equator, and increasing to the Arctic Circle, where it becomes 90°. The A. of a fixed star remains constant all the year round.

AMPULLA was a kind of bottle, used by the Romans for the preservation of liquids. It was made either of earthenware or glass, and sometimes, though very rarely, of more costly materials. Great numbers of such vessels have found their way into collections of antiquities. They are generally 'bellied,' i.e., approaching to globular, narrowing towards the mouth, and provided with two handles. They are frequently mentioned in connection with the baths of ancient times. The *A. olearia* was a 'bottle of oil' which the Roman took with him when he went to the bath, and with which he anointed himself after his ablutions. Sometimes the oils were perfumed.



Ampullæ.

The *A. Remensis* (the holy vessel, Fr. *la sainte ampoule*) was the name of that famous vessel in which was contained the unguent (believed to have been brought by a dove from heaven) that anointed Clovis, king of the Franks, at Rheims in 496 A.D., and with which every succeeding monarch of France, down to Louis XVI., was anointed at his coronation. The A. Remensis was shattered, along with a great many more valuable things, at the revolution of 1789; but a fragment of it was preserved by some devout royalist, and handed over at the Restoration to the Archbishop of Rheims. Curious to say, a little of the miraculous substance still remained, which was mixed up with oil, and used to anoint Charles X. in 1825.

AMPUTATION (Lat. *amputo*, I lop or prune) is the cutting off of a part which, by its diseased condition, endangers, or may endanger, the safety of the whole body. The A. of a limb was in ancient times attended with great danger of the patient's dying during its performance, as surgeons had no efficient means of restraining the bleeding. They rarely ventured to remove a large portion of a limb, and when they did so, they cut in the gangrened parts, where they knew the vessels would not bleed; the smaller limbs they chopped off with a mallet and chisel; and in both cases had hot irons at hand with which to sear the raw surfaces, boiling oil in which to dip the stump, and various resins, mosses, and fungi, supposed to possess the power of arresting hæmorrhage. Some tightly bandaged the limbs they wished to remove, so that they mortified and dropped off; and others amputated with red-hot knives, or knives made of wood or horn dipped in vitriol. The desired power of controlling the hæmorrhage was obtained by the invention of the tourniquet (q. v.) in 1674 by a French surgeon Morell. The ancient surgeons endeavoured to save a covering of skin for the stump, by having the skin drawn upwards by an assistant, previously to using the knife. In 1679, Lowdham of Exeter suggested cutting semicircular flaps on one or both sides of a limb, so as to preserve a fleshy cushion to cover the end of the bone. Both these methods are now in use, and are known as the 'circular' and the 'flap' operations: the latter is most frequently used in this country.

A 'flap' amputation is performed thus: The patient being placed in the most convenient position, an assistant compresses the main artery of the limb

with his thumb, or a tourniquet is adjusted over it. Another assistant supports the limb. The surgeon with one hand lifts the tissues from the bone, and transfixing them with a long narrow knife, cuts rapidly downwards and towards the surface of the skin, forming a flap; he then repeats this on the other side of the limb. An assistant now draws up these flaps, and the knife is carried round the bone, dividing any flesh still adhering to it. The surgeon now saws the bone. He then, with a small forceps, seizes the end of the main artery, and drawing it slightly from the tissues, an assistant ties it with a thread. All the vessels being secured, the flaps are stitched together with a needle and thread, and a piece of wet lint is laid over the wound. An expert surgeon can remove a limb thus in from 30 to 60 seconds.

AMRITSIR (*Umritsar*), a city of the Punjab, in N. lat. 31° 40′, and E. long. 74° 45′, containing (1868) 135,813 inhabitants. It is the religious metropolis, a distinction which, along with its name, it owes to its 'pool of immortality,' on an islet of which stands the chief temple of the Sikh faith. A. is a favourite haunt of pilgrims; and it was the place where, perhaps to bind the slippery Sikhs more firmly, was signed the treaty of 1846, for ceding to the British the territory between the Beas and the Sutlej. A. is, next to Delhi, the richest and most prosperous city in Northern India, being connected with the capital, distant 36 miles to the west, by a canal, possessing considerable manufactures of cotton, silks, shawls, &c., and carrying on considerable trade. A. is a station on the Amalgamated Scinde, Punjab, and Delhi Railway; and is the capital of a government district of the same name, consisting of 1556 square miles, with a population (1868) of 834,750.

AMSLER, Samuel, professor of the art of engraving on copper, in the Academy of Arts, Munich, was born December 17, 1791, at Schinznach, in Switzerland, received his first lessons from Lips of Zurich, and afterwards studied under Hess, in Munich. His first great work was an engraving from a Magdalen by Carlo Dolce. In 1816, he went to Rome, where, in several engravings of statues by Thorwaldsen, he succeeded well in uniting the characteristics of the originals with the simple style of Marcus Antonio. Aided by Barth and Hildburghausen, he engraved a title-page for the *Lay of the Nibelungen*, from a design by Cornelius. During his second sojourn in Rome (1820—1824), he began his great work, an engraving of 'Alexander's Triumphal Procession,' by Thorwaldsen. At Munich, in 1831, he finished his large plate of the 'Burial of Christ,' by Raphael, which, with his engraving of a statue of Christ, by Dannecker, displayed the highest qualities of imitative art. These works were followed by a 'Holy Family,' from Raphael, and the 'Madonna di Casa Tempi.' His last great work was an engraving from Overbeck's 'Triumph of Religion in the Arts.' A. died May 18, 1849. His style is marked by a clear and noble treatment of form, rather than by strong contrast of tones. Few engravers have equalled A. in his deep knowledge and faithful representation of the works of Raphael.

AMSTERDAM, or AMSTELDAM (the dam or dike of the Amstel), the chief city of the Netherlands, is situated at the confluence of the Amstel with the Ij (pronounced Eye), an arm of the Zuiderzee, and is divided by the former, and numerous canals, into small islands, connected by about 300 bridges. Almost the whole city, which extends in the shape of a crescent, is founded on piles. At the beginning of the 13th c., it was merely a fishing-village, with a small castle, the residence of the Lords of Amstel. In 1296, on account of the murder of Count Floris of Holland, the rising town was demolished, and its inhabitants were compelled to leave it. Afterwards, with Amstelland (the district on the banks of the Amstel), it was taken under the protection of the Counts of Holland, and under them enjoyed several privileges which contributed to its subsequent prosperity. In 1482, it was walled and fortified. It soon rose to be the first commercial place in the united states of the Netherlands; in 1585 was considerably enlarged by the building of the new town on the west; and in 1622 had 100,000 inhabitants. This prosperity excited the envy of its neighbours. The English, under Leicester, in 1587, and William II., Prince of Orange, in 1650, endeavoured to gain possession of the flourishing city; but their designs were frustrated by the good management of the burgomasters of A. In the 17th c., the war with England so far reduced the commerce of A., that in the year 1653, about 4000 houses were uninhabited. Prosperity was restored during the next century, and, though commerce was again injured by the disputes with England in 1781 and 1782, it once more revived. The union of Holland with France in 1810 entirely destroyed the foreign trade of A., while the excise and other new regulations impoverished its inland resources; but the old firms proved strong enough to live through the time of difficulty, and in 1815 commerce again began to expand.

The city has a fine appearance, when seen from the harbour, or from the high bridge over the Amstel. Numerous church towers and spires rise on every side, and relieve the flatness of the prospect. The old ramparts have been levelled, planted with trees, and formed into promenades. Rich grassy meadows surround the city. On the west side are a great number of windmills for grinding corn and sawing wood. The three principal canals in A., on each side of which, with a carriage-way and row of trees intervening, the gentlemen's residences are built, run in semicircles within each other, and are from 2 to 3 miles long, called the Heerengracht, Keizer'sgracht, and Princengracht. The houses are built principally of brick, and have their gables towards the streets, which gives them a very picturesque appearance. In old times, A. was strongly fortified; but now its only defence consists in the sluices, which can flood in a few hours the surrounding land. A hard frost, however, like that of 1794—5, when Pichegru entered the city, would render even this means of defence useless.

The population, which in 1820 numbered 180,000, had increased to 264,694 at the end of 1869. The majority are Dutch Calvinists. Of the remainder, the most numerous are the Roman Catholics, the Lutherans, Jews, and Baptists. The chief industrial establishments are sugar refineries, engineering works, mills for polishing diamonds and other precious stones, dockyards, manufactories of sails, ropes, tobacco, silks, gold and silver plate and jewellery, colours and chemical preparations, breweries, distilleries, with export houses for corn and colonial produce; cotton-spinning, book-printing, and type-founding are also carried on. Among the public buildings, the former Stadhuis, converted into a palace for King Louis Bonaparte, and still retained by the present reigning family, is a noble and imposing structure, raised upon 13,659 piles, and extending 282 feet in length, by 206 feet in breadth, surmounted by a round tower, rising 327 feet from the base. It is chiefly remarkable for the great hall, 111 feet long, 52 feet wide, and 90 feet high, lined with white Italian marble—an apartment of great splendour.

ieuwe *Kerk* (New Church), founded in 1408, est ecclesiastical structure in the city. Its especially admired. It contains the Admiral de Ruyter, of the famous Dutch del, and of various other notable persons. Church (*Oude Kerk*), built in the 14th c., several monuments of naval heroes. Literature, and recreation are not forgotten in the of business, for A. has its Academy of Arts ces, an excellent Museum of paintings by asters, a library, several harmonic societies, al and a zoological garden, and several The hospital for aged people, the poor-use of correction, the orphan asylums, ion school, and many benevolent societies, supported, and managed on good prin-arge ships reach the city by the North Canal (52 miles in length) from Nieuwe , if drawing more than 15½ feet of water, ; discharge a large part of the cargo. To is delay and expense, the Ij has been from the Zuiderzee by a sea-dike, with e admitting the small inland ships, and machinery capable of discharging 2500 tres of water per minute. Two piers are lt into the North Sea, near Wijk aan Zee, harbour. The peninsula has been cut by hich is continued through the Ij, and pleted, will admit vessels drawing 22 feet A., reducing also the distance from 52 to the length of the new canal. In carrying works, 5560 acres of excellent land have een reclaimed from the Ij, and when the amount will be more than doubled.

ERDAM, a barren islet in lat. 38° 53′ S., 77° 37′ E., the home of sea-birds, shell-fish, It is worthy, however, of notice at once ucture and its situation. Manifestly of rigin, it still possesses a burning soil and ; and along with its single neighbour, miles to the north-east, it is about mid-e direct line between the Cape of Good Van Diemen's Land, being also at nearly listance from Cape Comorin.

ET, any object worn as a charm. It is ne, or piece of metal, with an inscription figures engraved on it, and is generally from the neck, and worn as a preserv-nst sickness, witchcraft, &c. Its origin, ame, seems to be oriental. The ancient had their amulets, sometimes forming Among the Greeks, such a protective

Egyptian Amulet.

s styled *phylacterion*; among the Romans. This word is probably derived from ic *hamalé* ('what is suspended'). The es of the Jews (see Matthew, xxiii. 5), slips ment on which passages of the Law were ere evidently worn as badges of piety by ers; but were also regarded as wholesome ves from evil spirits, and from all manner From the heathen, the use of amulets to the Christian Church, the inscription being *ichthus* (the Greek word for a fish), contained the initials of the Greek words for Jesus Christ, Son of God, Saviour. See ABBREVIATIONS. Among the Gnostic sects, Abraxas stones (q. v.) were much used. Amulets soon became so common among Christians that, in the 4th c., the clergy were interdicted from making and selling them on pain of deprivation of holy orders; and in 721, the wearing of amulets was solemnly condemned by the Church. Among the Turks and many other nations of Central Asia, every person considers it necessary to wear a preservative charm. With the spread of Arabian astronomy, the astrological A. or talisman (q. v.) of the Arabs found its way to Europe. Kopp, a German author, has written a work, *Palæographica Critica*, on amulets and their inscriptions. Among amulets in repute in the middle ages were the coins attributed to St Helena, the mother of Constantine. These and other coins marked with a cross were thought specially efficacious against epilepsy, and are generally found perforated, for the purpose of being worn suspended from the neck.—The belief in the virtue of amulets is not yet extinct among the uneducated.

AMY'CLÆ, an old Laconian town, was situated on the eastern bank of the Eurotas, 20 stadia south-east of Sparta, in a richly wooded and fertile region. It was a famous city in the heroic age, the abode of Tyndarus and his spouse Leda, who bore to Jupiter the twins, Castor and Pollux (called *Amycleæ Fratres*, the Amyclæan brothers), and also Helena. Long after the Dorians had subjugated and peopled the rest of the Peloponnesus, A. continued to be a free Achæan town. It was conquered by the Spartans only before the first Messenian War, and in consequence of a curious and absurd law. The inhabitants were so often agitated by false rumours of the approach of the Spartans, that, growing tired of living in a state of continual alarm, they decreed that no one should henceforth mention or even take notice of these disagreeable fictions. Unfortunately, the Spartans *did* come at length, and according to the Greek saying, 'A. perished through silence.' Hence the proverb, *Amyclis ipsis taciturnior* (More silent than A. itself). After its conquest, A. became a village, noted only for its annual festival of the Hyacinthia, and its temple of Apollo, with the colossal statue of the god himself.—A., an ancient city on the coast of Campania, Italy, said to have been built by a colony from the Greek A. It had ceased to exist in the time of Pliny.

AMYGDALEÆ, or DRUPACEÆ, according to some botanists, a natural order of dicotyledonous plants, but more generally regarded as a sub-order of ROSACEÆ. The species are all trees or shrubs. They have the tube of the calyx lined with a disk, the pistil a solitary simple carpel with a terminal style, the fruit a drupe. For other botanical characters, see ROSACEÆ. The bark yields gum, and hydrocyanic acid is present in very notable quantity in different parts, as the leaves, kernels, &c. The A. are chiefly natives of the cold and temperate regions of the northern hemisphere. Some of them yield valuable fruits; and various products of the order are used in medicine. See ALMOND, PEACH, NECTARINE, PLUM, CHERRY, and CHERRY LAUREL. This order or sub-order contains about 110 known species.

AMYGDALOID (from *amygdalus*, an almond), a rock, consisting of a basis of some kind of trap rock, very frequently of greenstone, forming numerous roundish or oval cells, which are filled with nodules, often of calcareous spar or of zeolitic minerals. The cells are not of large size, but even those which are almost adjacent differ much in this respect. The nodules are evidently the result of a sublimation and imperfect crystallisation, under the action of the

heat which formed the cells. Empty cells often occur amongst those which are filled with minerals. The name A. is sometimes extended to rocks of the same character, although the basis be not of trap.

AMYLA'CEOUS (from *amylum*, starch), a term used in Chemistry and Botany, and equivalent to starchy.—*A. food* is food consisting at least in great part of some kind of starch, as arrow-root, sago, &c.—A compound radical, called *amyle*, is formed by the decomposition of starch in a peculiar fermentation—the *amylic fermentation*—but to it the term A. has no reference.

AMYLIC ALCOHOL. See FUSEL OIL.

AMYOT, or AMIOT, JACQUES, a French writer, well known by his excellent translations of the Greek classics, was born in 1513, and died in 1593. Racine highly esteemed the translations by A., of which the version of Plutarch is one of the best, and has passed through several editions.—AMIOT, Joseph, a celebrated Jesuit and oriental scholar, was born at Toulon in 1718, and lived as a missionary in China from 1750 to the time of his death, in 1794. His knowledge of the Chinese and Tatar languages enabled him to collect many valuable notices of antiquities, history, language, and arts, in China. Many of his writings may be found in the *Mémoires concernants l'Histoire, les Sciences et les Arts des Chinois* (15 vols. Paris, 1776—1791). His *Dictionnaire Tatar-Mantchou-Français* was edited by Langlès in 1789.

AMYRIDA'CEÆ, a natural order of dicotyledonous or exogenous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, natives of tropical countries, remarkable for the abundance of their fragrant balsamic or resinous juice. They have compound leaves, occasionally with stipules and pellucid dots. The flowers are in racemes or panicles; the calyx persistent, with 2—5 divisions; the petals are 3—5; æstivation valvate or imbricated. The stamens are twice or four times as many as the petals. The ovary is superior, sessile, 1—5-celled, inserted in a large disk; the style solitary and compound, or wanting; the stigmas as many as the cells of the ovary; the ovules in pairs, anatropal. The fruit is hard and dry, 1—5 celled, its outer rind often splitting into valves. The seeds are exalbuminous. About forty or fifty species are referred to the order; but many of them are still very imperfectly known. Some species afford valuable timber; but the principal products of the order are fragrant resins and balsams, as MYRRH (q. v.), and different kinds of FRANKINCENSE (q.v.), OLIBANUM (q. v.), ELEMI (q. v.), BDELLIUM (q. v.), TACAMAHAC (q. v.), BALSAM OF GILEAD (q. v.), &c. Among the more important genera of the order may be named *Amyris*, *Balsamodendron*, *Boswellia*, and *Icica*.—*Canarium commune*, a native of Java, which yields a gum similar in its properties to the BALSAM OF COPAIVA (q. v.), produces also triangular nuts, which are eaten both raw and dressed, and from which an oil is extracted for the table and for burning. *Balanites Egyptiaca* is cultivated in Egypt for its fruit, a drupe, which is eaten, and from the seeds of which a fat oil is expressed, called *Zachun*.

A'NA, a termination added to the names of remarkable men, to designate collections of their sayings, anecdotes, &c.; as in the works entitled *Baconiana*, *Johnsoniana*. Such titles were first used in France, where they became common after the publication of *Scaligerana* by the brothers Dupuy (Hague, 1666). In English literature, there are many works of this kind. America, also, has its *Washingtoniana*. A tolerably complete catalogue of works with such titles may be found in Namur's *Bibliographie des Ouvrages publiés sous le Nom d'Ana* (Brussels, 1839).

ANABA'PTISTS, a term applied generally to those Christians who reject infant baptism, and administer the rite only to adults; so that when a new member joins them, he or she is baptised a second time, the first being considered no baptism. The name (Gr. to baptise again) is thus owing to an accidental circumstance, and is disclaimed by the more recent opponents of infant baptism, both on the continent and in Great Britain.

The origin of the sect cannot be distinctly traced; but it is manifestly connected with the controversy about infant baptism carried on in the early church. Opposition to this doctrine was kept alive in the various so-called heretical sects that went by the general name of Cathari (i. e., purists), such as the Waldenses, Albigenses, &c. Shortly after the beginning of the Reformation, the opposition to infant baptism appeared anew, especially among a set of fanatical enthusiasts called the Prophets of Zwickau, in Saxony, at whose head were Thomas Münzer (q. v.) (1520) and others. Münzer went to Waldshut, on the borders of Switzerland, which soon became a chief seat of anabaptism, and a centre whence visionaries and fanatics spread over Switzerland. They pretended to new revelations, dreamed of the establishment of the kingdom of heaven on earth, and summoned princes to join them, on pain of losing their temporal power. They rejected infant baptism, and taught that those who joined them must be baptised anew with the baptism of the Spirit; they also proclaimed the community of goods, and the equality of all Christians. These doctrines naturally fell in with and supported the 'Peasant War' (q. v.) that had about that time (1525) broken out from real causes of oppression. The sect spread rapidly through Westphalia, Holstein, and the Netherlands, in spite of the severest persecutions. The battle of Frankenhausen (see MÜNZER) crushed their progress in Saxony and Franconia. Still, scattered adherents of the doctrines continued, and were again brought together in various places by travelling preachers. In this capacity, one Melchior Hoffmann, a furrier of Swabia, distinguished himself, who appeared as a visionary preacher in Kiel in 1527, and in Emden in 1528. In the last town he installed a baker, John Matthiesen, of Haarlem, as bishop, and then went to Strasburg, where he died in prison. Matthiesen began to send out apostles of the new doctrine. Two of these went to Münster, where they found fanatical coadjutors in the Protestant minister Rothmann, and the burghers Knipperdolling and Krechting, and were shortly joined by the tailor Bockhold of Leyden, and Gerrit Kippenbrock of Amsterdam, a bookbinder, and at last by Matthiesen himself. With their adherents, they soon made themselves masters of the city; Matthiesen set up as a prophet, and when he lost his life in a sally against the Bishop of Münster, who was besieging the town, Bockhold and Knipperdolling took his place. The churches were now destroyed, and twelve judges were appointed over the tribes, as among the Israelites; and Bockhold (1534) had himself crowned king of the 'New Sion,' under the name of John of Leyden. The anabaptist madness in Münster now went beyond all bounds. The city became the scene of the wildest licentiousness; until several Protestant princes, uniting with the bishop, took the city, and by executing the leaders, put an end to the new kingdom (1535).

But the principles disseminated by the A. were not so easily crushed. As early as 1533 the adherents of the sect had been driven from Emden, and taken refuge in the Netherlands; and in Amsterdam the doctrine took root and spread. Bockhold also had sent out apostles, some of whom had given up the wild fanaticism of their master; they let alone the

community of goods and women, and taught the other doctrines of the A., and the establishment of a new kingdom of pure Christians. They grounded their doctrines chiefly on the Apocalypse. One of the most distinguished of this class was David Joris, a glass-painter of Delft (1501—1556). Joris united liberalism with anabaptism, devoted himself to mystic theology, and sought to effect a union of parties. He acquired many adherents, who studied his Book of Miracles (*Wunderbuch*), which appeared at Deventer in 1542, and looked upon him as a sort of new Messiah. Being persecuted, he withdrew from his party, lived inoffensively at Basle, under the name of John of Bruges, and died there in the communion of the reformed church. It was only in 1559 that his heretical doctrines came to light, when the council of Basle had the bones of Joris dug up, and burned under the gallows.

The rude and fanatical period of the history of anabaptism closes with the scandal of Münster. A new era begins with Menno Simons. (See MENNO.) Surrounded by dangers, Menno succeeded, by prudent zeal, in collecting the scattered adherents of the sect, and in founding congregations in the Netherlands, and in various parts of Germany. He called the members of the community 'God's Congregation, poor, unarmed Christians, brothers;' later, they took the name of Mennonites, and at present they call themselves, in Germany, Taufgesinnte; in Holland, Doopsgezinden- corresponding very nearly to the English designation Baptists. This, besides being a more appropriate designation, avoids offensive association with the early Anabaptists. Menno expounded his principles in his *Fundamentboeke von dem rechten Christlichen Glauben*, 1556 (Elements of the True Christian Faith). This book is still an authority among the body, who lay particular stress on receiving the doctrines of the Scripture with simple faith, and acting strictly up to them, and set no value on learning and the scientific elaboration of doctrines. They reject the taking of oaths, war, every kind of revenge, divorce (except for adultery), infant baptism, and the undertaking of the office of magistrate; magistracy, they hold to be an institution necessary for the present, but foreign to the kingdom of Christ; the church is the community of the saints, which must be kept pure by strict discipline. With regard to grace, they profess universalism, or hold it to be designed for all, and their views of the Lord's Supper fall in with those of Zwingli; in its celebration, the rite of feet-washing is retained. In Germany, Switzerland, and Alsace, their form of worship differs little from the Lutheran. Their bishops, elders, and teachers serve gratis. Children receive their name at birth, baptism is performed in the place of worship, and adults that join the sect are rebaptised.

But along with these general principles, there have been endless diversities and splits in the sect, occasioned by differences as to strictness of discipline. This cause divided the body, as early as 1554, into the Mild and the Strict Mennonites. The first are known by the title of Waterländers, from a place in Holland; the second split again into a multitude of subdivisions, according to minute shades of strictness, and their several designations, derived from the names of leaders, places, and even peculiarities of dress (John-Jacob Christians, Buttoners, Hook-and-eye-ers, &c.), bewilder the student of ecclesiastical history. The purity of their lives, however, commanded everywhere respect, and their industry made them prosperous; so that they gradually secured formal toleration in many places.

Almost the only split among the early continental Baptists on doctrinal grounds was that which took place in Amsterdam in 1664. Arminianism had not been without its influence, especially among the Waterländers, originally more liberal in their views. A leading congregation accordingly divided into two parties, one (Galenists, from Galenus, their leader) advocating freer views in doctrine and discipline; the other (Apostoolists, from Samuel Apostool) adhering to absolute predestination and the discipline of Menno. The liberal party rejected creeds as of human invention, adopted much of the philosophy and theology of England, and exercised no little influence on the intellectual progress of Holland. These two parties gradually absorbed the other sections of the Baptists in the Netherlands; and about the beginning of the nineteenth century, a union took place by which all the congregations now belong to one body.

In Germany, the Baptists have made some attempts in more recent times to extend their church with considerable success. Under the Baptist Union of Germany (which, although including churches in Holland, Poland, and other countries, derives its strength largely from Prussia), there were, in 1872, 103 churches, with 19,393 members. In Prussia, various concessions had been made to the Baptists early in this century, such as exemption from military service. They were tolerated in Bavaria, Baden, Wurtemberg, Mecklenburg, Russia, France, and Denmark; but were expelled from Sweden. Wherever they are settled, they are respected as quiet, industrious subjects; but several German governments have imposed restrictions on their exercise of public worship; the reason assigned being the tendency to visionary enthusiasm, which had again shewn itself in some congregations.

As the representatives of the sect in Great Britain and North America have little or no historical connection with the earlier A. of the continent, they fall more properly to be noticed under BAPTISTS.

ANABA'SIDÆ, or **LABYRINTHIBRANCHIDÆ**, a family of Acanthopterygious Fishes, characterised by a remarkable structure of the upper membranes of the pharynx, which are divided into small irregular leaves, containing between them cellular reservoirs. These retain water sufficient to keep the gills moist for a considerable time, and so enable the fish to subsist out of water, and to travel some distance on dry ground; some of the species, as the Climbing Perch (q. v.) of India (*Anabas scandens*), climbing steep banks, or even trees, by means of the spines of the fins, tail, and gill-covers. *Ophicephalus marginatus* is often seen travelling among the grass in the beginning of the rainy season. The fishes of this family appear to leave the water for various reasons; but very commonly, it would appear, upon account of the drying up of pools in periodical droughts, their peculiar organisation enabling them to go in search of others. They are all fresh-water fishes, natives of the south-east of Asia, continent and islands, and of South Africa. The species are numerous, and are arranged under eleven genera. Some of them are much esteemed for their delicacy as food.

ANA'BASIS (Greek), literally, an ascent or a march out of a lower into a higher country: the name of two historical works: 1. The *A. of Cyrus*, written by Xenophon, which gives a narrative of the unfortunate expedition of the Younger Cyrus against his brother, the Persian king Artaxerxes, and of the retreat of his 10,000 Greek allies under the command of Xenophon; 2. The *A. of Alexander*, written by Arrian, and giving an account of the campaigns of Alexander the Great.

ANABLEPS (from the Gr. *anablepo*, to look up), a genus of fishes of the order *Malacopterygii Abdominales*, family *Cyprinidæ* of Cuvier—of the family

Cyprinodontidæ (q. v.) of Agassiz—characterised by a structure of the eyes to which there is nothing similar in any other vertebrated animals. This consists in a division of the *cornea* and *iris* into two somewhat unequal elliptical parts, by transverse bands formed of the *conjunctiva* (see EYE), so that the animal appears to have four eyes, and there are really two pupils on each side, the other parts of the eye being single. This peculiarity of structure is supposed to be connected with a habit which these fishes are said to have of swimming with the eyes partly out of the water. They are elongated, scaly fishes, with flattish rounded back, and depressed head. The young are brought forth alive, and in a state of considerable advancement. The best known species, *A. tetrophthalmus*, inhabits the rivers of Guiana and Surinam.

ANACARDIA'CEÆ (TEREBINTACEÆ of some botanists, and part of TEREBINTACEÆ of others), a natural order of dicotyledonous or exogenous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, which abound in a resinous, sometimes acrid and poisonous juice. The leaves are alternate and without dots; the flowers inconspicuous, usually unisexual. The calyx is generally small and persistent, and has generally five divisions; the petals are perigynous, equal in number to the segments of the calyx, imbricated in æstivation, occasionally wanting. The stamens are equal in number to the petals, and alternate with them, or twice as many, or more; distinct when there is a fleshy disk, cohering at the base when the disk is wanting. The ovary is usually single, free or adhering to the calyx, 1-celled; the styles 1, 3, or 4, occasionally wanting; the ovule solitary, attached to the bottom of the cell by a cord. The fruit is usually a drupe, the seed exalbuminous. The order contains about 95 known species, chiefly but not exclusively tropical, amongst which are a considerable number valuable for the resinous juices and varnishes which they yield, as the varnish of Sylhet, varnish of Martaban, Japan lacker, &c., and others, which produce wholesome and pleasant fruits. See CASHEW NUT, PISTACIA, MASTIC, TURPENTINE TREE, MANGO, HOG PLUM.

ANACA'RDIUM. See CASHEW NUT.

ANA'CHARIS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Hydrocharideæ* (q. v.), of which a species, *A. alsinastrum* (*Elodea Canadensis* of some botanists), has recently become naturalised in Britain, suddenly appearing in so great abundance as to impede the navigation of some rivers and canals. It is a native of North America, growing in ponds and slow streams; and is a dark-green, much-branched perennial, entirely floating under water, its flowers only appearing above water for a very short time at the period of fertilisation, as in others of the order to which it belongs. It has numerous leaves, which are either opposite, or in whorls of three or four, without foot-stalks, linear oblong, transparent, 3–4 lines long. The female flowers are sessile in the upper axils, and are enclosed in a small 2-lobed spathe; the slender tube of the perianth is often two or three inches long, so as to attain the surface of the water, where it terminates in three or six small spreading segments. The male flowers are seldom observed. The plant was first found in Britain in 1842, by the late Dr Johnston of Berwick, in the lake of Dunse Castle; and again in 1847 by Miss Kirby, in the reservoirs of a canal in Leicestershire. It is now very abundant and troublesome in the Trent, Derwent, and other rivers. Its rapidity of growth is extraordinary. Immense masses disfigure the shallows of the Trent, and cover the beds of the deeps. It strikes its shoots under the mud in a lateral direction for six inches or a foot, and then rises and spreads. The stems are very brittle, and every fragment is capable of growing, so that the means usually adopted to get quit of it serve rather for its propagation. It appears, however, that waterfowl are very fond of it; and by them, probably, its seeds may be conveyed from one river to another. It has been found that swans may be fed upon it with advantage, and its excessive growth kept down more effectually in this way than in any other. It is supposed to be a great impediment to the progress of salmon ascending the rivers in which it occurs; but for some kinds of fish, it probably affords both food and shelter. The manner of its introduction into Britain is unknown, although it has been conjectured that it may have escaped from some garden-pond—a conjecture the more doubtful, from the distance between the localities in which it was first found; but its rapid increase is of great scientific interest, in connection with the important subject of the distribution of species. As being calculated to block up water-courses, the plant involves some serious economic considerations.

Anacharis Alsinastrum.

ANACHA'RSIS, a Scythian and brother of King Saulios, visited Athens in the time of Solon, with whom he lived on terms of intimacy, but whose abilities for framing a constitution he does not seem to have estimated highly. Incited by a love of learning, he subsequently travelled through several countries. On account of his clearness of understanding, he was numbered among the seven wise men; and many sagacious proverbs and sayings were ascribed to him. No other 'barbarian' ever received the Athenian franchise. The letters which bear his name were written long after his time. It is said that, after his return to his native land, he was put to death by order of the king, who feared the introduction of the mysteries belonging to the Greek religion, in which it was supposed that A. had been initiated.

Under the title, *Voyage du Jeune Anacharsis en Grèce* (Travels of the young Anacharsis in Greece), Jean Jacques Barthélemy, a well-known French author (q. v.), wrote a description of Greek life and manners, displaying learning and good taste, but disfigured by many anachronisms. A. is made to visit Athens only a few years before the birth of Alexander the Great, and the features of several distinct periods in Grecian history are confusedly regarded as having been contemporaneous. The book, therefore, will not bear a critical examination; but it has contributed its share towards an improved knowledge of ancient life, and has given rise to several similar works, such as the *Gallus* and *Charicles* of Becker. The A. of Barthélemy has been translated into English, and is to be found in most old libraries; it is still a deservedly esteemed work, which may be read with advantage by the young.

ANA'CHRONISM, an error in chronology. Sometimes an A. is purposely made for the sake of effect, or to bring certain events within convenient

compass for dramatic purposes. Shakspeare, in his *Julius Cæsar*, makes the '*clock*' strike three; and Schiller, in his *Piccolomini*, speaks of a 'lightning-conductor' as existing about 150 years before the date of its invention. These discrepancies, however, do not seriously injure the general truth of a poetical work. The A. is more offensive when, in a work which pedantically adheres to the costumes and other external features of old times, we find a modern style of thought and language, as in the old French dramas of Corneille and Racine. In popular epic poetry, A. is a common feature. Achilles is always young; Helena, always beautiful. In their versions of old classic traditions, the writers of the middle ages converted Alexander, Æneas, and other ancient heroes, into good Christian knights of the 12th c. In the *Nibelungen-lied*, Attila and Theodoric are good friends and allies, though the latter began to reign some 40 years after the former. At the end of the poem, the heroine, who must have been nearly sixty years old, and had passed through great affliction and sorrow, is still 'the beautiful Queen Kriemhild'—Many ludicrous examples of A. may be found in old paintings—e.g., Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob in modern costumes.

ANACREON, one of the most esteemed lyric poets of Greece, was born at Teos, a seaport of Ionia, spent part of his youth in Abdera, to which place most of his fellow-townsmen emigrated when the city was taken by the Persians in 540 B.C., and rose to fame as a poet about 530 B.C. He was patronised by Polycrates, the ruler of Samos, who invited him to his court; and there he sang, in light and flowing strains, the praise of wine and beauty. After the death of Polycrates, he went to Athens (521 B.C.), and was received with distinguished honour by Hipparchus. On the fall of Hipparchus, he left Athens, and probably returned to Teos, from which, during the insurrection of Ionia against Darius, he fled to Abdera, where he died, at the age of 85. According to tradition, he was choked by a dried grape. Great honours were paid to him after his death; Teos put his likeness upon its coins, and a statue was raised to him on the Acropolis of Athens, which represented him in a state of vinous hilarity.

Only a few of his poems have been preserved. Of five Books which once existed, only 68 lyrics now exist which bear his name; but of these, comparatively few are to be confidently regarded as genuine. They exhibit great simplicity and delicacy of expression, fertility of invention, and variety of illustration. Moore, a poet of congenial spirit, translated the *Odes* of A. into English verse.

ANACYCLUS. See PELLITORY OF SPAIN.

ANADYO'MENE ('emerging'), one of the names of Venus; a painting by Apelles, representing Venus rising from the sea, and wringing her flowing wet hair. Phryne or Pancaste was supposed to have supplied the model for this master-piece of Apelles. The inhabitants of the island of Cos bought the picture, and placed it in the temple of Æsculapius. Augustus afterwards bought it for 100 talents of remitted taxes, and placed it in the temple of Venus Genetrix. It is frequently described in the Greek anthology.

ANÆMIA (from *a*, privative, and *aima*, blood) is the condition generally termed poverty of blood, and consists essentially of a diminution in the fibrine, and especially in the proportion of red corpuscles of the blood (see BLOOD), which in some cases of A. may be so low as 27 in 1000 parts. Persons in an anæmic condition have pale waxy complexions, pallid lips and tongues, and if blood be drawn from them, it forms a clot which is less red, and also smaller in proportion to the serum, than blood from a healthy person.

They suffer from palpitations, fainting, and headaches, singing in the ears, and disturbed vision; and the symptoms may simulate organic disease within the head or of the heart. This A. condition may be induced by repeated losses of blood, or by defective nutrition, or by some cause, as in chlorosis, when the balance is disturbed between the loss and reproduction of the red corpuscles.

The curative treatment of A. consists in allowing the patient fresh air, good nourishment, and those materials which promote the formation of the deficient elements of the vital fluid. Of these, the principal is iron, of which there are several preparations. This remedy has, in some instances of chlorosis, doubled the proportion of red blood corpuscles in a very short time.

ANÆSTHESIA (*a*, privative, and *aisthesis*, sensation) is a term used to express a loss of sensibility to external impressions, which may involve a part or the whole surface of the body. In some diseased conditions of the nervous centres, a part of the body may become totally insensible to pain, while in another part, sensation may be unnaturally acute, or be in a state of hyperæsthesia. When a nerve is divided, there is no feeling of touch or pain referred to the parts which it supplies, because these are cut off from communication with the brain; and in some diseases, as the *elephantiasis græcorum*, a loss of sensation in patches of the skin is an early and characteristic symptom. This insensibility to external impressions may be either *peripheral* that is, on the surface of the body—or *central*, that is, from a cause acting primarily upon the brain or spinal cord.

In ancient writers, we read of insensibility or indifference to pain being obtained by means of Indian hemp (*Cannabis Indica*), either inhaled or taken into the stomach. The Chinese, more than 1500 years ago, used a preparation of hemp, or *ma-yo*, to annul pain. The Greeks and Romans used mandragora for a similar purpose (*poiein anaisthêsian*); and as late as the 13th c., the vapour from a sponge filled with mandragora, opium, and other sedatives was used. The mandragora, however, occasionally induced convulsions, with other alarming symptoms; and though Bulleyn, an English author (1579), mentions the possibility of putting patients who were to be cut for the stone into 'a trance or a deepe terrible dreame' by its use, it gradually became obsolete and banished from the pharmacopœia. John Baptista Porta, of Naples, in his work on Natural Magic (1597), speaks of a quintessence extracted from medicines by somniferous *menstrua*. This was kept in leaden vessels, perfectly closed, lest the *aura* should escape, for the medicine would vanish away. 'When it is used, the cover being removed, it is applied to the nostrils of the sleeper, who draws in the most subtile power of the vapour by smelling, and so blocks up the fortress of the senses, that he is plunged into the most profound sleep, and cannot be roused without the greatest effort. . . . . These things are plain to the skilful physician, but unintelligible to the wicked.' In 1784, Dr Moore, of London, used compression on the nerves of a limb requiring amputation, but this method was in itself productive of much pain. In 1800, Sir Humphry Davy, experimenting with the nitrous oxide or laughing-gas, suggested its usefulness as an anæsthetic; and in 1828, Dr Hickman suggested carbonic acid gas. As early as 1795, Dr Pearson had used the vapour of sulphuric ether for the relief of spasmodic affections of the respiration. The fact that sulphuric ether could produce insensibility was shewn by the American physicians,

Godwin (1822), Mitchell (1832), Jackson (1833), Wood and Bache (1834); but it was first used to prevent the pain of an operation in 1846, by Dr Morton, a dentist of Boston. The news of his success reached England on 17th December 1846; on the 19th, Mr Robinson, a dentist, and Mr Liston, the eminent surgeon, operated on patients rendered insensible by the inhalation of sulphuric ether. This material was extensively used for a year, when Sir J. Y. Simpson, of Edinburgh, discovered the anæsthetic powers of *Chloroform* (see CHLOROFORM), and introduced the use of it into his own department, midwifery. Since that time, chloroform has been the anæsthetic in general use in Europe, but ether is preferred in America. It is now the opinion of most medical men, that chloroform should not be given where there is weak action of the heart from disease. Other substances have been used by inhalation, such as nitric ether, and bichloride of methylene. The latter substance has been recommended by Dr Richardson, of London; but it has not been generally accepted, as it depresses to a dangerous extent after it has been administered for some time.

Nothing could be more desirable than the power of producing *local* A. Freezing mixtures have been employed; a stream of carbonic acid or cooled air, or a finely divided spray of ether, have been thrown on the part. All of these methods have the disadvantage that they injure the tissues, and may be followed by much pain. An agent which would benumb the sensory nerves, without injuring them or the neighbouring parts, is still a great want. Recently, in dentistry, the inhalation of nitrous oxide has been much employed. It is rapid in action, and is not usually followed by unpleasant effects; but as it induces a condition in the blood similar to that in asphyxia, its use is not unattended with danger. Chloroform continues to occupy its high place as one of the greatest blessings granted to man. It is proper, however, to say that it requires to be used under certain precautions, and that in unskilful hands its application may be fatal.

See *On Chloroform and other Anæsthetics*, by John Snow (Lond. 1858); *The Obstetric Memoirs and Contributions* of James Y. Simpson (Edin. 1855).

ANAGALLIS. See PIMPERNEL.

A'NAGRAM (from the Greek *ana*, backwards, and *gramma*, writing), the transposition of the letters of a word, phrase, or short sentence, so as to form a new word or sentence. It originally signified a simple reversal of the order of letters, but has long borne the sense in which it is now used. The Cabalists attached great importance to anagrams, believing in some relation of them to the character or destiny of the persons from whose names they were formed. Plato entertained a similar notion, and the later Platonists rivalled the Cabalists in ascribing to them mysterious virtues. Although now classed among follies, or at best among ingenious trifles, anagrams formerly employed the most serious minds, and some of the puritanical writers commended the use of them. Cotton Mather, in his elegy on the death of John Wilson, the first pastor of Boston, in New England, mentions

> His care to guide his flock and feed his lambs
> By words, works, prayers, psalms, alms, and *anagrams*.

The best anagrams are such as have, in the new order of letters, some signification appropriate to that from which they are formed. It was a great triumph of the mediæval anagrammatist to find in Pilate's question, '*Quid est veritas?*' (What is truth?) its own answer: '*Est vir qui adest*' (It is the man who is here). Anagrams, in the days of their popularity, were much employed, both for complimentary and for satirical purposes; and a little straining was often employed in the omission, addition, or alteration of letters, although, of course, the merit of an A. depended much upon its accuracy.

I. D'Israeli (*Curiosities of Literature*, vol. iii.) has a chapter on anagrams, which, as an exercise of ingenuity, he ranks far above acrostics. Among a great many considered by him worthy of record, are the following: The mistress of Charles IX. of France was named *Marie Touchet;* this became *Je charme tout* (I charm every one), 'which is historically just.' The flatterers of James I. of England proved his right to the British monarchy, as the descendant of the mythical King Arthur, from his name *Charles James Stuart*, which becomes *Claims Arthur's Seat.* An author, in dedicating a book to the same monarch, finds that in *James Stuart* he has *a just master.* 'But, perhaps, the happiest of anagrams was produced on a singular person and occasion. Lady Eleanor Davies, the wife of the celebrated Sir John Davies, the poet, was a very extraordinary character. She was the Cassandra of her age, and several of her predictions warranted her to conceive she was a prophetess. As her prophecies in the troubled times of Charles I. were usually against the government, she was at length brought by them into the Court of High Commission. The prophetess was not a little mad, and fancied the spirit of Daniel was in her, from an A. she had formed of her name,

> ELEANOR DAVIES.
> *Reveal, O Daniel!*

The A. had too much by an *l*, and too little by an *s*; yet *Daniel* and *reveal* were in it, and that was sufficient to satisfy her inspirations. The court attempted to dispossess the spirit from the lady, while the bishops were in vain reasoning the point with her out of the Scriptures, to no purpose, she poising text against text: one of the deans of the arches, says Heylin, shot her through and through with an arrow borrowed from her own quiver; he took a pen, and at last hit upon this excellent A.:

> DAME ELEANOR DAVIES.
> *Never so mad a Ladie!*

The happy fancy put the solemn court into laughter, and Cassandra into the utmost dejection of spirit. Foiled by her own weapons, her spirit suddenly forsook her; and either she never afterwards ventured on prophesying, or the A. perpetually reminded her hearers of her state—and we hear no more of this prophetess.'

On a visit to King's Newton Hall, in Derbyshire, Charles II. is said to have left written on one of the windows, *Cras ero lux* (To-morrow I shall be light), which is the A. of *Carolus Rex.*

ANAHUA'C, a Mexican term, said to signify 'near the water.' Its application is vague in the extreme. It is either a plateau or a ridge. As a ridge, again it oscillates between the continuation of the Rocky Mountains, below lat. 40° N., and that branch of the chain which runs nearly parallel to the upper course of the Rio Bravo del Norte; and as a plateau, it designates either the whole of the table-land of Mexico or certain portions thereof, more or less extensive, with the capital as a common centre. Practically, if one acceptation is more generally admitted than another, A. may be regarded as the largest of those plateaus—a definition which, with reference to the number of lakes, seems more peculiarly to suit the etymology of the word. See further, CORDILLERAS OF CENTRAL AMERICA—a description which, for want of a briefer and better one, may be made to embrace all that less regular section of the backbone of America which lies between the simple formations of the

Andes to the south and the Rocky Mountains to the north.

A'NAKIM, a gigantic race of people, whose stronghold was Kirjath-arba, in the south of Palestine. In the opinion of some biblical critics, they were not Canaanites, as they are not included in the list of devoted nations; others, again, conclude from the fact that invariably mention is made only of three individuals or families, that the name is appellative rather than gentile, and that the A. were merely particular tribes of the wide-spread and powerful Amorites, distinguished for their unusual stature. Be that as it may, the Israelites considered them too dangerous for neighbours, and consequently subjected them to the same stern treatment as the rest. It was the A. whose appearance so terrified the Hebrew spies who entered the Land of Promise from Kadesh-barnea. Those who escaped the sword of Joshua fled to the country of the Philistines; and it has been conjectured that Goliath and the other Philistine giants were their descendants; a supposition probable enough, when we reflect that the particular places in which the fugitive A. took refuge were Gaza, Gath, and Ashdod. The word **Anak** means a necklace or neck-chain; and some have supposed that these giants received that name from the circumstance of their wearing such ornaments proudly round their necks; others translate the word A. by 'long-necked men,' or men with long-stretched necks, i. e., men of great height. The A., however, in all probability, immediately derived their name from Anak, the son of Arba.

ANAKOLUTHON is a term employed both in Grammar and Rhetoric, to denote the absence of strict logical sequence in the grammatical construction. Good writers sometimes sacrifice this logical sequence to emphasis, clearness, or graceful arrangement. In colloquial speech, nothing is more common than examples of A.

A'NAL GLANDS. Under this name may be described a large and diversified group of glands, found in many animals, and generally characterised by the disagreeable odour of their secretion. Those to which the name most strictly belongs are of frequent occurrence among carnivora and rodents; they consist of follicles which pour their secretion into sacs with muscular walls and narrow orifices, placed one on each side of the anus. According to the most recent investigations, it appears that these sacs are to be considered as prolongations inwards of the common integument, and that two sorts of glands open into them; one of a lobulated structure, having a fatty secretion, and representing the sebaceous glands of the skin greatly hypertrophied; the other crowded more at the bottom of the sac, tubular, and elaborating the specific secretion. In the hyæna, there is a single sac, which opens by a transverse fissure above the vent. There is a gradual passage from true A. G. to others of a somewhat different character. Thus, there are glands called inguinal in the hare and rabbit - little bare places pouring out an unctuous secretion, which are held to be equivalent to A. G., only not enclosed in sacs. The civet cat has an anal sac on each side of the vent; and also two other sacs opening by a common outlet in front of the vent; and from the latter is derived the substance known as civet, which the negroes seek for on the trees where it has been left by the civet cats. The civet gland furnishes a natural link between the A. G. and those more closely connected with the genital apertures, called preputial. The most remarkable are those of the beaver, large sacs found both in the male and female, and which furnish the castoreum of commerce. The beaver has true A. G. besides. The sac which contains the musk of the musk-deer lies in the middle line beneath the skin of the abdomen, and opens at the prepuce. The secretion peculiar to badgers, polecats, and skunks, and which they use as an instrument of defence, shielding themselves from their adversaries by an overpowering and intolerable odour, comes from a pouch situated beneath the tail. In some animals, we meet with secretions similar to some of the above, poured out on other parts of the body. Thus, in the bat, there are glands on the face opening above the mouth, which prepare a fetid oily secretion; the so-called lachrymal follicles of ruminants, and the cutaneous glands of the tail of the deer, secrete a dark unctuous humour; and the temporal gland between the eye and the ear of the elephant pours out an oily substance at rutting-time. The peccary has an odoriferous gland on its back; and the crocodile has a musk-sac under the lower jaw. Anal sacs opening immediately behind the vent are also found in the crocodile and in many serpents.

A'NALOGUE, a term in Comparative Anatomy. Organs are *analogous* to one another, or are *analogues*, when they perform the same function, though they may be altogether different in structure; as the wings of a bird, and the wings of an insect. Organs, again, are *homologous*, or *homologues*, when they are constructed on the same plan, undergo a similar development, and bear the same relative position, and this independent of either form or function. Thus, the arms of a man and the wings of a bird are homologues of one another. See HOMOLOGY.

ANA'LOGY, a term originally Greek, and which signifies an agreement or correspondence in certain respects between things in other respects different. Euclid employed it to signify proportion, or the equality of ratios, and it has retained this sense in mathematics; but it is a term little used in the exact sciences, and of very frequent use in every other department of knowledge and of human affairs. In Grammar, we speak of the A. of language, i. e., the correspondence of a word or phrase with the genius of the language, as learned from the manner in which its words and phrases are ordinarily formed. A., in fact, supposes a rule inferred from observation of instances, and upon the application of which, in other instances not precisely, but in some respects, similar, we venture, with more or less confidence, according to the degree of ascertained similarity, and according to the extent of observation from which our knowledge of the rule has been derived. The opposite to A. is *Anomaly* (Gr. irregularity); and this term is used not only in Grammar, but with reference to objects of Natural History which in any respect are exceptions to the ordinary rule of their class or kind. In the progress of science, analogies have been discovered pervading all nature, and upon which conclusions are often based with great confidence and safety. Reasoning from A. indeed warrants only probable conclusions; but the probability may become of a very high degree, and in the affairs of life we must often act upon conclusions thus attained. Reasoning from A., however, requires much caution in the reasoner. Yet even when its conclusions are very uncertain, they often serve to guide inquiry and lead to discovery. Many of the most brilliant discoveries recently made in Natural Science were the result of investigations thus directed. Where the proper evidence of truth is of another kind, arguments from A. are often of great use for the removal of objections. It is thus that they are employed by Bishop Butler in his *A. of Religion*,

Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature. In Law, reasoning from A. must often, to a certain extent, be admitted in the application of statutes to particular cases. Upon similar reasoning, the practice of medicine very much depends. To discover the meaning of any composition, it is also often necessary; the sense of the author in a passage somewhat obscure being in some measure determined according to passages in which he has expressed himself more clearly. The application of this rule to the interpretation of Scripture is a point of difference between Protestants and Roman Catholics, the latter insisting upon the interpretation of difficult passages by ecclesiastical tradition and authority. The extension of it to the whole Scriptures, however, depends upon the admission of their inspiration; but this, when fully admitted, warrants a more confident use of analogical reasoning than in the case of the works, or even of a single work, of an uninspired author. Protestant theologians have very generally employed, with reference to this rule of interpretation, the phrase 'A. of Faith,' deriving it from Rom. xii. 6; but the meaning of the expression in that verse is disputed. However, the reality of an A. of faith, and the right of reasoning from it, are not affected by any criticism on that verse.

ANA'LYSIS (Gr.), the resolution of a whole into its component parts. In mental philosophy, this term is applied to the logical treatment of an idea so as to resolve it into other ideas which combine to form it. A judgment or proposition may thus also be analysed. The opposite of A. is *Synthesis* (q. v.); and the opposition of these terms is common in other branches of science as well as in mental philosophy. We speak of an *analytic* method in science, and of a *synthetic method;* and both are necessary, the one coming to the assistance of the other to secure against error, and promote the ascertainment of truth. The analytic method proceeds from the examination of facts to the determination of principles; whilst the synthetic method proceeds to the determination of consequences from principles known or assumed. The test of perfection in a theory is the harmony of the results obtained by the methods of A. and synthesis.

Mathematical A., in the modern sense of the term, is the method of treating all quantities as unknown numbers, and representing them for this purpose by symbols, such as letters, the relations subsisting among them being thus stated and subjected to further investigation. It is therefore the same thing with Algebra, in the widest sense of that term, although the term algebra is more strictly limited to what relates to equations, and thus denotes only the first part of A. The second part of it, or A. more strictly so called, is divided into the A. of Finite Quantities, and the A. of Infinite Quantities. To the former, also called the Theory of Functions, belong the subjects of Series, Logarithms, Curves, &c. The A. of Infinites comprehends the Differential Calculus, the Integral Calculus, and the Calculus of Variations. To the diligent prosecution of mathematical A. by minds of the greatest acuteness, is to be ascribed the great progress both of pure and applied mathematics within the last two centuries.

The A. of the ancient mathematicians was a thing entirely different from this, and consisted simply in the application of the analytic method as opposed to the synthetic, to the solution of geometrical questions. That which was to be proved being in the first place assumed, an inquiry was instituted into those things upon which it depended, and thus the investigation proceeded, as it were, back, until something was reached which was already ascertained, and from which the new proposition might be seen by necessary consequence to flow. A reversal of the steps of the inquiry now gave the synthetical proof of the proposition. The modern mathematical A. affords a much more easy and rapid means of solving geometrical questions; but the ancient A. also afforded opportunity for the exercise of much acuteness, and was the chief instrument of the advancement of mathematical science until comparatively recent times. The invention of it is ascribed to Plato; but of the works of the ancients on geometrical A. none are extant, except some portions of those of Euclid, Apollonius of Perga, and Archimedes.

ANALYSIS, in Chemistry, is the term applied to that department of experimental science which has for its object the chemical disunion or separation of the constituents of a compound substance: thus, the resolution of water into its components hydrogen and oxygen; of common salt into chlorine and sodium; of marble into lime and carbonic acid; of rust into iron and oxygen; of sugar into carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen; and of chloroform into carbon, hydrogen, and chlorine—are all examples of chemical A. This department of chemistry, therefore, takes cognizance of the breaking down of the more complex or compound substances into their more simple and elementary constituents, and is antagonistic to *chemical synthesis*, which treats of the union of the more simple or elementary bodies to produce the more complex or compound. Chemical A. is of two kinds: *Qualitative* A., which determines the quality or nature of the ingredients of a compound, without regard to the quantity of each which may be present; and *quantitative* A., which calls in the aid of the balance or measure, and estimates the exact proportion, by weight or in which the several constituents are united. *qualitative* A. informs us what water, mon salt, &c., are composed of; but it *quantitative* A. to tell us that water consi part of hydrogen by weight united with 8 p oxygen; that marble is composed of 28 p lime, and 22 of carbonic acid; common salt, of parts of chlorine, and 23 of sodium; turpentin 30 carbon, and 4 hydrogen; chloroform, of carbon, 1 hydrogen, and 106½ chlorine.

The divisions of inorganic (mineral) c organic (vegetable and animal) chem to a corresponding classification o into *inorganic* A., comprehending the proce lowed and the results obtained in the inve of the atmosphere, water, soils, and rock *organic* A., treating of the modes of isolatio the nature, of the ingredients found in or de from organised structures—viz., plants and Both departments afford examples of what *proximate* and *ultimate* A. Proximate A. is lution of a compound substance into c which are themselves compound: thus, in chemistry, marble is resolved into li united with oxygen) and carbonic acid (carbo oxygen); whilst ultimate A. comprehe disunion of a compound into its *element* simplest forms of matter: thus, lime into and oxygen; carbonic acid into carbon and ox water into hydrogen and oxygen. Organic istry affords still better examples of each cl thus, ordinary wheat-flour, when subjected to mate A., yields, as its proximate compon (vegetable fibrin), albumen, starch, and saline matter; but each of th ingredients is in itself compound, and undergo ultimate A., the gluten yield, as their ultimate elements or carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrog phosphorus; and the starch, sugar, found built up of carbon, hydrogen,

Several other terms are in use in chemical treatises: thus, *Gas* A. is applied to the processes employed in the examination of the various gases, and is every day becoming of more and more importance and interest. *Metallurgic* A. includes the smelting of metallic ores, the assay of alloys of gold, silver, &c., and, in general, everything that pertains to the ultimate A. of metallic ores and compounds. *Agricultural* A. is restricted to the examination of manures, feeding-stuffs, and soils; *Medical* or *Physiological* A. to the investigation of blood, urine, and other animal fluids and juices, and the examination of medicinal compounds; whilst *Commercial* A. is the term used where great accuracy or nicety of detail is not required in an A., but where the commercially important constituents alone are determined, as the separation and recording of the amount of phosphates, ammonia, and alkaline salts in a sample of guano; the total amount of saline matter in a certain water; the iron in an ironstone, the lime in a limestone, &c.

ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY is that department of chemistry which takes cognizance of analyses. The analytical chemist requires some peculiar apparatus, together with reagents, generally solutions, by the addition or reaction of which the nature and amount of the ingredients of a compound are determined.

ANAM, a feudatory dependency of China, in the east portion of Further India, comprising, from the Celestial Empire southwards, Tonquin, Cochin China, and part of Cambodia. It lies between lat 9° and 23° N., and between long. 102° and 109° E. Its area is about 200,000 square miles. The estimates of the population are mere conjectures. In point of religion they are divided, as in China, into adherents of Buddha, of Confucius, and Lao-tse, with a considerable number of Christians. Their sense of the supernatural manifests itself principally in reverence for the dead, whose obsequies are performed with great splendour. The Anamese language resembles the Chinese. Whatever literature is found in A. is borrowed from their 'Celestial' kinsmen in the north. They have a maritime taste, and excel in ship-building. The king himself seems to keep them busy in this way, for, besides having hundreds of war-craft, he monopolises, by means of larger vessels, the foreign trade of his dominions. The climate is said to be salubrious, and the soil to be productive—features which, combined as they are with some of the best harbours in the world, recommend A. alike for commerce and for colonisation. These advantages have been appreciated by the French, who, beginning in the reign of Louis XVI., have made several efforts to obtain a footing in the country. Since 1861, they have established a colony, with Saigon for its capital, and a territory of 600 square miles. See COCHIN-CHINA.

ANAMIRTA. See COCCULUS INDICUS.

ANA'NAS. See PINE APPLE.

A'NARCHY (from the Gr. *a*, privative, and *archē*, government), the state of society without any regular government, when a country is torn by the strife of parties, and no law or authority remains. Complete A. is necessarily rare and of short duration; but conditions approaching to it often arise after revolutions and gross abuses in government; and in such cases it is apt to become, as in the South American states, a chronic or permanent evil, attended with constant national decay.

ANARRHICHAS. See WOLF-FISH.

A'NAS, a Linnæan genus of birds, included in the order *Palmipedes* (Web-footed birds) of the system of Cuvier, and divided by recent ornithologists into a number of genera; one of which, retaining the name A., contains the true Ducks, and others contain the Swans (*Cygnus*), Geese (*Anser*), Scoters (*Oidemia*) Garrots (*Clangula*), Eiders (*Somateria*), Pochards (*Fuligula*), Shovellers (*Rhyncaspis*), Shieldrakes (*Tadorna*), Musk-ducks (*Cairina*), Teals (*Querquedula*), Widgeons (*Mareca*), &c. These, with Mergansers (*Mergus*) and Flamingoes (*Phœnicopterus*), constitute the family *Anatidæ* of some ornithologists. Cuvier places them in a family called by him *Lamellirostres*, and distinguished by a thick bill, horny only at the nail-like extremity, and elsewhere invested with a soft skin, the edges furnished with laminæ, or with small teeth particularly adapted for the purpose of separating the food from the mud which is often taken into the bill along with it. The laminæ, and a large and broad bill, are the chief characteristics of the old genus *A.* Some, as the true ducks, subsist in great part on small insects; others, as geese and swans, almost exclusively on vegetable food. The species are very numerous, distributed over all parts of the world, some of them very abundant in the polar regions. Some are important for their feathers or down, others for their flesh and for their eggs. A few have been domesticated, and are commonly kept for economic uses. See DUCK, GOOSE, SWAN, EIDER, BARNACLE, TEAL, &c.

ANASTA'SIUS I., Patriarch of Constantinople, was born in the second half of the 7th c. He favoured the party of iconoclasts, or image-breakers. He owed his elevation to the Emperor Leon, who exacted from him a pledge that he would assist in the destruction of the images. A. kept his word; but having made himself obnoxious to the new emperor, Constantine Copronymus, the latter (743) seized him, put out his eyes, and marched him through the hippodrome (race-course) mounted on an ass with his head to the tail. He died in 753.

ANASTASIUS, SAINT, surnamed ASTRIC, apostle of the Hungarians, was born in 954, and died in 1044. A Frenchman by birth, he finally settled, after various changes, at the court of Stephen, Duke of Hungary, where he became very influential, and was intrusted with the ecclesiastical organisation of the land. All his energies were devoted to securing the triumph of the Christian faith.

ANASTASIUS I. was elected pope, or rather bishop of Rome, in 398 A.D. He succeeded Siricius, one year after the death of Ambrose. Under his pontificate, flourished Chrysostom, Augustine, and Jerome. The most conspicuous act of his life was the reconciliation of the church of Antioch with that of Rome, after a schism of 17 years. Among the epistles attributed to A., two are obviously apocryphal; the one addressed to Nereianus; the other, to the German bishops. The latter commanded the faithful to remain standing while the gospel was read in the churches, that neophytes should receive holy orders only on the recommendation of five bishops, and that the Manichæans, who had been expelled from Rome, should not be admitted into Germany. But the first of these epistles is posterior to the death of A., and the second, anterior to his accession to the pontificate. A. was vehemently opposed to the doctrines of Origen, one of whose works (*Peri Archōn*, i. e., 'Concerning Principles') he condemned as heretical. For this, he is praised by Jerome, who calls him a man of a holy life, of a 'rich poverty,' and of an apostolical earnestness. During his life, several councils were held, at Carthage, Constantinople, Ephesus, and Toledo. He died Dec. 14, 401 A.D. There were three other popes of this name: ANASTASIUS II. (496—498), ANASTASIUS III. (911—913), and ANASTASIUS IV. (1153—1154). See POPE.

ANASTASIUS I., emperor of the East, was born in 430 A.D., at Dyrrachium, in Epirus, of an

obscure family. The early portion of his life is unknown to history. On the death of Zeno, he was proclaimed emperor by the senate, and crowned on the 11th April 491, at the age of 60. He owed his elevation to Ariadne, widow of Zeno, whom he married. No monarch was ever more notable for his heresies. One of his generals, Vitalian, taking advantage of this unpopular feature of his character, revolted, ravaged Thrace, Scythia, and Moesia, compelled Anastasius to promise to recall the orthodox bishops whom he had banished, and secured for himself the title of Governor of Thrace. Anastasius, however, had some good natural qualities, and performed certain praiseworthy actions. He suppressed the cruel and degrading spectacles where men fought with wild beasts, abolished the sale of offices, the tax on domestic animals, which had existed since the days of Vespasian, built a wall on the west side of Constantinople to defend it from the incursions of the barbarians, constructed aqueducts in the city of Hierapolis, made a harbour at Cæsarea, and restored the 'pharos' or light-house at Alexandria. He died 8th July 518.—ANASTASIUS II., emperor of the East, was born about the middle of the 7th c., and died in 719 A.D. His great aim was to restore peace to the church, but his measures led to his deposition.

ANASTATIC PRINTING. See PRINTING.

ANASTATICA. See ROSE OF JERICHO.

ANASTOMOSIS (Gr. the making of a mouth or opening), an anatomical term used to express the union of the vessels which carry blood or other fluids, and also, for convenience' sake, the junction of nerves. The veins and absorbents anastomose to form large single trunks, as they approach their ultimate destinations. The arteries break up into small branches, for the supply of the tissues, and each small vessel, again, communicates with others given off above and below. At each large joint there is very free A., so that the safety of the limb beyond may not be entirely dependent on the single arterial trunk passing into it, exposed as it is to all the obstructive influences of the different motions of the limb. After the main artery has been permanently obstructed, the anastomosing vessels enlarge, so as to compensate for the loss; but after a time, only those whose course most resembles the parent trunk continue enlarged, and the others gradually regain their ordinary dimensions.

Arteries anastomosing.

An idea of the profusion of this anastomosing system may be formed from the fact, that if the innominata artery, or great vessel destined for the supply of the right upper half of the body, be tied, and those on the left side injected with size and vermilion, the injection will flow freely into the arteries of the right arm, through branches as minute as they are numerous.

ANATHEMA (Gr., a thing set or hung up or apart—i.e., as consecrated), a word originally signifying some offering or gift to Deity, generally suspended in the temple. Thus, we read in Luke xxi. 5, that the temple was adorned 'with goodly stones and gifts' (*anathemasi*). It also signifies a sacrifice to God; and, as the animals devoted to be sacrificed could not be redeemed from death, the word was ultimately used in its strongest sense, implying eternal perdition, as in Rom. ix. 3; Gal. i. 8 and 9; and other places. In the Catholic Church, from the 9th c., a distinction has been made between excommunication and anathematising; the latter being the extreme form of denunciation against obstinate offenders. The synod of Pavia, in 850, determined that all transgressors who refused to submit to discipline, such as penance, should be not merely excommunicated, but anathematised, and deprived of every kind of Christian hope and consolation. Such a sentence could not be pronounced without the concurrence of the provincial bishops with their metropolitan. See EXCOMMUNICATION.

ANATO'LIA (Gr. Anatolé, the East, i.e., from Constantinople) is the modern name for Asia Minor; Turkish, Anadoli. It may be considered as coincident with the peninsula; the boundary-line on the east between it and Armenia and Mesopotamia, not being natural, cannot be well defined. The area of the peninsula exceeds 200,000 square miles. It constitutes the western prolongation of the high table-land of Armenia, with its border mountain-ranges. The interior consists of a great plateau, or, rather series of plateaus, rising in gradation from 2400 to 5000 feet, with bare steppes, salt plains, marshes, and lakes; the structure is volcanic, and there are several conical mountains, one of which, the Agridagh (Argæus), with two craters, rises 16,000 feet above the plain of Kaisarijeh, which has itself an elevation of between 2000 and 3000 feet. The plateau is bordered on the north by a long train of parallel mountains, varying from 4000 to 6000 feet high, and cut up into groups by cross valleys. These mountains sink abruptly down on the north side to a narrow strip of coast; their slopes towards the interior are gentler and bare of wood. Similar is the character of the border ranges on the south, the ancient Taurus, only that they are more continuous and higher, being, to the north of the Bay of Skanderun or Issus, 10—12,000 feet, and further to the west, 8—9000 feet. The west border is intersected by numerous valleys, opening upon the Archipelago, through the highlands of the ancient Caria, Lydia, and Mysia, to the northern part of which Mounts Ida and Olympus belong. Between the highlands and the sea lie the fertile coast-lands of the Levant. The rivers of A. are not considerable; the largest are the Yeshil Irmak (Iris), the Kisil Irmak (Halys), and the Sakkariah (Sangarius), flowing into the Black Sea; and the Sarabat (Hermus) and Minder (Mæander) into the Ægean.

The *climate* wears on the whole a south-European character; but a distinction must be made of four regions. The central plateau, nearly destitute of wood and water, has a hot climate in summer, and a cold in winter; the south coast has mild winters and scorching summers; while on the coast of the Ægean there is the mildest of climates and a magnificent vegetation. On the north side, the climate is not so mild, nor the productions of so tropical a kind as on the west; yet the vegetation is most luxuriant, and a more delightful or richer tract than the coast from the Sea of Marmora to Trebizond, is hardly to be found. The whole peninsula, however, is liable to earthquakes.

In point of natural history, A. forms the transition from the continental character of the East to the maritime character of the West. The forest-trees and cultivated plants of Europe are seen mingled with the forms peculiar to the East. The central plateau, which is barren, except where there are means of irrigation, has the character of an Asiatic steppe, more adapted for the flocks and herds of nomadic tribes than for agriculture; while the coasts, rich in all European products, fine fruits, olives, wine, and silk, have quite the character of the south of Europe, which on the warmer and drier south coast shades into that of Africa.

The inhabitants consist of the most various races

The dominant race are the Osmanli Turks, who number about 1,200,000, and are spread over the whole country; next to these come the Turkomans, belonging to the same stock, and speaking a dialect of the same language. These are found chiefly on the table-land, leading a nomadic life; there also live hordes of nomadic Kurds. Among the mountains east of Trebizond are the robber tribes of the Lazes. The population of the towns, in addition to Turks, consists, in the west, chiefly of Greeks and Jews; and in the east, of Armenians; the non-Turkish population, along with Europeans in the maritime marts, have the whole commerce of the country in their hands. The whole population of the peninsula is supposed not to exceed 5,000,000; the latest official census available made it 10,907,000, including Armenia; but this is thought to be much over-estimated. The political and social arrangements are much as in the rest of Turkey (q.v.). One peculiarity is the old Turkish system of vassal-dynasties, the Dere-begs (valley chiefs), who, like the feudal lords of the middle ages in Europe, are hereditary rulers and military commanders of their district, under the suzerainty of the sultan. This institution is in greatest force in the north-east of the peninsula. The power of these feudal chiefs, however, was broken by Sultan Mahmud.

The whole country is divided at present into eight *eyalets* or governments, under governors-general, and each of these, again, into several *sandjaks*, or provinces, under lieutenant-governors. The eyalets are: 1. Khudavendkiar, in the north-west, including ancient Mysia, the west part of Bithynia, and part of Phrygia; chief town Brussa: 2. Kastamuni, occupying the middle of the north coast, including ancient Paphlagonia, the east of Bithynia, and part of Pontus; chief town, Kastamuni: 3. Taraboson or Trabesun (Trebizond), the ancient Pontus and Colchis; capital, Trebizond: 4. Aidin, in the south-west, the ancient Lydia, Caria, and Phrygia; capital, Izmir or Smyrna: 5. Karaman (Karamania), eastward from Aidin, the ancient Lycia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, and part of Cilicia; chief town, Konieh (Iconium): 6. Adana, comprehending the rest of Cilicia, Kataonia, and part of Cappadocia; chief town, Adana: 7. Bosok, the central part of the peninsula, ancient Cappadocia and Galatia, chief town, Eaguri or Angora: 8. Sivas, east from Bosok, embracing parts of Pontus and Little Armenia; chief town, Sivas.

ANATOMY (Gr., a cutting up or dissecting) is the science of the form and structure of organic bodies, and is practically acquired by separation of the parts of a body, so as to shew their distinct formation, and their relations with each other. It is generally understood as applied to the human body, while the A. of animals is styled Zootomy, and that of plants, Phytotomy. The investigation and comparison of the structures of the different kinds of organic bodies is styled Comparative A. Theoretical A. is divided into General and Special.

General A. gives a description of the elementary tissues of which the systems and organs of the body are composed, as preliminary to an examination of them in their combined state in the various organs: it also investigates their laws of formation and combination, and the changes which they undergo in various stages of life. This branch of study may also be styled Structural or Analytical A., and has been first developed in recent times, especially by Bichât (1801) and Bordeu, who have been followed by J. Müller, Goodsir, Mayer, E. H. Weber, Schwann, Valentin, and many others. In our day, microscopic investigation has been successfully applied to the study of elementary textures. See Histology.

Special A. (styled Descriptive by the French writers) treats of the several parts and organs of the body in respect to their form, structure, and systematic connection or relation with each other. The arrangement of the several parts and organs in an order deduced from their similarity in structure or use, constitutes Systematic A. According to this mode of study, which is essential as an introduction to physiology, A. has been divided, though not with scientific precision, into six branches of study. 1. *Osteology*, which treats of the bones, including the cartilages of the joints (chondrology). —2. *Syndesmology*, which describes the ligaments, or bands, that unite the bones of various joints. The bones, with their cartilages and ligaments, form a framework, which supports the external soft parts, and within which the vital organs are suspended and protected from injury; they are also arranged in a mechanical system as instruments of motion.—3. *Myology* explains the system of the muscles, which, by their contractile power, serve to impart motion to the bones and joints; while, like the bones, they contribute to form the cavities of the body, and to protect the internal organs. Their structure also serves to produce the external shape and symmetry.—4. *Angeiology* describes the vessels or ducts, with their complex net-work and ramifications, spreading over most parts of the body, and divided into two great systems: (*a*), the blood-vessels with the heart, a fleshy organ propelling the blood through the pulsating vessels or arteries, from which it returns to the heart, after circulation through the veins; (*b*), the lymphatics, by which a certain fluid (lymph) is brought into union with the blood in the organs styled lymphatic glands, and is afterwards passed into the veins.—5. *Neurology*, or the doctrine of the nerves, describes the nervous system, as divided into, *first*, the two central masses of the brain and the spinal column; *second*, the ramifications of nerves running from the brain and spinal column to almost all points of the surface; and *lastly*, the order of nerves having a peculiar structure, and styled the ganglionic system of nerves.—6. *Splanchnology* describes the viscera or organs formed by combination of the distinct systems of veins, nerves, lymphatics, &c., and mostly situated in the cavities of the body. These are divided into five groups, viz.: (*a*), the organs of sensation—sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch; (*b*), of voice and respiration—nostrils, mouth, larynx, trachea, and lungs, with the thyroid gland, the thymus gland, and the diaphragm; (*c*), digestive organs—the mouth, with its salivary glands, the throat, gullet, the stomach, the intestines, with the liver, spleen, and pancreas; (*d*), the urinary organs—kidneys, ureter, bladder, and urethra; (*e*), sexual organs of both sexes.

Special A. may be treated in another mode; by an arrangement made in accordance with natural divisions, or by imaginary lines dividing the body into several regions—as the head, the trunk, and the extremities. Again, the trunk may be subdivided into neck, thorax, and abdomen; and in each of the main regions, several subdivisions may be made. This system of arrangement may be styled Topographical A., and is also known as Surgical A., on account of its importance as the basis of operative surgery. It was the eldest of the Monroes of Edinburgh University who first gave this branch of the study its due prominence.

The several parts and organs of the animal body will be found described under their proper heads.

History of A.—It is difficult to determine the date at which this science began to be cultivated, but it is probable that from the earliest times some persons took advantage of favourable circumstances

to acquaint themselves with it. The Druids, who were at once the priests, judges, and physicians of the people, demanded from those who came for their advice human victims as sacrifices, and were themselves the executioners; and it is not unlikely that they availed themselves of these opportunities of acquiring anatomical knowledge. It is probable, says Galen, that Æsculapius, who excelled in the treatment of wounds, dissected animals for the instruction of his pupils. His descendants, the Asclepiades, cultivated A., or rather zootomy, and founded the three famous schools of Cos, Rhodes, and Cnidos. The rabbins tell us that, although among the Jews the touching of a dead body involved ceremonial uncleanness, they did not entirely neglect A., which they studied from the carefully preserved bones of their ancestors, and the necessary manipulations of embalming. They counted 248 bones, and 365 veins or ligaments, which division, according to the rabbins, has relation to the 248 precepts of the Mosaic Law that *command*, and the 365 that *forbid*.

Homer exhibits a certain amount of anatomical knowledge in his description of wounds in the *Iliad*. Pythagoras first reasoned physiologically from observations made by him when in Egypt, where he witnessed the sacrifices, and also the Egyptian methods of embalming. Alcmeon of Crotona, a disciple of Pythagoras, first dissected animals with the view of obtaining comparative knowledge of human A. Democritus, who frequented the sepulchres, probably with anatomical views, practised zootomy, and was engaged dissecting animals when visited by Hippocrates. Hippocrates II., descended in the eighteenth degree from Æsculapius, and born at Cos in 35 A.M., was the first author who treats A. as a science. He caused a skeleton of brass to be cast, which he consecrated to the Delphian Apollo, with the view of transmitting to posterity proofs of the progress he had made, and of stimulating others to the study of A. Aristotle, who lived 384 B.C., does not appear to have dissected men; and he states that the parts of man are unknown to them, or that they possess nothing certain on the subject beyond what they can draw from the probable resemblance of the corresponding parts of other animals. He first gave the name *aorta* to the great artery.

Diocles (380 B.C.) was the first who treated of the proper manner of conducting anatomical examinations for purposes of demonstration. But no real progress in A. was made, owing to the researches being confined to animals, till the time of Erasistratus, who was born at Ceos about 300 B.C., and who was the first to dissect human bodies. He obtained from Seleucus Nicanor and Antiochus Soter the bodies of criminals, and is said to have dissected some condemned to death while they were still alive. His writings are lost, but fragments are preserved in the writings of Galen. He made many discoveries, among others, of the lacteal vessels. Herophilus, who lived about the same time, was born at Carthage, but carried on his anatomical pursuits principally at Alexandria. He also is said to have dissected living subjects. Parthenius, who lived 200 years B.C., published a book, entitled *On the Dissection of the Human Body*. In the 1st c. of the Christian era, the dissection of human subjects was forbidden, under heavy penalties. Rufus the Ephesian, who lived 112 A.D., under the empire of Trajan, taught A. in a more exact manner than had been hitherto done, and devised a more exact anatomical nomenclature. He made use of animals in his demonstrations, and mentions that 'of old they used for that purpose human bodies.'

Galen (131 A.D.) dissected apes, as being most like human subjects, though he occasionally obtained bodies of children exposed in the fields, or of persons found murdered, which, however, he was obliged to dissect in secret. There was at this time no regularly prepared skeleton, as there was a law at Rome forbidding the use of dead bodies. Galen's writings shew a knowledge of human A. Soranus had extensive knowledge of A., derived from human subjects. Moschion had some anatomical illustrations engraved. Oribasius compiled more than 70 volumes, the 24th and 25th being on A., principally from Galen.

Nemesius, Bishop of Nemesus, a town in Phœnicia, cultivated A. at the end of the 4th c., in which also Meletius lived, who wrote a complete treatise *On the Nature and Structure of Man*. Theophilus, a monk, published in the 7th c. a good abridgment of the A. of Galen.

A. made small progress among the Arabs, which is accounted for by their religion prohibiting contact with dead bodies. When the great Arabian physician, Rhazes, was about to be operated on for cataract, he discovered that the surgeon was ignorant of the structures of the eye, and refused to submit to the operation. Avicenna (980 A.D.), born in the province of Khorasan, was a good osteologist, and described some structures not alluded to by Galen.

A. was now neglected for a long period, till Frederick II., king of Sicily (1194—1250), made a law forbidding any one to practise surgery without having first acquired some knowledge of A. He founded a chair at the solicitation of Martinus, his chief physician, where the science was demonstrated for five years; students from all parts crowded to it, and some time after, a similar school was established at Bologna—these two were largely attended, but no very material progress was made in A.

The university of Montpellier was founded by Pope Nicholas IV. in 1284, and the chair of A. was filled by Bernard Gordon with great distinction for ten years. He published a huge work, called *Lilium Medicinæ*.

Mundinus, born at Milan, 1315, professed A. there, and is considered the real restorer of A. in Italy. He publicly demonstrated it, and published a work which was the text-book in the academy of Padua two hundred years after its publication. Then came Guy de Chauliac, who first correctly described the humerus. Mathæus of Grado published several anatomical works about 1480. Gabriel de Zerbus, in 1495, published a confused and imperfect work on A. at Verona. The science continued to be studied by surgeons such as Vigo (1516), Achillinus, and Berenger (Carpi), (1518), who boasted of having dissected at Bologna more than a hundred subjects. Reports were raised that he dissected living Spaniards, and he fled or was exiled to Ferrara.

André Lacuna (1535), Charles Etienne, Gonthier (1536), Massa, Driander (1537), Sylvius (1539), Levasseur, and Gesner, were celebrated for A.; but especially Andrew Vesalius, born 1514, who published a great work on A. before he was 28 years of age. He had the misfortune to open the body of a young Spanish nobleman whose heart was found still beating, and was obliged to make an expiatory pilgrimage to Jerusalem. In 1564, the Venetian senate recalled him to succeed, at Padua, the famous Fallopius, who had just died; on his return, he was shipwrecked on the island of Zante, where he was starved to death.

William Horman of Salisbury wrote, in 1530, *Anatomia Corporis Humani* (A. of Human Body); then came Ingrassias, and others of less note.

Thomas Gemini of London, in 1545, engraved upon copper the anatomical figures of Vesalius, which had appeared in Germany upon wood. Gemini suppressed

of Vesalius, though using his figures and
as. Thomas Vicary, in 1548, is said to be
who wrote in English on A.; he published
Englishman's Treasure, or the True A. of Man's
John Ligæus, in 1555, published an anatomi-
matise in Latin hexameters. Franco (1556),
da, Columbus, and others, wrote works of great
on A. In 1561, Gabriel Fallopius professed
at distinction at Padua, and made many
overies.

17th c., progress was rapid: Hervey, in
covered the circulation of the blood, and
croscope was employed to detect the structure
inute vessels. Aselli, in 1622, discovered and
strated the existence of the lymph-vessels;
conclusions were supported by the investiga-
of Pecquet, Bartholin, and Olaus Rudbeck.
andular organs were investigated by Wharton,
Swammerdam, and (in the following
Ruysch, by the use of injections
of the microscope, gave a new impulse to
the minute structures. Eminent names
ry of A. are numerous in the 18th c.
which still retained its former pre-eminence,
Pacchioni, Valsalva, Morgagni, Santorini,
and Cotunni; in France, Winslow,
Lieutaud, Vicq d'Azyr, and Bichât,
of General A.; in Germany, the accom-
ller and Meckel prepared the way for
achievements in the 19th c.; in Great
Cowper, Cheselden, Hunter, Cruikshank,
and Charles Bell contributed to the pro-
of the science; while Holland was worthily
ted by Boerhaave, Albinus, Camper, Sandi-
Bonn. On the boundaries of the two
we find the names of Sömmering, Loder,
ach, Hildebrand, Reil, Tiedemann, and
rly all connected with practical medicine,
benefited by their studies in A.

ty of a union of theory and practice
d to that zealous study of PATHOLOGICAL A.
section and study of structures as modified by
) which has recently prevailed. The origin
branch of A. may be traced back to ancient
in Egypt, where post-mortem examinations
sometimes made to discover the seat of disease
of death. In the medical writings of the
some anatomico-pathological observations
During the general revival of science in
ny notices of pathological A. occur.
Leoni of Florence wrote the first book
ch of science; and Bonet, in 1679,
ed a compilation of numerous observations.
these were only fragmentary indications of a
le science, and the facts stated were often very
ously interpreted. Morgagni (1767), who
be regarded as the true founder of Pathological
worthily followed by Lieutaud, Sandifort,
allie, and others. Meckel the Younger,
ny, in his study of malformations, &c., paid
no attention to practical applications of
ience. The recent change of direction given
study of Pathological A., which is now
rly regarded as a means towards practical
vements in medicine, must be ascribed to
and the pupils of Broussais, among whom
e mentioned the names of Laennec, Cruveilhier,
Andral, Lobstein, Lebert, Virchow, Bennett,
In London and other large towns there are
es
oted specially to the investigation of
.

ARATIVE A. has always preceded anthro-
dissection of the human subject, but was
systematically as a distinct science by
and his pupil Meckel the Younger. The
proposed by the latter was, unfortunately,
never completed. Blumenbach, Tiedemann, Home, Blainville, Geoffroy St Hilaire, Carus, Oken, Goethe, the German poet, Richard Owen, John Goodsir, and Huxley, must be named as eminent contributors to this branch of science; while, in late years, zootomy and comparative A. have been studied, with an especial reference to physiology, by Müller, Wagner, Siebold, Bowman, Todd, and Allan Thomson.

A. FOR ARTISTS is studied with reference to the effects produced by internal structure on the external form, and describes the organs, especially the muscles and tendons, not only in a state of rest, but also as modified by passion, action, and posture. Consequently, observation of the nude living form is required in this branch of study, which has been treated of by Errard and Genga (1691); and in modern times, by Lavater (1790), Camper (1792), Charles Bell (1806), Salvage (1812), Mascagni (1816), Koeck (1822), Gardy (1831), Fischer (1838), Salomon and Aulich (1841), Berger (1842), Seiler and Günther (1850), &c.

PRACTICAL A. includes *Dissection* (q. v.) and the making of *Preparations*. *Preparation* consists in dividing parts or organs, so that their respective forms and positions may be clearly shewn. Organs or parts thus treated are styled *Anatomical Preparations* of bones, muscles, vessels, nerves, &c. For example, a bone-preparation is made by clearing away all muscular and other adhesions; the whole structure of the bones, thus prepared and bleached, when connected by wires in its natural order, forms an artificial *skeleton*.

For preparations of parts containing vessels with minute ramifications, injections are employed. Some coloured fluid which has the property of gradually becoming solid, is gently injected into the arteries or other vessels by means of a syringe. Formerly, materials which required a certain degree of warmth to preserve their fluidity were used; but as these were attended with inconvenience, a great improvement was made by Shaw and Weber, who introduced the use of linseed-oil and turpentine, which, when mixed with certain metallic compounds in due proportions, form a fluid which, after a time, becomes solid in ordinary temperatures. Quicksilver and coloured lime-water are also used for injection of the finer vessels. Preparations are either dried and varnished or preserved in spirit.

A series of such specimens, arranged in proper order, forms an *Anatomical Museum*. The valuable collections made by Ruysch, Rau, Loder, Walter, John and William Hunter, Meckel, Sömmering, and Dupuytren, are all now public property. There is also a splendid collection in the university of Edinburgh, collected and prepared for the most part by John Goodsir. The College of Surgeons of Edinburgh also possesses a very valuable museum of pathological preparations. As it is impossible to preserve thus all parts in their integrity for any great length of time, artificial copies in wood, ivory, and wax have been made with great exactitude, especially in Florence; and recently Ansou in Paris has employed *papier-mâché* for the same purpose. But, apart from dissections and preparations of the natural organs, the most general and available assistance in the study of A. is found in anatomical engravings and plates on wood and copper. This assistance was known in ancient times. Aristotle affixed to his works on A. some anatomical drawings, which have been lost. In the 16th c., the greatest artists—Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Titian, and Dürer—gave their aid in designing anatomical figures; but few of their works, in this department of art, have been preserved. Lately, lithography has been employed. Among the numerous illustrations of A. which we now possess, the

old works by Vasal (1543), Eustachius (1714), Bidloo (1685), Albin (1747), Haller (1743—1756), and Vicq d'Azyr (1786—1790), may be mentioned. The present century has supplied works of first-rate excellence by Caldani (Venice, 1801—1814), Mascagni (Pisa, 1823), Langenbeck (Göttingen, 1826), Bourgery and Jacob (Paris, 1832), and Arnold (Zürich, 1838). For general use, we may commend the plates of Loder (Weimar, 1803), Cloquet (Paris, 1826), Osterreicher (Munich, 1827—1830), Weber (Düsseldorf, 1830), Bock (Leipsic, 1840), and D'Alton (Leipsic, 1848): in Surgical A., the works by Rosenmüller (Weimar, 1805), Pirogoff (Dorp. 1840), and Günther (Hamburg, 1844): in Pathological A., Meckel (Leipsic, 1817-1826), Cruveilhier (Paris, 1828—1841), Froriep (Weimar, 1828), Albers (Bonn, 1832), Gluge (Jena, 1843—1850), and Vogel (Leipsic, 1843): in Comparative A., Carus (Leipsic, 1826) and Wagner (Leipsic, 1841). Among English works may be mentioned those by Lizars, Jones, and Richard Quain, in Special A.; by Morton and Maclise, in Surgical A.; and by Baillie and Bright in Pathological A.

ANATOMY (in Law). While the study and practice of A., or the art of dissecting the human body, were necessary to the pursuit of surgical knowledge, there were, until the year 1832, no sufficient legal means in Britain of procuring dead bodies for anatomical purposes; and the consequence was, the evasion, and sometimes even the open violation of the law by persons interested in supplying the surgical profession with subjects for dissection. The high prices, indeed, given for these subjects, may almost be said to have created a lucrative and tempting trade, which led to the most atrocious crimes; and murders, with no other object than the possession of the victim's body for the surgeon's knife, were frequently committed. The notorious case of Burke, tried and convicted before the High Court of Justiciary in Edinburgh, in 1828, is a horrible illustration of the state of the law at that time, and of the position in which it placed surgical practitioners. It was believed that Burke and his associate Hare had been the murderers of sixteen persons, whose bodies they sold to the anatomists. It was their practice to inveigle poor people, generally strangers, into their houses, make them drunk, and then smother them. Burke, informed against by Hare, was condemned for thus disposing of an old woman, and suffered the last penalty of the law, bequeathing a new verb, *to burke*, to the English language. To remedy this state of things, an act of parliament was passed on the 1st of August 1832, 2d and 3d William IV. c. 75, the preamble of which, sufficiently disclosing its necessity, is as follows: 'Whereas a knowledge of the causes and nature of sundry diseases which affect the body, and of the best methods of treating and curing such diseases, and of healing and repairing divers wounds and injuries to which the human frame is liable, cannot be acquired without the aid of anatomical examination: and whereas the legal supply of human bodies for such anatomical examination is insufficient fully to provide the means of such knowledge: and whereas, in order further to supply human bodies for such purposes, divers great and grievous crimes have been committed, and, lately, murder, for the single object of selling for such purposes the bodies of the persons so murdered: and whereas, therefore, it is highly expedient to give protection, under certain regulations, to the study and practice of A., and to prevent, as far as may be, such great and grievous crimes and murder as aforesaid'—It is therefore enacted, that the Secretary of State for the Home Department in Great Britain, and the Chief Secretary in Ireland, may grant a licence to practise A. to any fellow or member of any college of physicians or surgeons, or to any graduate or licentiate in medicine, or to any person lawfully qualified to practise medicine in any part of the United Kingdom, or to any professor or teacher of A., medicine, or surgery, or to any student attending any school of A., on the application of such party for such purpose, countersigned by two justices of the peace acting for the county, city, borough, or place where such party resides, certifying that, to their knowledge or belief, such party so applying is about to carry on the practice of A. The act provides for the appointment of inspectors of schools of A., and directs them to make a quarterly return to the Secretary of State, or the Chief Secretary, as the case may be, of subjects removed for anatomical examination to every place in the inspector's district where A. is carried on, distinguishing the sex, and, as far as is known at the time, the name and age of each person whose body was so removed. The inspectors are further required to visit and inspect places within their respective districts where A. is practised; and for the performance of all these duties, the inspectors are each to have an annual salary not exceeding £100, with a further reasonable sum for their official expenses. By section 7, it is enacted that it shall be lawful for any executor or other party having lawful possession of the body of any deceased person, and not being an undertaker or other party intrusted with the body, for the purpose only of interment, to permit the body of such deceased person to undergo anatomical examination, unless, to the knowledge of such executor or other party, such person shall have expressed his desire, either in writing, at any time during his life, or verbally, in the presence of two or more witnesses, during the illness whereof he died, that his body, after death, might not undergo such examination; or unless the surviving husband or wife, or any known relative of the deceased person, shall require the body to be interred without such examination: while, by section 8, it is declared that the wishes of persons who had expressed a desire that their bodies should be subjected to anatomical examination shall be respected, unless the deceased person's surviving husband or wife, or nearest known relative, or any one or more of such person's nearest known relatives being of kin in the same degree, shall require the body to be interred without such examination. Bodies are not to be removed for examination until forty-eight hours after death, and without a certificate by the medical attendant, stating, according to the best of his knowledge or belief, the manner or cause of death. The act contains a number of provisions intended to secure its sufficient administration; but, by section 15, it is provided that it shall not extend to or prohibit any post-mortem examination of any human body required or directed to be made by any competent legal authority; and it repeals an enactment in a previous statute, 9 George IV. c. 31, which directed the bodies of murderers after execution to be dissected.

This act of parliament is understood to have met the evil it was designed to obviate; and under it the supply of bodies of persons dying friendless, in poorhouses, hospitals, and elsewhere, is stated to have proved sufficient for the wants of the profession.

ANAXA'GORAS, one of the most eminent philosophers of the Ionic school, was born at Clazomenæ, in Ionia, 500 B. C. He belonged to a wealthy and distinguished family, which circumstance may have enabled him to devote himself exclusively to intellectual pursuits. Yet he does not seem to have entered into the possession of his property, but left it to his relations. When only twenty years of age, he went to Athens, where, in the course of time, he

d a high reputation, and had several illus-
pupils, among whom were Pericles, Euripides,
s, and Archelaus. But at last, being accused
sty towards the gods, he was condemned to
His sentence, however, was commuted into
nent for life, through the eloquence of Pericles.
thdrew to Lampsacus on the Hellespont,
he died in the 73d year of his age. The
n was accustomed to say proudly, in his
'It is not I who have lost the Athenians, but
henians who have lost me.' When on his
ed, the magistrates of the town asked what
honours he desired; 'Give the boys a holi-
as the quaint reply of the sage; and for seve-
turies the day of his death was commemorated
he schools of Lampsacus.

not easy to ascertain what were the opinions
philosophy. Fragments merely of his works
en preserved, and even these are sometimes
lictory. Of one thing we are certain, that he
keeper knowledge of physical laws than any of
decessors or contemporaries. The absurdities
n which are attributed to him are no proof
ontrary, for, in his time, any attempt to
even a moderate number of the phenomena
re was sure to be attended with what every-
ow sees to be extravagant fictions. He
d the heavens to be a solid vault; the stars
stones thrown up from the earth by some
convulsion, and set on fire by the ether
ever burns in the upper regions of the
: the milky-way to be the shadow of the
the soul had an aërial body; that the
a burning mass of stone, larger than the
esus. But he also arrived at some tolerably
conclusions regarding the cause of the
t, of the rainbow, of wind, and of sound.
... contribution to ancient philosophy, how-
as his doctrine as to the origin of all things.
ld that all matter existed originally in the
on of atoms; that these atoms, infinitely
and infinitely divisible, had existed from
..., and that order was first produced out of
e chaos of minutiæ through the influence
ion of an eternal intelligence (Gr. *nous*).
... intained that all bodies were simply
ations of these atoms, and that a bar of gold,
, or copper, was composed of inconceivably
particles of the same material; but he did
ow that objects had taken their shape through
it or blind fate, but through the agency
'shaping spirit' or Nous, which he described
, self-potent, and unmixed with anything
...ous,' he again says, 'is the most pure and
of all things, and has all knowledge about
gs, and infinite power.' A.'s theory is thus
ne step from pure theism. He makes the
of the Eternal commence with providence, not
reation.

fragments of A. have been collected by
ach (Leipsic, 1827), and by Schorn (Bonn,

AXIMANDER, a Greek mathematician and
pher, the son of Praxiades, and the disciple
end of Thales, was born at Miletus 610
nd died in 546. His principal study was
es. He is said to have discovered the
of the ecliptic, and certainly taught it. He
lo ... e applied the *gnomon*, or style set on
plane, to determine the solstices and
...ves. The invention of geographical maps is
scribed to him. As a philosopher, he specu-
on the origin (*arche*) of the phenomenal
and this principle he held to be the infinite
determinate (*to apeiron*). This indeterminate
of A. is generally supposed to have been
much the same with the chaos of other philosophers.
From it he conceived all opposites, such as hot and
cold, dry and moist, to proceed through a perpetual
motion, and to return to it again. Of the manner
in which he imagined these opposites to be formed,
and of his hypothesis concerning the formation of
the heavenly bodies from them, we have no accurate
information. It would seem, however, that he did not
believe in the generation of anything in the proper
sense of the word, but supposed that the infinite atoms
or units of which the *arche*, or primary matter, is
composed, merely change their relative positions in
obedience to a moving power residing in it. Some
of his particular opinions were, that the sun is in the
highest region of the heavens, is in circumference
twenty-eight times greater than the earth, and
resembles a cylinder from which flow continual
streams of fire; that eclipses are caused by the
stopping of the openings from which the fire flows;
that the moon is also a cylinder, nineteen times
greater than the earth; and that the moon's phases
are caused by obliquity of position, and eclipses by
complete turning round. He taught that the earth
is of the form of a cylinder, and that it floats in the
midst of the universe, that it was formed by the
drying up of moisture by the sun, and that animals
are produced from moisture.

ANAXI'MENES, a Greek philosopher, born at
Miletus, flourished about 556 B.C. He held *air* to
be the first cause of all things, or the primary form
of matter, from which all things are formed by
compression.

A'NBURY, a disease to which turnips are liable,
and which often proves of serious importance to
farmers, destroying the crop of entire fields. It is
sometimes called *Club-root*, because of the knobs or
tubercular excrescences which form upon the root.
The root, instead of swelling into one turnip of good
size, generally becomes divided into a number of
parts, each in some small degree swelling separately
by itself; whence the popular name, *Fingers and
Toes*. The growth of the plant is arrested; the root
becomes woody; the excrescences rot, and emit most
offensive effluvia, which, however, appear peculiarly
attractive to insects of various kinds; and, accord-
ingly, eggs and maggots in abundance are soon to be
found in them. It has been very generally supposed
that these insects, or some of them, are the cause of
the disease; but the truth seems rather to be that
they are attracted by the diseased state of the plant.
A. has been erroneously confounded with the excre-
cences, each containing a small grub, which are fre-
quent on the roots of turnips, as on those of cabbages,
and many other cruciferous plants, although these
also sometimes effect the destruction of the plant.
The true nature and cause of the disease are not yet
well known. Much attention has been devoted to
the subject; and premiums have been offered in con-
nection with it by the Highland and Agricultural
Society of Scotland; but hitherto, without eliciting
any certain or satisfactory information. It appears
probable that the disease is in some measure owing
to peculiarities of soil, or of manure, and to the too
frequent repetition of turnip-crops upon the same
field. A much greater frequency of repetition, how-
ever, can be safely practised in some districts, or in
some fields, than in others. The liberal application
of lime has been found advantageous as a preventive
of A.; but even this often succeeds but imperfectly;
and the increasing prevalence of this disease in
certain districts seems not unlikely to necessitate a
considerable modification in the system of husbandry,
in which the turnip-crop has long occupied so
important a place. See TURNIP.

François, a French poet, born February 9, 1794, at Havre, where his father was clerk of the Chamber of Commerce. The latter being a well-informed gentleman, delighting in verse, early taught his son to recite passages from the French poets. A. was from the first intended for active life in connection with the administration of the navy; and was employed, until the revolution of July, in the government service. His reputation was first established in 1819 by his tragedy of *Louis IX.*, which was played fifty nights in succession, and procured him a pension of 2000 francs from the king. His next piece, *The Mayor of the Palace* (1823), was not so well received. In 1824, appeared his *Fiesque*, a work which exhibited the great skill of the author in adopting a master-piece of Schiller to the French stage. In 1825, he gave to the world an epic poem in six cantos, *Marie de Brabant;* and in 1827, a clever and graceful work, partly prose and partly verse, entitled *Six Months in Russia;* besides a novel in four volumes, *The Man of the World. Olga*, a drama, was published in 1828; and *Elizabeth of England* in 1829. Both of these works were highly successful, though neither met with the brilliant reception of *Louis IX.* In 1834 appeared *Les Emprunts aux Salons de Paris.* The revolution of July deprived him of his pension, and also of his situation as librarian of Meudon; and for the next ten years, he was compelled to support himself and family by the concoction of numberless *vaudevilles*, dramas, comedies, anecdotes, &c., sometimes of very questionable morality. In 1841, the French Academy chose him as the successor of Bonald. Shortly after appeared his *Familiar Letters* (*Epîtres Familières*), a collection of satires as remarkable for freshness of epigram as for grace of style and richness of versification. In 1848, he published *La Rue—Quincampoix.* He died in 1850.

A.'s *chef-d'œuvre, Louis IX.*, is a work of genius; the versification is correct, elegant, and harmonious; the manners and characters of the period are delineated with great fidelity and brilliancy; the plot is skilfully constructed; and some of the scenes are contrived with singular felicity.

ANCHOR, an implement for retaining a ship in a particular spot, by temporarily chaining it to the bed of a sea or river. Many forms of A. were made by the ancients; some were merely large stones; others, crooked pieces of wood, weighted to make them sink in water, the earlier ones acting mainly as weights, and holding the vessel by their own inertia instead of hooking into the ground. The first *iron* anchors are supposed to have been used by the Greeks. As originally made, the A. had only one fluke or arm for penetrating the ground, but a second was afterwards added; it had no stock (presently to be described), and was, on that account, ill suited for insuring a firm gripe into the ground when lowered. The Greek vessels had several anchors, one of which, called the 'sacred A.,' was never let go until the ship was in dire distress. Of whatever form and material the ancient anchors were made, they were lowered from the ships' sides by ropes—chain cables being a modern invention.

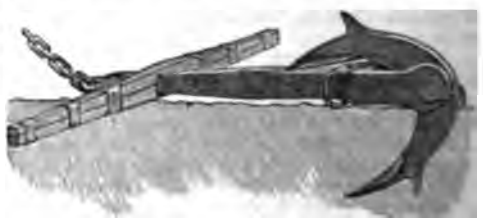
The maritime nations of Europe, and the United States of America, employ anchors bearing a good deal of general resemblance one to another. A large-sized modern A., regarded irrespectively of improvements recently introduced, comprises the following parts: The vertical or supporting beam of the A. is the *shank*, B; at the upper end of it is a *ring*, *r*, or a shackle, and just below the ring is a transverse piece called the *stock*, *s s*; the other extremity is the *crown*, *c*, from which branch out two *arms* or *blades*, *g*, in directions nearly at right angles to that of the stock; each arm spreads out into a broad *palm* or *fluke*, *h*, the sharp extremity of which is the *peak* or *bill*, *k*. All these parts bear special relation to the fast-holding of the A. in the ground. When the A. is let go from the ship's side, the crown first strikes the ground; it then falls over in such a manner that one end of the stock rests upon the ground; and the subsequent movements of the ship and the cable cause one or other of the flukes (it matters not which) to dig vertically into the ground, and maintain a firm hold. On the firmness of this gripe depends the safe anchoring of the ship; and the sizes of all the different parts of the A., as well as the curve of the arms and flukes, are calculated with direct reference to this condition. The most favourable angle between the face of the flukes near their extremities and the shank has been found to be about 45°—that is, the planes of the two flukes should lie approximately at right angles to each other.

Anchor.

The number of anchors in British ships-of-war is in general four—the 'best bower,' the 'small bower,' the 'sheet,' and the 'spare.' For particular and special services, there are also the 'stream' and the 'kedge,' which are usually carried 'in-board.' Smaller vessels have fewer and smaller anchors; and the 'stream'-A. of a large ship may conveniently serve as the 'bower' for a smaller, the difference between bower, sheet, and spare anchors being rather in size than in design. Lloyd's rules prescribe the number and weight of anchors which must be carried by ships of different sizes registered in their list, as well as the size and length of their cables, hawsers, and warps. A 200-ton vessel must have 3 'bowers,' 1 'stream,' and 1 'kedge' A.; vessels from 250 to 1800 tons carry an additional 'kedge,' and those above 2000, an additional 'bower' also. Steamers are only required to carry the anchors and cables which belong to a sailing-vessel of two-thirds their total tonnage.

Many important improvements in the shape and construction of anchors have been introduced within the last forty years. Lieutenant Rodgers, to increase the strength, without increasing the weight, took out a patent for *hollow-shanked* anchors; these are not strictly hollow, however, for there is a wooden core, which is bound to the iron of the shank by iron hoops. Mr Pering introduced iron shanks made of layers of flat bars, instead of solid iron. The same inventor increased the strength of the arms, by making them in great part a curved continuation of the same pieces of iron which form the shank.

The most important novelty, however, is that introduced under Mr Porter's patent of 1838, seeing that it is the basis which supports all the subsequent


Porter's Anchor at Work.

improvements of any note. The arms are pivotal to the stock, instead of being rigidly fixed; and there is a projecting piece, called the *toggle*, on the

convex part of each arm. These two additions or adjustments have a remarkable effect on the action of the A. The advantages of this A. over those of ordinary make are very considerable. There is less chance of 'fouling' by the cable passing over the exposed fluke of the A. when the vessel is swinging in a tide-way; there is less danger of injury from the upper peak; the A. cannot lodge on its stock-end; it is stronger in the arm than ordinary anchors; and it is very conveniently stowed on shipboard. On the other hand, it has the disadvantage of increased complication over an A. made in one piece; its taking the ground is not so certain as with the old A.; it is extremely difficult to sweep if the cable parts; and it is somewhat awkward to fish.

Among the modifications of Porter's A., since introduced, are those of Trotman and Honiball. Trotman's, to which most attention is at present directed, has several advantages over Porter's, principally in the arrangement of the palms and toggles, but it possesses the same disadvantages. This A. was for long the subject of a bitter contention between Mr Trotman and the Admiralty. In 1852, in compliance with a requisition from numerous

Trotman's Anchor at Work.

ship-owners and underwriters, the Admiralty appointed a committee, consisting of eleven experienced and impartial persons, to make trial of a large number of anchors, with a view of determining the relative merits of various forms and modes of construction. The anchors were to be similar in weight, and were to be tested in a great variety of ways—on shore, and at sea, and in reference to the holding, stowage, sweeping, tripping, fouling, &c. Most of the recently invented anchors tried were found to be better than the ordinary Admiralty A.; and the one which appeared to possess the greatest number of good qualities was Trotman's. It is beyond doubt a very good A., and is largely used in the merchant service; but the Admiralty—in spite of the favourable report of their committee—have never yet felt justified in adopting any A. not made in one piece, and it is not used either in the British or (we believe) any other navy. The Admiralty A. (often spoken of as Sir William Parker's) has been of late years greatly improved in many details, chiefly by Mr Lenox, and is probably now as perfect as a solid A. can be.

The manufacture of anchors furnished, until recent years, the most formidable exemplification of smith's work anywhere presented, on account of the great dimensions and weight of the pieces of iron which had to be welded into one mass. The anchor-smiths wielded the most ponderous sledge-hammers known to our artisans; and the services of a large number were needed to weld the metal while in the heated and yielding state. At the present time, however, the operations are rendered very much more easy by the steam-hammer, the force of which is both greater and more easily applied than that of any available number of sledge-hammers wielded by men. At some of the government dockyards, anchor-making is conducted on a great scale; but the larger portion of the supply for the navy is obtained by contract by private firms.

We have already spoken of the sizes of anchors, &c., prescribed for merchant vessels under Lloyd's regulations. Some of these particulars for a few differently sized vessels, will be found in the accompanying table:

Ship's Tonnage.	Anchors.				Stud-Chain Cables.		
	No. of Bowers.	No. of Others.	Weight of each Bower *	Admiralty Test.	Size (Minimum).	Length.	Admiralty Test.
			cwts.	tons.	in 16ths	fath.	tons.
100	2	2	4·00	6 4	0 13	150	11·9
200	3	2	8·25	10 4	1 1	180	20·3
500	3	3	18 00	19 0	1 7	270	37·2
1000	3	3	30·00	28 6	1 12	300	55·1
1400	3	3	34·00	31 6	1 14	300	63·25
2000	4	3	40 00	35·7	2 1	300	76 5
2500	4	3	42 00	37 1	2 2	330	81 3
3000	4	3	45·00	39·2	2 4	360	91·1

* Excluding stock.

A'NCHORAGE is a due or toll levied on the owner or captain of a ship for permission to cast anchor at special anchoring-grounds. In most instances, it is payable to the state; but sometimes the right is vested in corporate bodies or in individuals. The tariff varies greatly, depending on the size of the ship, or on the value of the cargo, according to circumstances. In most cases, where a vessel is driven into port by stress of weather, and does not discharge cargo there, it is exempt from this toll. Shore-dues differ from A. chiefly in the fact, that a vessel pays duty on entering a certain port or harbour, whether she anchors or not; and, by a singular anomaly, these duties are in certain instances vested in the corporation of an inland town, many miles distant from the port in question.

A. is a term also sometimes applied to the whole suite of anchors belonging to a ship; and still more frequently it has the same sense as anchor-ground (q. v.).

A'NCHOR-GROUND is a part of the bed of the sea, or of a river, suitable for anchoring. It must not be too deep, or the cable will bear too perpendicularly, and will be likely to drag the anchor out of the ground. It must not be too shallow, or the ship's bottom will be exposed to the hazard of striking at low-water, or when the sea is rough. It must not be too rocky, or the anchor will be liable to break its flukes by hooking into jagged rocks, and the cable to be severed by rubbing against rocky edges. Thus, a combination of favourable circumstances is necessary for the selection of a good anchoring-ground.

A'NCHORITES, or **ANCHORETS** (Gr. *anachoritai*, literally, persons who withdraw from society), the hermits who began to appear in the Christian Church in the 3d c., living in solitude, and not, like the monks or cenobites, in communities. During the first two centuries, Christians generally thought it enough to withdraw from the world by refusing to participate in heathen festivals and amusements; but extreme views became gradually prevalent, and were connected with a belief in the merit of celibacy, of abstinence from particular kinds of food, of self-inflicted tortures, &c. The persecutions to which Christians were subjected, drove some into the solitude of deserts; afterwards, the glory of a life spent in loneliness and austerity became a substitute for

that of the martyr's death. The general corruption of society also caused many earnest and well-meaning persons to flee from it; the Ascetics (q. v.) first set the example of retiring from cities to rural districts and villages; the A. went further, and sought to withdraw themselves altogether from mankind; and if the reputation of sanctity which was connected with a life of solitude constituted its chief attraction to some, there can be no doubt that many chose it in the hope of thereby attaining to real sanctity. Many of the A. voluntarily subjected themselves to the vicissitudes of the weather, without proper habitation or clothing, restricted themselves to coarse and scanty fare, wore chains and iron rings, and even throughout many years maintained painful postures, such as standing on the top of a pillar (see STYLITES), thus displaying an earnestness which greater enlightenment might have directed to the good of mankind. Paul (q. v.) the Hermit, and Antony (q. v.), were among the first and most celebrated A. The A. were not able always to preserve their solitude unbroken. The fame of their sanctity drew many to visit them; their advice was often sought; and the number of their visitors was much increased by the belief that diseases, particularly mental diseases, were cured by their blessing. Sometimes, also, they returned for a short time to the midst of their fellow-men to deliver warnings, instructions, or encouragements, and were received as if they had been inspired prophets or angels from heaven. The number of A., however, gradually diminished, and the religious life of convents was preferred to that of the hermitage. The Western Church, indeed, at no time abounded in A. like the eastern, and perhaps the reason may in part be found in the difference of climate, which renders a manner of life impossible in most parts of Europe that could be pursued for many years in Egypt or Syria.

ANCHOVY (*Engraulis Enchrasicholus*), a small fish, about a span long, much esteemed for its rich and peculiar flavour. It is not much longer than the middle finger, thicker in proportion than the herring, to which it has a general resemblance; the head is sharp-pointed, and the under jaw much shorter than the upper; the scales large, silvery, and easily removed, the tail deeply forked. It is occasionally found on the British coasts, and is said to be not at all uncommon on the coast of Cornwall in the latter part of summer and beginning of autumn. It would seem to have been formerly more abundant than it now is in the British seas, as several acts of parliament, of the reign of William and Mary, regulated the A. fisheries. It occurs on the

Anchovy.

coasts of the Baltic and of Greenland, and abounds in the Mediterranean and on the Atlantic coasts of Spain, Portugal, and France, where extensive and very productive fisheries are carried on, particularly in the months of May, June, and July, when the shoals of anchovies leave the deep seas, and approach the shores for the purpose of spawning. They are fished during the night, and are attracted to the boats by fires. They are salted in small barrels, and are much used for sauces, &c. The Romans made from them a highly valued sauce called *garum*.—*Sardines* (q. v.) are often sold as anchovies.—The genus *Engraulis* belongs to the *Clupeidæ* (q. v.) or Herring family, and was formerly included in *Clupea*, from which it is distinguished by the more deeply cleft mouth, the wider gill openings, and more numerous gill rays. All the species are small, and most of them tropical. *E. Brownii* abounds in the Strait of Malacca and at the mouths of the Ganges, and is used for making a delicious condiment called *Red Fish* in India.

ANCHOVY PEAR (*Grias cauliflora*), a tree, the only known species of a genus somewhat doubtfully referred by Lindley to his order *Barringtoniaceæ* (more generally regarded as a sub-order of *Myrtaceæ*, q. v.). It grows in boggy places in the mountainous districts of Jamaica and other West Indian islands, attains a height of fifty feet, and has great oblong leaves two or three feet in length. The flowers are numerous, on short peduncles, large and whitish, the corolla consisting of four petals, and the calyx 4-cleft. The fruit is an ovate drupe, crowned with the persistent calyx, the stone marked with eight ridges. This fruit is pickled and eaten like the East Indian mango, which it much resembles in taste.

ANCHUSA. See ALKANET.

ANCHYLOSIS. See ANKYLOSIS.

ANCILLON, a French family who, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, migrated from Metz into Prussia.—DAVID A. studied theology at Geneva, was afterwards pastor of the French Reformed colony at Hanau, and died in Berlin in 1692.—CHARLES, son of the former, was born at Metz, July 28, 1659, and died in Berlin, July 5, 1715. He is known by his writings: *L'Irrévocabilité de l'Edit de Nantes* (1688), and *Histoire de l'Etablissement des Français Refugiés dans les Etats de Brandenbourg* (1690).—LOUIS FREDERICK, grandson of Charles A., was born in Berlin 1740, and died there as pastor of the French congregation in 1814. His son FREDERICK, who rose to be a minister of state in Prussia, was born in Berlin, April 30, 1767. In 1792, he was appointed Professor of History in the Military Academy of Berlin, and afterwards Royal Historiographer, a post to which he had recommended himself by his work, *Tableau des Révolutions du Système Politique de l'Europe depuis le 15me Siècle* (4 vols. Berlin, 1803—1805). In 1814, he took an administrative post under Hardenberg, and, in 1818, held a very prominent position under Count von Bernstorff. In 1830, when the July revolution occurred in France, he assisted the measures of King Frederick William III. for the preservation of peace in Europe. While, like the politicians of Austria, he argued that 'all should be done *for* the people, but nothing *by* the people;' he also contended for the necessity of progressive reforms in legislation, in order to prevent all violent collisions between government and popular opinion. His private life was simple and unostentatious. Though thrice married, he left no children. A. died April 19, 1837. His various writings on politics, philosophy, and literature, are chiefly devoted to an exposition of the principles by which he was guided as a statesman.

ANCONA, the capital of a province in Italy of the same name, lat. 43° 38′ N., and long. 13° 30′ E. It is situated on a promontory of the Adriatic coast, and rising in the form of an amphitheatre, presents a picturesque appearance from the sea. It is the seat of a bishop, and contains (1872) 45,741 inhabitants, of whom above 5000 are Jews. The harbour, once famous, seems likely to be filled up with mud. The commerce is much less considerable than it once was, though, in that respect, it is still the most important place on the Adriatic

coast in the former States of the Church. Corn, and woollen and silk goods, oils, cordage, bacon, fruits, &c., are the chief exports. A mole of 2000 feet in length, built by the Emperor Trajan, and a triumphal arch of the same emperor, are the most notable monuments of antiquity. There are some fine public buildings. One of the most venerable of these is the cathedral of St Cyriac, built in the 10th c., and possessing the oldest *cupula* in Italy. But the houses are in general mean, and the streets narrow. A. is supposed to have been founded by Syracusans who had fled from the tyranny of Dionysius the Elder. It was destroyed by the Goths, rebuilt by Narses, and again destroyed by the Saracens in the 10th c. It afterwards became a republic; but in 1532, Pope Clement VII. annexed it to the States of the Church. In 1798, it was taken by the French; but in 1799, General Meunier was obliged to surrender it to the Russians and Austrians, after a long and gallant defence. Since 1815, the citadel has been the only fortification. When the Austrian troops in 1831 occupied the Roman frontiers, whose inhabitants were then in a state of insurrection, the French ministry determined to neutralise the influence of Austria. A French squadron appeared before the harbour, and landed 1500 men, who took possession of the town on the 22d February 1832 without any resistance, the citadel capitulating on the 25th. It remained in their hands till 1838, when both French and Austrians retired from the Papal States. In 1849, a revolutionary garrison in A. capitulated after enduring a siege by the Austrians of twenty-five days.

ANCRE, CONCINO CONCINI, BARON DE LUSSIGNY, MARSHAL D', a Florentine by birth, who came to the French court in the year 1600, with Maria de' Medici, the wife of Henry IV., and along with his wife, Eleonora Galigai, exercised an unhappy influence in promoting the disagreement between the king and queen. When, after Henry's death, the queen became regent, Concini, as her favourite, obtained possession of the reins of government; and in 1613, was made a marshal and prime minister. He purchased the marquisate of Ancre in Picardy, and took his title from it. He became an object of detestation equally to the nobility and the people. A conspiracy was formed against him, to which the young king Louis XIII. was himself privy—Luynes (q. v.), the king's worthless favourite, being one of the conspirators—and he was assassinated in the Louvre in open day, on the 24th of April 1617. His body was privately buried, but was soon disinterred by the populace, dragged through Paris, and burned before the statue of Henry IV. His wife was soon afterwards accused of witchcraft, which she sarcastically repudiated, saying that the only sorcery she had employed to influence the queen was 'the power of a strong mind over a weak one.' The sneer, however, did not save her. She was executed, and her son, deprived of rank and property, was driven from the country.

ANCUS MA'RCIUS, son of Pompilia, daughter of King Numa Pompilius, was the fourth king of Rome. Following the example of his grandsire, Numa, he endeavoured to restore the almost forgotten worship of the gods and the cultivation of the arts of peace among the Romans. But, despite his inclination for peace, he was engaged in several wars with the neighbouring Latin tribes, whom he subdued and reduced to order. These Latins, Niebuhr considers to have formed the original *plebs*. Against the Etruscans, he fortified the Janiculum, connected it with Rome by a wooden bridge, and gained possession of both banks of the Tiber, as far as its mouth, where he founded Ostia as the port of Rome; he dug what was called 'the Ditch of the Quirites'—a defence for the open space between the Cælian Hill and Mount Palatine; and built the first Roman prison of which we read, a proof that civilisation had really commenced, inasmuch as offences then formally ceased to be regarded as private and personal matters, and were treated as crimes against the community. He died in 614 B.C., after reigning twenty-four years.

ANCYRA. See ANGORA.

A'NDA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Euphorbiaceæ*, the only known species of which, *A. Brasiliensis*, is a Brazilian tree, with large yellow flowers, and an angular fruit about the size of an orange, containing two roundish seeds, like small chestnuts. The seeds are called in Brazil *Purga dos Paulistas*, are much used medicinally in that country, and are more purgative than those of the castor-oil plant. This quality seems to depend upon a valuable fixed oil, of which twenty drops are a moderate dose. It is obtained by pressure. The bark of the tree, roasted in the fire, is accounted in Brazil a certain remedy for diarrhœa, brought on by cold. The fresh bark, thrown into ponds, is said to stupify fish.

ANDALUSIA or **ANDALUCIA**, a large and fertile province or kingdom in the south of Spain, lying between 36° 2′ and 38° 39′ N. lat., and 1° 38′ and 7° 20′ W. long. Having been overrun by the Vandals, it is supposed by some that they gave it the name of Vandalucia or Andalucia; but the real origin of the name is probably *Andaloch*, the Land of the West. It is the *Tarshish* of the Bible, and was called Tartessus in ancient geography. The Romans named it Bætica, from the river Bætis (the modern Guadalquivir). The Moors founded here a splendid monarchy, which quickly attained a high degree of civilisation. Learning, art, and chivalry flourished in harmony with industry and commerce. The four great Moorish capitals were Seville, Cordova, Jaen, and Granada. During the darkness of the middle ages, Cordova was 'the Athens of the west, the seat of arts and sciences;' and later still, under the Spaniards, when 'the sun of Raphael set in Italy, painting here arose in a new form in the Velasquez, Murillo, and Cano school of Seville, the finest in the peninsula.' On the north, A. is divided from Estremadura and New Castile by the mountain-chains of Aroche, Cordova, and Morena. On the east it is bounded by Murcia, and on the west by Portugal and the Atlantic. The south coast eastward from Gibraltar is mountainous; the west, where the Guadalquivir flows into the Atlantic, is level. A. was esteemed the richest district of Hesperia, and its former wealth of produce has been indicated by such names as the 'garden,' the 'granary,' the 'wine-cellar,' and the 'gold-purse' of Spain. But, in the present day, such predicates are merited only by comparatively small portions of the hilly country on both sides of the Guadalquivir, where, even with careless cultivation, the soil is luxuriantly productive. Here wheat and maize ripen in April, and yield abundantly. Olives and oranges attain their greatest height, and vegetation generally assumes a tropical character. Cotton, sugar-cane, Indian figs, and batatas flourish in the open air, and the cactus and aloe form impenetrable hedges. Wine and oil abound. The botany and mineralogy of A. are very rich. The ranges of the Sierra Nevada are composed principally of primary and secondary formations. In the west, towards Xenil, cultivation is more sparing, as there is a natural deficiency of water, and the artificial means of irrigation formerly employed have fallen into disuse. Nearer to the

coast lie tracts of land still more barren; and the level strip extending between the mouths of the Guadalquivir and the Tinto, is covered with moving sands. On the whole, A. is still one of the most fertile districts of Spain, owing to its delicious southern climate and the abundance of water supplied by its snowy mountains. Its breed of horses has long been celebrated, and the mules are superior to those of other countries. The *Sierra Morena* mountains supply the wild cattle exhibited in the bull-fights of Madrid. The natural riches of the district have at various times invited colonists and invaders, such as the Phœnicians and the Moors. The Andalusians are regarded as among the most lively, imaginative, and active people of Spain. But they are also considered by the rest of their countrymen to be the Gascons—the braggarts and boasters of Spain. Apparently they have never at any time been warlike, since even Livy calls them *imbelles*. They are, like all braggarts, extremely credulous, and are, besides, remarkable for their intense superstition. The worship of the Virgin prevails to such an extent that the very country is called 'the Land of the Most Holy Virgin.' They speak a dialect of Spanish mixed with Arabic. A. is divided into the provinces of Almeria, Jaën, Malaga, Cadiz, Huelva, Seville, Cordova, and Granada. The chief towns are Seville, Cordova, Jaën, Cadiz (q. v.). Area 27,217 sq. miles. Pop. (1870) 3,264,640.

A'NDAMANS, a group of thickly wooded islands towards the east side of the Bay of Bengal, between 10° and 14° of N. lat., and about 93° of E. long. The population is both barbarous and scanty, and bears no resemblance whatever either in physical features or language to the neighbouring Asiatic races. In 1793 the Great Andaman received a British colony, which was withdrawn, however, in 1796. Since 1857, the A. have been a penal settlement for sepoy mutineers and other criminals. In 1872, Lord Mayo, governor-general of India, was assassinated here by one of the convicts. It is physically, however, that the A. deserve mention, not for anything in themselves, but from their being a portion of the long arch, mostly volcanic, of the Indian Archipelago, which, with Timor at its bend, comprises the Moluccas, Celebes, the Philippines, and Formosa, on the one side; and on the other side the Sunda Isles, Java, Sumatra, the Nicobars, and the A.—the outline only requiring to be filled up in imagination, in order to produce a peninsula harmonising more or less with the other southern projections of the world, Hindostan, Africa, and South America.

ANDA'NTÉ (Italian), in Music, implies a movement somewhat slow and sedate, but in a gentle and soothing style. This term is often modified, both as to time and style, by the addition of other words—as *A. affettuoso*, slow, but pathetically; *A. cantabile*, slow, but in a singing style; *A. con moto*, slow, but with emotion; *A. grazioso*, slow but gracefully; *A. maestoso*, slow, with majesty; *A. non troppo*, slow, but not too much so; *A. pastorale*, slow, and with pastoral simplicity.

A'NDERNACH, a little town belonging to the district of Coblenz on the Rhine, in lat. 50° 27' N., long. 7° 25' E., was once a Roman fortress styled Antunnacum, then a residence of the Merovingian kings, and afterwards became one of the most flourishing places on the Rhine. The great tower on the north side, the fine old church—with one tower built in the Carlovingian times—and the old gates and walls, give quite a medieval aspect to the town. It now contains about 4000 people, supported by trade in leather, wine, and corn, and is especially celebrated for its millstones, exported to distant parts of the world, and for its *tuffstein* or trass, an indurated volcanic mud, which, when pulverised and mixed with lime, makes a mortar or cement for constructions under water.

ANDERSEN, Hans Christian, one of the most gifted poets that Denmark has recently produced, was born April 2, 1805, at Odense in Funen. His father was a poor shoemaker, who used, however, to console himself by speaking of the former prosperity and wealth of his family. After his father's death, he was for a short time employed in a manufactory. The widow of Bunkeflod, a poet of some reputation, charitably adopted him. He early displayed a talent for poetry, and was known in his native place as 'the comedy-writer.' Hoping to obtain an engagement in the theatre, he went to Copenhagen, but was rejected because he was too lean. He was next encouraged to hope for success as a singer; but had hardly commenced his musical studies when his voice failed. He found generous friends, however, to help him in his distress; and application having been made by one of them to the king, he was placed at an advanced school at the public expense, and so began his academic education in 1828. Some of his poems, particularly one entitled *The Dying Child*, had already been favourably received, and he now became better known by the publication of his *Walk to Amak*, a literary satire in the form of a humorous narrative. In 1830, he published the first collected volume of his *Poems*, and in 1831 a second, under the title of *Fantasies and Sketches*. His *Travelling Sketches* (*Skyggebilleder ofen Reise til Harzen*, &c.) were the fruit of a tour in the north of Germany. A pension from the king now enabled him to visit Germany, France, Switzerland, and Italy. In Switzerland he completed his *Agnes and the Merman*; and one of his best works, *The Improvisatore*, a series of scenes depicted in a glowing style, and full of poetic interest, was the fruit of his visit to Italy. Soon afterwards, he produced *O. T.* (1836), a novel containing vivid pictures of northern scenery and manners, which was followed (1837) by another, entitled *Only a Fiddler* (*Kun en Spillemand*). In 1840, he produced a romantic drama, entitled *The Mulatto*, which was well received; but another drama, *Raphaella*, was less successful. In the same year appeared his *Picture-book without Pictures*, a series of the finest imaginative sketches. Exhausted by his labours, he sought recreation in the end of 1840 in a somewhat lengthened tour in Italy and the East, of which he gave an account in *A Poet's Bazaar* (1842). After his return, appeared *The Flower of Fortune*. In 1844, A. visited the court of Denmark by special invitation. Since then he has travelled much, visiting England as well as other countries. His *Tales from Jutland* appeared in 1859; *The Sand-hills of Jutland*, in 1860; *Tales for Children*, in 1861; and in 1863, *The Wild Swans*, and *The Ice Maiden*. An English translation of *The Story of my Life* was published in London in the year 1871. His *Dying Child* has been translated into the language of Greenland. Besides the works above mentioned, he is the author of *Ahasuerus*, a mythical drama, and of *The Two Baronesses*, a tale illustrative of Danish society.

ANDERSON, James, LL.D., a writer on political economy and agriculture, was born in 1739 at the village of Hermiston, near Edinburgh. He lost both his parents when very young, so that the management of a large farm, which had been in the possession of the family for a long time, devolved upon himself. Recognising the practical importance of a knowledge of chemistry to a farmer, he attended the chemistry class in the university of Edinburgh, and brought the result[illegible] study to bear on his

profession. He invented, at an early period of life, the small two-horse plough without wheels, commonly called the Scotch plough, which is generally admitted to have been one of the most useful improvements of agricultural implements ever introduced. When only 24 years of age, he went to Aberdeenshire, where he rented a large moorland farm of 1300 acres. Here he remained for a considerable time, devoting his leisure hours to writing upon agriculture. His first attempt was a series of essays upon planting, which, under the signature of *Agricola*, he contributed to the *Edinburgh Weekly Magazine*. In 1780, the university of Aberdeen bestowed on him the degree of Doctor of Laws. In 1784, on account of his pamphlet, entitled *Encouragement of the National Fisheries*, he was engaged by government to make a survey of the western coast of Scotland, with special reference to that object. He next commenced in 1791 the publication of a periodical called *The Bee*, which was continued for three years; in 1797 he went to London, where he pursued his literary avocations with such intense assiduity, that his health gradually gave way. He died on the 15th of October 1808.

A. will deserve a place in any record which details the remarkable advances made by Scotland in agriculture and other sources of wealth in the latter half of the 18th c. And even in the history of ideas he will deserve a prominent notice, as his *Bee* was the type of many periodical miscellanies of a cheap nature, mingling instruction with entertainment, which have since been published. It is also to be observed that, in his essay called *A Comparative View of the Effects of Rent and of Tithe in Influencing the Price of Corn* (contained in one of his latest publications, *The Recreations of Agriculture*), he anticipated some important principles subsequently advocated by Malthus, Ricardo, and West, particularly the famous theory of rent.

ANDERSON, JOHN, F.R.S., Professor of Natural Philosophy in the university of Glasgow, and founder of the eminently useful institution bearing his name, was born in the parish of Roseneath, Dumbartonshire, in 1726. He studied at the university of Glasgow, in which, in his 30th year, he was appointed Professor of Oriental Languages. Four years later (1760), he was transferred to the chair of Natural Philosophy. He entered upon his new duties with extraordinary ardour. Besides the work of the class, he was indefatigable in studying the application of science to mechanical practice. Inspired by a rational philanthropy, he instituted, in addition to his usual class, which was strictly mathematical, one for artisans. He continued to teach this *Anti-type Class*, as he called it, twice every week, during the session, to the end of his life. In 1786 appeared his valuable work, entitled *Institutes of Physics*, which went through five editions in ten years. Shortly before the French Revolution, he invented a species of gun, the recoil of which was stopped by the condensation of common air within the body of the carriage; but having in vain endeavoured to attract the attention of the British government to it, he proceeded to Paris in 1791, and, being himself a great friend of liberty, presented his model to the National Convention. It was hung up in their hall, with the following inscription over it: 'The gift of SCIENCE to LIBERTY.' Afterwards, when the allied monarchical forces had drawn a military cordon around the frontiers of France, to prevent the introduction of French newspapers into Germany, A. ingeniously suggested the expedient, which was adopted and proved quite successful, of making small balloons of paper, to which newspapers and manifestoes might be tied, and letting them off, when the wind was favourable, for Germany. A. died 13th January 1796. By his will, dated 7th May 1795, he directed that the whole of his effects, of every kind, should be devoted to the establishment of an educational institution in Glasgow, to be denominated *Anderson's University*, for the use of the unacademical classes.

ANDERSON'S, or, more commonly, the ANDERSONIAN UNIVERSITY, was originally intended to consist of four colleges. The will of the founder places the institution under the immediate superintendence of 81 trustees, the mode of whose selection is prescribed, and these trustees elect annually nine of their number as managers. The funds being inadequate to the proposed plan, the institution was opened with only a single course of lectures on Natural Philosophy and Chemistry by Dr Thomas Garnett in 1796. This course was attended by nearly a thousand persons of both sexes. In 1798 a professor of Mathematics and Geography was appointed. In 1799, Dr Birkbeck, the successor of Dr Garnett, commenced the system of giving a familiar exposition of mechanics and general science, and this was the origin of mechanics' institutes.

The institution has gradually enlarged its sphere of instruction, and brought it nearer to the design of the founder. In 1873, the number of professors amounted to 17. Courses of instruction are given in Physical and Medical Science and in Chemistry; there are also taught Mathematics, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French, &c. As a school of medicine, in particular, it possesses a high reputation at the present time.

In 1861, John Freeland, Esq., residing at Nice, mortified the sum of £7500 for promoting the permanent establishment, in Anderson's University, of Popular Lectures on Chemistry, Mechanical and Experimental Physics, and Anatomy and Physiology. In addition to the above, Mr Freeland, in 1871, made a gift, for the general purposes of the university, of £5000. In 1866, William Ewing, insurance broker in Glasgow, settled in trust the sum of £3000 for the establishment of popular lectures on music in the university. In 1870, James Young, Esq., of Kelly, settled in trust the sum of £10,500 for the purpose of establishing a chair of Technical Chemistry; and recently the managers have obtained other funds whereby they have been enabled to institute a chair of 'Applied Mechanics.' In connection with the last two chairs, there are a number of valuable bursaries, the gift of gentlemen connected with the city, and others interested in extending scientific instruction.

A'NDES, the great mountain-chain of South America, extending in a direction nearly parallel with the Pacific, along almost the whole length of the continent. The chain falls short of the Isthmus of Darien, between which and the Atrato—a river falling into the Caribbean Sea—it gradually subsides into a merely undulating country. It appears, also, to fall still further short of the Strait of Magellan, so far as the mainland is concerned. But, on geological grounds, it has been traced, first along the islands that breast Patagonia to the west, and next along those that form the Fuegian Archipelago. Thus may the chain be said to stretch from the neighbourhood of the mouth of the Atrato, not merely to Cape Horn, but even to the rocks of Diego Ramirez, which lie about 60 miles to the south-west of that promontory. The extreme length, therefore, is from lat. 8° 15′ N. to lat. 56° 30′ S.—comprising, of course, 64° 45′, or, without any allowance for windings or deviations, about 4500 English miles. But to mark the scale on which nature has moulded the new world, the A. may be regarded as merely a part of the sufficiently continuous chain

of about 9000 miles which loses itself near the mouth of the Mackenzie, towards the shores of the Arctic Ocean. In this respect, the old continent can bring nothing into comparison.

Position.—The A., besides being generally in a direction nearly parallel with the Pacific, verge closely on that ocean. From the rocks, indeed, of Diego Ramirez to about lat. 40° S., the mountains, whether they are found on islands or on the mainland, are almost literally washed by the surf; while northward from that parallel, there spreads out, between the chain itself and the sea, a belt of land not exceeding, in average breadth, 70 or 80 miles. Within the limits of Peru, the belt in question is narrowest, while above and below it is, in general, somewhat more extensive. The position of the A. with respect to the Atlantic Ocean presents a striking contrast. To illustrate this, a passage is subjoined from Herndon, the explorer of the Amazon on behalf of the United States. Crossing from Lima to the head-waters of the Amazon, by the Pass of Antarangra, he writes thus: 'Yanacoto, on the western slope of the A., at the height of 2337 feet above the sea-level, is only 28 miles from the ocean that washes the base of the slope on which it is situated; while Fort San Ramon, at nearly the same elevation on the opposite side, cannot be much less than 4000 miles from its ocean by the windings of the river, and in the river's direct course is at least 2500 miles.' Further, to compare the two areas respectively to the west and east of the dividing ridge, the former has been estimated at 180,000 square miles, and the latter at twenty times as much.

Hydrography.—This interesting feature of the A. has been already anticipated, to a considerable extent, under the heads of the AMAZON and AMERICA. It only remains to observe that from one end of the continent to the other, the true and only water-shed, wherever there are two ranges, is the range nearer to the Pacific. Not only is the water-shed in question obviously far closer to the west than to the east, but, beyond this, it is, apparently without a single exception, pushed as far to the westward as possible; it thus affords the most conspicuous and most decisive example of an almost universal law in the hydrography of the earth. Throughout both continents, almost every leading water-shed presents a longer descent towards the east than towards the west, or, in other words, sends off larger streams in the former direction than in the latter. To cite a few instances: compare, in North America, the Missouri with the Columbia; in Europe, the Volga with the Neva; in Asia, the Hoang-ho of China with the Oxus of the Sea of Aral; and even in Africa, where, as also in Arabia, hydrographical traces have been largely overlaid by deserts of sand, the plateau of the Sahara and the chain of the Atlas gradually incline, both of them, towards the east. But, if the water-shed be invariably found as far as possible to the westward, it necessarily follows, that, wherever there are two ranges, the more easterly range cannot also be a continuous water-shed—unless, indeed, it may be regarded as such with respect to the land-locked basin of the connected lakes, Titicaca and Uroz, already mentioned under the head of AMERICA. With this exception, all the gatherings between the two ranges, whether the intermediate space be plateau or sierra, have found or formed channels of escape—narrow, deep, and dark as they often are—only to that sea which is thirty or forty times more distant than the one at their back.

Breadth and Area. The area, on an estimate, necessarily rough and vague, has been computed to be triple that of the belt of comparatively level land that borders on the Pacific. In other words, the average breadth of the chain is reckoned to be three that of the belt in question. In a rough way, the breadth may be estimated from the very shore of the Pacific, whence the west slope commences, to the lowest *pongos*, or cataracts, on the eastward streams. But it is more correct to measure it from the foot of the mountains, properly so called, on the one side to that on the other. The phraseology of the country, which, on such a subject, ought to be conclusive, appears to support the latter mode of computation. In Lima and its neighbourhood, where Herndon crossed the A., that officer speaks of 'coast' and 'sierra,' as distinguished from each other even to the westward of the dividing ridge. The entire distance of the Pass of Antarangra, as measured on the actual road, was 87 miles—the first 50 being *coast*, and the remaining 37 being sierra. Nor does the distinction seem to have been arbitrary one. From Callao to Cocachacra—a miles—the rise above the sea-level [illegible] the whole way, amounted to 4[illegible] more than 101 feet to the mile; but [illegible] of which about a half still belonged [illegible] what [illegible] *coast*, yielded an increase of 2850 feet, an [illegible] probably of 200 feet for that part of the st fell under the definition of *sierra*. To give of extreme breadths of the A.—an ave being unattainable—the least breadth, [illegible] Patagonia, is believed to be 60 or 70 [illegible] greatest breadth, again, pretty nearly on [illegible] of Lake Titicaca, and right through the plateau of Bolivia, is said to be 400 mile[illegible] to give an intermediate case, the brea Mendoza, in the basin of La Plata, to S Chili, is given at 140 miles—the former 4486 feet above the Atlantic, and the above the Pacific.

In order, then, to have a definite idea of the breadth of the A., the chain must be viewed from one end to the other. In doing this, there will be adopted the ordinary nomenclature, referring each division of the A. to the particular country through which it may pass.

Patagonian Andes.—Including the A. of the Fuegian Archipelago, this part of the chain, extending from lat. 56° S. to lat. 42° S., a distance of more than 960 miles, is the narrowest of all, or is, at all events, too irregular to have its breadth accurately estimated. The Patagonian shore, strictly so called, is breasted, very much like the north-west coast between Fuca's Strait and Mount St Elias, by a number of islands. On these, as already mentioned, the true A. are to be found, or rather, of these the true A. consist—the continent itself affording no footing to the chain till fully 300 miles to the northward of Cape Horn. Even after the chain has laid hold of the mainland, it by no means can be said to abandon the islands; so that here, as further to the north, the chain may be regarded as made up of parallel ranges—the main difference being that the intervening valleys, which, to the north, are basins of fresh-water rivers, here present salt-water channels.

Chilian Andes, stretching from lat. 42° S. to lat. 24 S., a distance of nearly 1250 miles. Throughout nearly the whole of this line, the A. consist of only one range, for the parallel ridges, which run along between the great water-shed and the Pacific, cannot claim to be any exception to this remark, inasmuch as their highest points do not exceed an elevation of 2500 feet above the level of the sea. This part of the chain, however, presents several lateral ranges, if it does not present any parallel ones of importance. These spurs are to be seen on both sides, those [illegible] of very different magnitudes. The

s to the comparatively insig-
just noticed, being, if A. at
in miniature. But to the east, the
more consideration. They are two in
one branching off between the 33d and
, and the other between the 28th and
The former, called the Sierra de Cordova,
like a promontory into the plains of Rio
or Pampas, as they are more gener-
ted, as far as the 65th meridian;
, called the Sierra de Salta, runs
to the east, and in a direction nearly

dian Andes.—This part of the chain, stretch-
lat. 24° S. to lat. 6° S.—a distance about
as in the last paragraph—is perhaps the
of all the divisions of the A. It certainly
largest of the plateaus, the plateau of
20th and 19th parallels, not
Potosi, the chain separates into
wn as the East and West Cordilleras
it is the reunion of these ranges,
15th and 14th parallels, that encloses
ed plateau of Titicaca, containing, as is
quare miles, or an area equal to that of
immediately above this table-land, the
uestion constitute the mountain-
h, in point of superficial extent,
so as large as all Switzerland.
degree her north, the chain again
s before, reuniting also, as before, between
and 10th parallels, so as to embrace the
Guanta and Guancavelica. Hardly have
ranges reunited, when they mass them-
table-land of Pasco, not quite
of that of Titicaca. Further to
chain divides, not into two, but
ges, which unite again, on the
of dor, in the group of Loxa, about

dor.—Immediately beyond the group
between 4° and 3° of S. lat., the chain
two ranges, which, by again uniting in
the valley of Cuença; and immediately
this is the group of Assuay, with its table-
Then another plateau of no great extent,
short stretch of the undivided chain, lead
vast table-land of Quito, which is said
subdivided by low hills into five smaller
, two to the east, and three to the west.
the north, the table-land of Quito is suc-
by the group of Los Pastos, forming the
portion of the A. of Ecuador.

New Granada.—Beyond the city of
chain breaks off into two ranges,
join each other. The range on
remains undivided, till it disappears
uth of the Atrato, a little to the east of
of Darien. But the range on the east,
ing itself into the group of Paramo de los
breaks into two branches, which, as dis-
from the range aforesaid on the west, are
Central and Eastern Cordilleras of New
These two contain between them the
of the Magdalena, the eastern separat-
the basin of the Orinoco, and the
ing them from that of the Cauca.
also they contain several considerable
, the principal one being that of Santa
Bogota.

—I er head must be treated separ-
, and most prominent *mountains*,
altitudes of the lines of perpetual
re naturally under the head of
as in the case of *breadth*, the chain
outh to north.

HEIGHT OF PLATEAUS.

	Feet.
Table-land of Titicaca,	12,700
Group of Cuzco,	8,300
Table-land of Pasco,	11,000
" " Assuay,	15,520
" " Quito,	9,543
" " Bogota,	8,958

The average height of these six colossal masses above the sea-level is thus 11,000 feet, or considerably more than 2 English miles.

HEIGHT OF MOUNTAINS.

	Feet.
Fuegian Andes—	
Cape Horn,	3,000
Sarmiento,	6,800
Patagonian Andes—	
Yanteles,	8,030
Corcobado,	7,510
Minchinadom,	8,000
Chilian Andes—	
Antuco,	13,000
Aconcagua,	22,296
Descabezado,	12,102
Nevado de Chorolque,	16,546
Bolivian Andes—	
Cerro de Potosi,	16,040
Gualtieri,	22,000
Nevado de Chuquibamba,	21,000
" Illimani,	21,150
" Sorata,	21,290
Analache,	18,500
Peruvian Andes—	
Arequipa,	20,320
Andes of Ecuador—	
Chimborazo,	21,420
Cotopaxi,	18,887
Antisana,	19,137
Pichincha,	15,922
Cayambe,	19,648
Andes of New Granada—	
Pic de Tolima,	18,314

This last-named mountain is said to be the only one in New Granada that rises above the limit of perpetual snow. All the others appear to fall short of that line.

HEIGHT OF PASSES.

	Feet.
Chilian Andes—	
La Cumbre,	12,454
Portillo,	14,365
Bolivian Andes—	
Potosi,	14,320
Las Gualillas,	14,830
Peruvian Andes—	
Alto de Jacaibamba,	15,135
Lachagual,	15,480
Antarangra,	16,199
Andes of Ecuador—	
Assuay,	12,385
Andes of New Granada—	
Quindiu,	11,500

These passes will bear a comparison with the loftiest pinnacles in Europe. The last and lowest overtops the highest summit of the Pyrenees by 332 feet; while the last but two, that of Antarangra, which Herndon traversed, soars 389 feet above Mont Blanc, the culminating peak of the Alps.

The passes across the A. present a vast variety of surfaces and levels. They appear to skirt, as often as practicable, the mountain-torrents; and, when

that is impracticable, sometimes surmount them by bridges, and sometimes avoid them by means of a path cut along the shoulder of the overhanging height.

With respect to the mountain-torrents, Herndon, after leaving Antarangra behind him, was enabled to avail himself chiefly of this resource. 'As far as the traveller,' says he, 'is concerned, there are not, on the route we have travelled, two ranges of the A.—that is, he has not to ascend and descend one range, and then ascend and descend another. From the time that he crosses at Antarangra, his progress is downward, till he reaches the plain. Really, however, there are two ranges. The streams from the first or western range have broken their way through the second, making deep gorges, at the bottom of which the road generally runs, and leaves the peaks of the second range thousands of feet above the traveller's head.'

In addition to the essential perils of such a course, Herndon encountered, on one occasion, an incidental danger, which he thus describes—the scene being a narrow path on the shoulder of an almost precipitous hill: 'Mr Gibbon was riding ahead. Just as he was about to turn a sharp bend, the head of a bull peered round it on the descent. When the bull came in full view, he stopped; and we could see the heads of other cattle clustering over his quarters, and hear the shouts of the cattle-drivers, far behind, urging on their herd. I happened to be abreast of a slight natural excavation; and dismounting, I put my shoulder against my mule's flank, and pressed her into this friendly retreat; but I saw no escape for Gibbon. The bull, with lowered crest and savage look, came slowly on, and actually got his head between the perpendicular wall and the neck of Gibbon's mule. But his sagacious beast, pressing her haunches hard against the rock, gathered her feet close under her, and turned as on a pivot. This placed the bull on the outside; and he rushed by at the gallop, followed in single file by the rest of the herd.'

In the bridging of the mountain-torrents, a good deal of rude ingenuity is displayed. Sometimes chains are suspended from side to side; and sometimes a rough flooring is laid between projecting beams from either bank, which have previously been fixed as solidly as possible. Nature also has done something in this respect to help man, having thrown two bridges of her own over a fearful chasm at Icononzo. The torrent, which they span, falls down a beautiful cataract into a murky crevice—the noisy haunt of nocturnal birds. At a height of 400 feet above the foaming waters, the two bridges hang in mid-air, both of them, apparently, though in different ways, the work of an earthquake. The upper one is merely a fragment of the original sandstone, which must have resisted the shock that formed the rent; while the lower, probably the most singular arch in the world, consists of three detached rocks, so adjusted as to support each other.

The loftiest pinnacles of the A., when viewed from the table-lands, and, still more, when seen from the crests of the passes, lose, to the eye of the beholder, much of their real altitude. Under such circumstances, not a single mountain presents the actual dimensions of Mont Blanc, as overhanging the Vale of Chamouni. It is only from a distance—best of all, perhaps, from a good offing in the Pacific—that the A. appear in all their gigantic proportions. Standing thus on their pedestal, the most rugged and colossal in nature, they almost realise to the spectator the highest Pyrenees piled on the highest Alps; while, to enhance the grandeur of the scene, the igneous action, which has heaved the chain into existence, is here and there adding to its stature a pillar of smoke and flame.

The geology of the A. is as yet very little known. It is more than half a century since Humboldt travelled through these mountains, and to him we are even now chiefly indebted for our knowledge regarding them. At that time, geology was in its infancy—its language had not been formed, its classification, at least as it now exists, was unknown, and its facts were mixed with absurd and now long-exploded theories; it could, in fact, scarcely be called a science. It is fortunate that as regards the materials constituting the great mass of the A. range—the igneous rocks which form its back-bone, and the metamorphic rocks which form its great bulk—our knowledge was almost as extensive and explicit 50 years ago as it is now, and therefore, in respect to them, Humboldt's observations are as good as if made but yesterday. Not so as regards the more recent sedimentary formations. The value of fossils was not then known, and the vaguest ideas prevailed as to the chronological order of the stratified rocks. Hence descriptions written at that time are almost valueless to modern science. A few scattered notes may be gleaned from the small number of intelligent travellers who have recently visited these mountains; and to them we are obliged for any of the facts we are able to give regarding the deposits referred to.

The elevation of the A. took place at an epoch anterior to the formation of the Rocky Mountains of North America, which are geographically a continuation of them. They are composed, to a very large extent, of stratified metamorphic rocks. It is remarkable that granite occurs in them not as an unstratified plutonic rock, but only intercalated with the other members of the stratified azoic series. The true igneous rocks belong either to the trappean or volcanic divisions. The grand ridge is everywhere covered with one or other of the varieties of trap (greenstone, clinkstone, basalt, or porphyry). These are often broken into columns, and appear at a distance like ruined castles, producing a very striking effect.

Bursting through the trap-rocks, there are a number of *volcanoes* covering their summits with mass recent igneous rocks. Among the mountains specified above as to altitude, Yanteles, Corcobado, Minchinadom, Antuco, Gualtieri, Arequipa, Cotopaxi, Antesana, and Pichincha belong to this class. Fifty-one volcanoes have been described as existing throughout the whole range. The mountains of Ecuador are so extensively and continuously of volcanic origin, that they have been regarded as different safety-valves of one and the same burning vault. It is generally maintained that there is a relation between the height of a volcano and its activity and the frequency of its eruptions. Thus, Stromboli (2957 feet) has continued in a state of activity since the earliest ages, serving the purpose of a light-house to the navigators of the Tyrrhenian Sea; while Cotopaxi (18,887 feet) and Tunguragua (16,579 feet) have been active only once in a hundred years. Many of these 51 volcanoes have consequently not yet been observed by Europeans in an active state. In the Quito district there are 10 active, and 7 of doubtful activity; in Peru and Bolivia, the numbers are 9 and 3; in Chili, 17 and 5: making in all 36 active, and 15 about which there is some uncertainty as to their activity. Another characteristic of these volcanoes, resulting from their gigantic altitude, is that few of them emit streams of lava. Thus Antisana is probably the only one in the Quito range that has ejected lava. The force, however, which is repressed apparently by the immense superincumbent mass which fills the crater, is exhibited

in a terrific manner when an eruption does take place. Cotopaxi, for instance, the most regular and beautiful outlet of this the grandest of nature's laboratories, has been known to shoot its fiery torrents 3000 feet above its snow-bound crater, while its voice is said to have been heard at a distance of 550 miles. On one occasion a piece of rock, measuring 300 cubic feet, was thrown from its crater to a distance of more than eight miles.

Earthquakes are intimately connected with these volcanic phenomena. No portion of the globe is subject to such frequent and destructive earthquakes as the countries embosomed within the range of the A. and those lying between them and the Pacific. The cities and towns of Bogota, Quito, Riobamba, Callao, Copiapo, Valparaiso, and Concepcion, have all at different times been more or less devastated by their agency. During the year 1859, an earthquake buried many of the inhabitants of Quito under the ruins of its churches and public edifices; scarcely a single building of any size having escaped uninjured.

It is to the same subterranean agency that upheaved and still convulses the A. that we are to ascribe those fearful ravines which are almost peculiar to the chain. An apt instance has already been cited in the case of the deep and dismal crevice which has been spanned by the natural bridges of Icononzo. A still better specimen is the valley or den of Chota, which, with a width at top of only 2000 feet, is 4875 feet in perpendicular height. This den might overlap the loftiest hill in Scotland, with St Peter's at Rome on its summit.

The flanks of the mountains are clothed with crystalline stratified rocks, consisting of innumerable varieties of granites, gneiss, schists, hornblende, chloritic slates, porphyries, &c. These have been greatly disrupted by the underlying igneous rocks, and now occupy a vertical or nearly vertical position. They often run up into bold and rugged peaks on the summits. They alternate with each other in great meridional bands, but without any apparent order in the succession, except that the varieties of schist depend on the crystalline parent rock below; otherwise, no regular sequence can be observed; for miles, only granite and gneiss are found, then schist, quartz, gneiss, &c., interchanging. The variety and quantity of the mineral wealth of these rocks is remarkable; with the exception of lead, most of the metals are obtained in large quantities—see below. The topaz, amethyst, and other gems are abundant.

Lying unconformable with these almost vertical metamorphic rocks, there occur in the valleys and table-lands, and creeping up the base of the mountains, a variety of fossiliferous beds, which require further examination before they can be clearly understood. A better estimate of the nature of these deposits will be arrived at by describing one of the localities where they occur. Take the large plateau on which Bogota is built, which is 8958 feet above the sea. The deposits filling up this plain have been formed subsequent to the present conformation of the district, though not necessarily at the present altitude: the whole range may have been since elevated. The almost horizontal rocks, from their organic contents, consisting of Ammonites, Hamites, &c., have been referred by Edward Forbes to the cretaceous era. The basin consists of many beds of sandstones, limestones, shale, coal, gypsum, and salt. The salt occurs in large quantities, one bed being no less than 100 feet in thickness, and the coal in sufficient abundance to be wrought. All these rocks have been more or less affected by their proximity to the underlying metamorphic rocks. The molecular action going on below has in many places been continued in them, and has induced a cleavage at right angles to their planes of stratification. The other patches—some of great extent, as the plateau of the Titicaca—cannot yet be referred to any particular geologic epoch. Coal has been found near Huanco, in Peru, at the height of 17,000 feet; fossiliferous limestones and sandstones have been noticed in Peru at Micuipampa and Huancavelica.

Metals.—The aboriginal term *A.* is said to have been derived from the Peruvian *anta*, which signifies metal in general, or rather, perhaps, copper in particular. Within the limits of the empire of the Incas, mining-tools, evidently not European, have been dug up in various places; and in one district the ancient Peruvians have left behind them traces of their mining operations at a height of 17,000 feet. Moreover, the term, whatever may have been its meaning, appears to have been, at all events, of Peruvian origin, for it does not seem to have been applied to the great chain of mountains by the aborigines of New Granada.

The A. are understood to yield every metal used in the arts but lead, and, according to one recent statement, they yield lead also.

Gold is found in Chili, Peru, and New Granada. In Chili, however, it is so little productive, that proverbially a gold-mine is inferior to a silver one, and that, again, to a copper one. In Peru, gold is most abundant between the 9th and 7th parallels; though further south, to the east of Lima, the mines of Carabayo have been recently wrought to great advantage; and further south still, to the east of Titicaca, very rich washings are situated on the river Tipuani. In New Granada, gold-mines are generally so inaccessible as not to bear the expense of working them. The washings, again, though perhaps remotely the product of the A., are confined chiefly to the alluvial soils that lie between the chain and either sea.

Silver also is found in Chili, Peru, and New Granada. In Chili, the most valuable, almost the only very valuable, mines are wrought on the east face of the A., not far from the city of Mendoza, already mentioned in connection with the breadth of the chain. In Peru, the most productive mines are those of Pasco and Potosi. In those of Pasco, which have now been open for more than two and a quarter centuries without even approaching to exhaustion, the ore is a mixture of silver and oxide of iron. In the mines, again, of Potosi, whose very name has become a proverb, there are said to be no fewer than 5000 excavations, while, to all appearance, only the upper crust of the inexhaustible deposits has been penetrated. In New Granada, it is with silver as it has been shewn to be with gold, the mines of the former metal, as well as of the latter, being so inaccessible as not to bear the expense of working them.

Mercury or *quicksilver* is found in Quito, near the village of Azogué, which lies to the north-west of Cuença—taking its name, as is said, from this metal; and it is found likewise in Peru, not far from Guancavelica, a town situated, as already stated, to the north of the group of Cuzco. The mercury exists chiefly in combination with sulphur, forming what is called cinnabar.

Platinum appears to exist only in New Granada; but like the gold-washings of that country, it is found rather in the alluvial soils, that have been flooded down from the chain, than in the chain itself.

Copper is found chiefly in Chili, but also in Peru. In the latter country, it is of little account in comparison with silver; but, in the former, it may be styled the staple metal, or even the staple production.

The most valuable mines are in the northern and southern provinces; in Coquimbo and Copiapo above, and in the neighbourhood of Araucania below.

Climate.—The climate of the A. is, at every point, affected by three different considerations—position with respect to the length of the chain, position with respect to its breadth, position with respect to its height.

In connection with the *length* of the chain, the variations of climate, though less peculiar than its variations under either of the other aspects, are not merely a counterpart of similar changes in other parts of the globe. In the new world generally, temperature rises and falls more rapidly in proportion to latitude than in the old; and, again, as within the new world itself, more rapidly in the south than in the north. In connection, therefore, with the length of the A., the variations of climate may be regarded as the greatest possible—the tropical heat of the equatorial regions passing gradually into something like polar cold, even within a latitude not greater than that of Edinburgh. This may be best illustrated with reference to the limits of perpetual snow. Within the Strait of Magellan, in about the latitude of Wales, the limit in question is only about 3500 feet, nearly the precise height of the summit of Snowdon. In lat. 33° S., about the centre of Chili, the snow-line, according to Humboldt, is estimated at 12,780 feet; while, on a nearly corresponding parallel, the Himalayas present on their northern slope a snow-line of 16,620 feet. In the tropical regions of the A., the snow-line seems to range from 16,000 feet to 18,000. This result, excepting that it does not greatly surpass the height of the snow-line as above on the Himalayas, can scarcely be compared with anything in the old world, whose tropical regions do not present any chain of the requisite altitude for the purpose. The same cause which regularly lowers the snow-line in proceeding from north to south, has led, in Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, to the formation of glaciers—a feature of the Alps which is altogether unknown in the central and northern divisions of the A. Glaciers, as the growth of an icicle renders familiar to every one, require alternations of heat and cold, or rather of thaw and frost. Now, these essential conditions do not exist in the lower latitudes of the A., where, generally speaking, every stage or terrace, as already noticed under the head of AMERICA, possesses an almost monotonous temperature. But they do exist in Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego; and accordingly, glaciers there abound on the shores of the deep indentations of the coast.

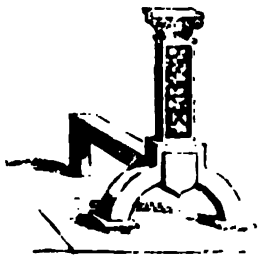
In connection, next, with the *breadth* of the chain, the variations of climate, if not peculiar to the A., have no perfect parallel elsewhere. At every point, excepting, perhaps, towards the extreme south, the chain is almost as much of a water-shed to the clouds as it is to the rivers. Rarefied as the air is at the elevation of the A., no vapour, generally speaking, can cross them—even the existence of snow at the height of several miles being a phenomenon which, *a priori*, was hardly to be expected. This fact is rendered more important by the ordinary directions of the currents of air. The prevailing winds blow against the A., not alongside of them, being generally from the east between the equator and 30°, and from the west in latitudes towards the south. Thus, generally speaking, every section of the chain has permanently a windward and a leeward side—the former intercepting nearly all the moisture, and the latter being condemned to comparative drought. Peru, Chili, and Patagonia, one and all, confirm these observations in detail. On the west, Peru, unless in the immediate vicinity of the mountain-streams, is little better than a desert; while, on the east, the Montana, as it is called, is remarkable for its fertility. To the west, on the contrary, Patagonia has its glaciers to shew as the result of its rains from that quarter; while, to the east, its five terraces, extending 700 miles to the Atlantic, are almost uniformly arid and sterile. Between Patagonia and Peru, Chili has something in common with both, resembling the former in its southern half, and the latter in its northern. To take the Pacific side alone: in the northern parts, showers are only occasional, sometimes at an interval of three years—the deficiency being partly supplied by frequent dews; while, to the south of lat. 34°, the rains are sufficiently copious to form considerable rivers.

In connection, lastly, with the *height* of the chain, the variations of climate stand alone in the world, being approached, though at a great interval, only by the corresponding changes in Central America. The Alps, to take a familiar analogy, have, it is true, their gradations of climate. But, situated, in round numbers, on about the 45th parallel, they represent only half of the latitudes between the equator and the pole; while the A. of Quito, before reaching this level, must have seen melting into each other the temperatures of Borneo, India, Persia, Asia Minor, and Italy. Taking the snow-line of the A. of Quito at 18,000 feet, and that of the Alps at 8000, the lower and hotter 10,000 feet of the former have no counterpart at all on the latter. Now, Herndon found Tarma to lie within this height, precisely at an elevation of 9738 feet; and he there saw apples, strawberries, almonds, grapes, and maize—a state of things not far behind that at the foot of the Alps. No space remaining for details, one general observation must close this article. In an open locality, the naked eye may embrace half a zone, for, to quote a traveller's words, it may look upwards to the barley-field and the potato-patch, and downwards to the sugar-cane and the pine-apple. Perhaps the most striking instance of this more than telescopic vision is connected with the magnificent fall of Tequendama, the single outlet of the waters of the table-land of Bogota. This fall, 600 feet high, leaps down from the temperate zone to the torrid, from rich crops of wheat to a few scattered palms.

ANDI'RA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Papilionaceæ*, having an almost orbicular, one-celled, one-seeded pod.—*A. inermis* (formerly known as *Geoffroya inermis*) grows in low savannahs in the West Indies, and is there called *Cabbage Tree* or *Cabbage-bark Tree*. It is a tree of considerable height, having pinnate leaves, with 13—15 ovato-lanceolate leaflets, and panicles of reddish lilac flowers. Its bark, called *Cabbage Bark* or *Worm Bark*, is a powerful anthelmintic; and although it has recently been discarded from the pharmacopœias of Britain, still finds a place in those of other countries, along with *Surinam Bark*, the bark of *A. retusa* (formerly *Geoffroya Surinamensis*), a native of Surinam. Similar properties reside in the bark of several species of the allied genus Geoffroya. Cabbage Bark contains an alkaloid called *Jamaicina*.

A'NDIRON, or HANDIRON, is a term frequently to be met with in inventories of the furniture of old houses; and in some parts of the country is still used for what is more generally known as a fire-dog. Andirons were used for burning wood on an open hearth, and consisted of a horizontal bar raised on short supports, with an upright standard at one end. A pair were used, one standing at each side of the hearth, and the l[illegible] of wood rested across the horizontal bars. [illegible]p ht portions of the A.

were of various forms, some of them, in later times, representing a human figure. More generally, the was architectural, much ornamented with



Andiron.

arabesques, and not unfrequently with the monograms of their possessors. The ornamental parts of the A. were sometimes silver, but more frequently copper.

ANDORRA, a valley in the Eastern Pyrenees, between the French department of Ariège and Catalonia, in Spain. It is enclosed by mountains, through which its river, the Balira, breaks to join the Segre at Urgel; and its inaccessibility naturally fits it for being the seat of the interesting little republic which here holds a kind of semi-independent position between France and Spain. Area (divided into six parishes) about 158 square miles; pop. variously stated at from 4000 to 12,000. The capital is Andorra, on the Balira, with a population of 2000. Dense forests supply abundance of timber; there is much excellent pasture; vines and fruit-trees flourish on the lower grounds, and the mountains contain rich iron-mines; but agriculture is so neglected, and the quantity of arable land so small, that the inhabitants partly depend for corn upon importation from France. A. was declared a free state by Charlemagne, in reward for services rendered to him by its inhabitants, when he was marching against the Moors. He retained certain rights which Louis le Débonnaire afterwards transferred to the Bishop of Urgel, in 819 A.D., and which the Bishop of Urgel still exercises. The republic is governed by a sovereign council of twenty-four members, chosen by the people, and the council elects one of its members to be syndic for life, who exercises the chief executive power. There are two judges called *viguiers*, of whom the first is appointed by France, which exercises a kind of protectorate, and the second by the Bishop of Urgel. The first viguier is a Frenchman, and the second a native of A. Under each viguier is an inferior judge called a *bailie*; but there is an appeal from his judgment to the viguier, and finally to the Court of Cassation at Paris, or to the Episcopal College at Urgel. In criminal cases, there is no appeal from the court of the republic itself, in which the first viguier presides. The revenue of the state is derived from lands, and from some inconsiderable taxes. A sum of 960 francs is paid annually to France, in return for which is granted the privilege of free importation of corn. An annual payment of 450 livres is made to the Bishop of Urgel. The manner of life of the Andorrans is very simple. There are schools, but education is in a low state. There is a complete military organisation. In recent wars, the Andorrans have warmly supported France.

ANDOVER, a market-town of Hampshire, lies in the north-west part of the county, lat. 51° 12′ N., long. 1° 28′ W. The origin of the town dates from a remote antiquity, as might indeed be suspected from its name, which is a modification of the Saxon *Andeafaran*, i.e., ferry over the river Ande. It is said that the corporation of A. is as old as the time of King John. The inhabitants, 5501 in 1871, are chiefly supported by their malt-trade, their agriculture, and their traffic in timber with Portsmouth. At Weyhill, a few miles to the west of the town, a fair is held, formerly one of the most celebrated and important in England. It lasts for six days. The church of A. is a new erection, in the early English style of architecture, and cost £30,000, the whole of which was defrayed by the late rector, the Rev. W. S. Goddard. Various relics of antiquity have been discovered in the vicinity of Andover.

ANDOVER, a township in Massachusetts, about 21 miles to the north of Boston, reaching on the north to the Merrimac. It is intersected by several railways, while the water-power of its streams is extensively employed in the manufacturing of thread, linen, and flannels. The township was incorporated in 1646, just 26 years after the first landing of the Pilgrim Fathers. Its population, by the census of 1870, was 4873. A. is famous, even in Massachusetts, for its educational institutions. It has two of a superior description—the Theological Seminary of the Congregationalists, and the Phillips Academy, instituted within five or six years after the close of the war of independence, through the efforts of two brothers from whom it derives its name. Both these establishments are liberally constituted and well attended; and the latter in particular, with its revenue of £12,000 sterling, would be reckoned very wealthy in any part even of the old world.—Besides this A., there are eleven other places of the same name in the United States.

ANDRAL, GABRIEL, a celebrated French physician, member of the Institute and of the Academy of Medicine, was born in Paris on the 6th of November 1797. In 1823 he established his reputation by the publication of the first part of his *Clinique Médicale*; in 1828, partly through the influence of M. Royer-Collard, whose daughter he had married, he was appointed Professor of Hygiène; and in 1830 was advanced to the chair of Internal Pathology, a branch of medical science which had always possessed great attractions for him. A., in fact, commenced his investigations with pathological anatomy. He presented to the Academy, at a comparatively early period of his career, a paper *Sur l'Anatomie Pathologique du Tube Digestif* (On the Pathological Anatomy of the Alimentary Canal), which was greatly admired. Besides, he published, in 1829, a *Précis Elémentaire* of the same science, which met with striking success; and his *Clinique Médicale* treats principally of diseases of the chest, of the abdomen, and of the brain. In 1839, A. was almost unanimously elected by his colleagues to succeed Broussais in the chair of pathology and general therapeutics, the highest in the school. Here he has shewn the vast range of his medical knowledge; but in occupying himself so much with the pathological anatomy of the dead body, it is alleged that he has not paid sufficient attention to the phenomena of disease before the organs begin to exhibit traces of alteration. Though actively engaged in his general practice, he has found time to write several other works besides those already mentioned. In 1835 appeared his *Projet d'un Essai sur la Vitalité*; in 1836, he edited and considerably enlarged Laennec's *Traité de l'auscultation Médiate et du Cœur*; in 1836–1837, a *Cours de Pathologie Interne*; in 1837, his report to the Academy *Sur le Traitement de la Fièvre Typhoïde par les Purgatifs*; in 1843 he presented to

the Institute his *Traité Elémentaire de Pathologie et de Thérapeutique Générale* (published in 1840), &c.

A'NDRÉ, JOHN, an unfortunate soldier who met his death under circumstances which have given his name a place in history, was born in London in 1751 of Genevese parents. At the age of twenty, he entered the army, and soon after joined the British forces in America, where, in a few years, through the favour of Sir Henry Clinton, he was promoted to the important post of adjutant-general, with the rank of major.

Sir Henry Clinton being in treaty with the American general Arnold, who commanded the fortress of West Point, for the betrayal to the British of the fortress with its magazines, including the whole stock of powder of the American army, confided the conduct of the correspondence on his part to Major A. The secret correspondence was conducted by Arnold and A. under assumed names, and as if it related to commercial affairs; and the treachery was so well concealed, that the Americans had no suspicion whatever of Arnold's fidelity. At last it remained only to settle the time and means of carrying the scheme into execution; and these it was determined should be settled in a personal interview between Arnold and A., either because Arnold required such an interview, or, more probably, because Clinton had some misgivings as to the identity of his correspondent. Various projects to bring about the interview having failed, A., at last, on the 20th September 1780, proceeded in a British sloop of war—the *Vulture*—up the Hudson nearly to the American lines. The original design was to have met under cover of a flag of truce, on the pretence of effecting some arrangement as to the sequestrated property of a Colonel Robinson, a loyalist gentleman who accompanied A., and whose house was at the time Arnold's head-quarters; but this design had to be abandoned, and Arnold was obliged to contrive a secret interview. On the night of the 21st September he prevailed on a Mr Smith, who lived within the American lines, to go to the *Vulture* with a packet for Colonel Robinson. Smith went, and returned with A., who passed under the assumed name of Anderson. Arnold met him on the shore, where they conferred some time, after which they went within the lines to Smith's house, and there spent the rest of the night and part of the next day arranging the details of their plan for the treacherous surprisal of West Point. The attack was fixed for the day when the return of General Washington was expected; and there is reason for thinking that part of Arnold's scheme was, if possible, to betray Washington also into the hands of the enemy.

Early on the morning of the 22d September, a gun was brought to bear on the *Vulture*, and obliged her to fall down the river so far that A. could not prevail on the boatmen to take him to her, and so was forced to make his way by land to the English lines in a disguise furnished by Smith, and provided with a pass from the general. A. actually got safely within sight of the English lines, when he was stopped and taken prisoner by three American militia-men, to whom, mistaking them for British, he inadvertently revealed the fact that he was a British officer. His captors, on searching him, having discovered concealed in his stockings the plans of West Point and other papers connected with the proposed treachery, which he was bearing from Arnold to Clinton, carried him as a spy to a Colonel Jamieson, who, not suspecting anything, was for sending him on to Arnold. Here a chance of escape opened for him, but only for a moment. He was ultimately sent, with the papers found on his person, to General Washington. Jamieson, meantime, having sent word to Arnold of the capture of A., Arnold fled to the *Vulture*, and so saved his life.

A., as a spy taken in the act, was liable, according to the rules of war, to be hanged at once. But considering the rank of the prisoner, and the circumstances, Washington resolved on referring the case to a Board of general officers, to report the facts, with their opinion of the light in which the prisoner ought to be considered, and the punishment that ought to be inflicted. The Board found that he ought to be considered as a spy from the enemy, and punished with death. Strenuous efforts were made by the British commander to save him. It was represented to Washington that A. could not be regarded as a spy, because—1. He entered American lines under a flag of truce; 2. [illegible] his movements within the lines were directed by general. The first plea, on A.'s own [illegible] was contrary to the fact; and to the [illegible] rightly appeared that the point of the [illegible] the communication with the base [illegible] All the efforts of Clinton failed [illegible] American commander. A. was sentenced [illegible] On one condition only would W[illegible] him—that the British should [illegible] But this they could not think of doing; the [illegible] honour which, yielding to the spirit of war, [illegible] no opposition to a bargain with Arnold for [illegible] and liberties of his compatriots, made it [illegible] to deliver up the runaway traitor to the [illegible] otherwise awaited the soldier who only w[illegible] in his zeal for his country.

A. suffered death by hanging at Tappan [illegible] state of New York, on the 2d October 17[illegible] 29th year. His death everywhere excited [illegible] sympathy. The whole British army went [illegible] mourning for him; a monument was erected [illegible] memory in Westminster Abbey, and in [illegible] remains were disinterred at Tappan, and [illegible] to a grave near his monument.

Much has been written on the subject [illegible] execution. It has often been maintain[illegible] recently by Lord Mahon, in his *History of* (vol. vii.), that his sentence was u[illegible] simple narrative of the circumstances, [illegible] are to be gathered from Lord Mahon's own [illegible] shews that the American general had no [illegible] native. Indeed, the circumstances cited to show A. was not a spy, in the ordinary sense, all prove that he was a spy of the worst sort. [illegible] success of the treachery of Arnold would have [illegible] the destruction of the American cause; [illegible] hard to see how the agent who went secr[illegible] the American lines, and was captured [illegible] disguise with the information that [illegible] that success, is to be held in a better c[illegible] common soldier who steals his way into [illegible] camp of a night, to see the extent of his [illegible] and forces.

A. was a handsome and amiable man, of co[illegible] able accomplishments; he was a good s[illegible] appears, when in England, to have been l[illegible] certain literary circles of his time. These [illegible] stances naturally heightened the feeling [illegible] his fate was regarded.

See *Biographical Dictionary* of the So[illegible] Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, vol. ii. [illegible] vi. of the *Memoirs of the Historical Soc[illegible] sylvania*, 1858, *The Case of Major A.*, [illegible] *of the Statement of it in Lord Mahon's [illegible] England*, by Charles J. Biddle—an essay con[illegible] a full narrative of the case, with a discussio[illegible] the questions of law and duty raised in c[illegible] with it.

ANDREÆ, JOH. VALENT., a very original and [illegible] writer, born at Herrenberg, near

17th of August 1586. He studied at Tübingen, some time in travelling in the south of pe, obtained ecclesiastical preferments in the ...stant Church of his native country, and died ...ne 27, 1654, at Stuttgart, where he was chaplain court. Eminently practical in his mental dis...on, he was grieved to see the principles of stianity made the subject of mere empty disputa- and all science and philosophy in like manner ...ted by a frivolous scholasticism. To the ...ction of this prevailing tendency of his age, the ...f his whole life were directed. His writings ...rkable for the wit and humour, as well as ...earning, acuteness, and moral power which ...isplay. He has been long regarded as the ...er, or at least the restorer of the order of the ...rucians (q. v.); and this opinion is plausibly ...ported by reference to three publications—the ...mische *Hochzeit Christiani Rosenkreutz* (1616), the ...a *Fraternitatis R. C.*, i. e., *rosea crucis* (1614), *Confessio Fraternitatis R. C.* (1615), of the ... which he acknowledged himself the author, other two have so much resemblance to it as ... evidently from the same pen. But, however ... works were misunderstood by his contempo..., and particularly by those who were inclined to ...ticism in religion, his intention in them was cer... not to originate or promote secret societies of ... and enthusiasts, but to ridicule the follies of ... He attacked Rosicrucianism itself in some ... writings with great severity. Among ... of his works are his *Menippus s. Satyri...ialogorum Centuria* (1617). His *Mythologiae ...ae* (1619) is another of the best known. He ... an allegoric poem called *Die Christenburg* (of ... an edition was published, Stuttg. 1836), and ...utobiography (Winterthur, 1799). Herder has ... much to extend a knowledge of A.'s works in present age.

...DREOSSY, ANTOINE FRANÇOIS, COUNT, was ... March 6, 1761, at Castelnaudary, in Langue... was the great-grandson of François A., who, ...ith Riquet, constructed the canal of Langue... the 17th c. He entered the army as a lieu...ant of artillery in 1781, joined the Revolutionists, ... rapidly in military rank, served under Bonaparte in Italy and Egypt, accompanied him on his return from Egypt to France, and took part in the revolution of the 18th Brumaire. He was ambassador at London during the peace of Amiens, and afterwards at Vienna, was governor of Vienna when it was in the hands of the French after the battle of Wagram, and was for some time ambassador at Constantinople, from which he was recalled by Louis XVIII. on the Restoration. He was raised to the peerage by Napoleon after his return from Elba. After the battle of Waterloo, he advocated the recall of the Bourbons; but as deputy from the department of Aube, he generally took part with the opposition. He died at Montauban on September 10, 1828. He was a man of eminent scientific attainments, and distinguished himself as a member of the Institute founded at Cairo. One of his first works was the *Histoire Générale du Canal du Midi* (Par. 1800; new edition, 2 vols., 1805), in which he asserted the right of his great-grandfather to honours long enjoyed by Riquet. Among the most valuable of his works are his *Mémoire sur l'Irruption du Pont-Euxin dans la Méditerranée*, his *Mémoire sur le Système des Eaux qui abreuvent Constantinople*, and his *Constantinople et le Bosphore de Thrace pendant les Années* 1812—1814 *et pendant l'Année* 1826 (Par. 1828), a work of importance in physical geography.

ANDREW, the first disciple of Christ, and afterwards an apostle, was, like his brother Peter, a fisherman. Previous to his recognition of Christ as the Messiah, he had been numbered among the disciples of John the Baptist. (See John i. 40, 41.) The career of A., as an apostle, after the death of Christ, is unknown. Tradition tells us that, after preaching the gospel in Scythia, Northern Greece, and Epirus, he suffered martyrdom on the cross at Patræ in Achaia, 62 or 70 A. D. A cross formed of beams obliquely placed is styled St A.'s Cross. In the early times of the Church, a spurious supplement to the Acts of the Apostles was circulated among certain sects under the title *Acta Andreæ*. The anniversary of *St A.* falls on November 30. St A. is the patron saint of Scotland; he is also held in great veneration in Russia, as the apostle who, according to tradition, first preached the gospel in that country. In both countries there is an order of knighthood named in his honour.

ST ANDREW, or THE THISTLE, a Scottish order of knighthood, named after the patron saint of Scotland. Nisbet, with pardonable partiality, prefers it to all other orders, purely military, 'chiefly for the antiquity of it, which gives it a place and precedency over all other orders now in being. (*Heraldry*, Part iv. c. xi., p. 107.) He then proceeds, after Bishop Lesley, to recount the story of the St A.'s Cross having appeared in heaven to Achaius, king of Scots, and Hungus, king of the Picts, as a sign of the victory which they should gain the following day over Athelstane, king of England; and their subsequent vow, when the prophecy was fulfilled, to bear it on their ensigns and banners. The recognised date of the order is, however, no earlier than the reign of James V. Having fallen into disrepute after the Reformation, it was revived by James II. of Great Britain in 1687, and re-established by Queen Anne December 31, 1703.

The star of the Order of the Thistle is worn on

Star of the Order of the Thistle.

the left side. It consists of a St A.'s Cross of silver embroidery, with rays emanating from between the points of the cross, in the centre of which is a thistle of gold and green upon a field of green, surrounded by a circle of green, bearing the motto of the order in golden characters.

The badge or jewel is worn pendent to the collar, or to a dark-green ribbon over the left shoulder, and tied under the arm. It consists of a figure of St A. with the cross enamelled and chased on rays of gold; the cross and feet resting upon the ground of enamelled green. The collar is of thistles, intermingled with sprigs of rue. By a statute passed in May 1827, the order is to consist of the sovereign and sixteen knights. The letters K.T. are placed after the names of knights of the order. The motto is 'Nemo me impune lacessit.' Nisbet, differing from Sir George Mackenzie, prefers 'lacesset,' as 'having more of daring and gallantry.'

ST ANDREW, The Russian Order of, is the highest in the empire, and was founded by Peter the Great in 1698. It is confined to members of the imperial family, princes, generals-in-chief, and others of like rank. The badge of the order shews on the obverse a cross enamelled in blue, bearing a figure of the saint surmounted by a crown, and in the four corners of the cross the letters S. A. P. R. (*Sanctus Andreas Patronus Russiæ*). On the reverse is a spread eagle, with the legend (in Russian) *For religion and loyalty*, and the name of the saint. The collar consists of St Andrew's Crosses alternating with imperial crowns.

ANDREWS, Lancelot, an eminent English prelate, was born in London in 1555, and educated successively at the Coopers' Free School, Ratcliffe, Merchant Taylors' School, and Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, of which college, after having greatly distinguished himself by his industry and acquirements, he was in 1576 elected a fellow. On taking orders, he accompanied the Earl of Huntingdon to the north of England. His talents attracted the notice of Walsingham, Queen Elizabeth's secretary of state, who appointed him successively to the parsonage of Alton, and the vicarage of St Giles, Cripplegate. In 1589 he was appointed a prebendary and canon residentiary of St Paul's, a prebendary of the collegiate church of Southwell, and Master of Pembroke Hall. The queen next testified her esteem for his gifts and piety by appointing him one of her chaplains in ordinary, and a prebendary and dean of Westminster. He rose still higher in favour with King James, who was well qualified to appreciate his extensive learning and peculiar style of oratory. He attended the Hampton Court conference, as one of the ecclesiastical commissioners, and took part in the translation of the Bible. The portion on which he was engaged was the first twelve books of the Old Testament. In 1605 he was consecrated Bishop of Chichester. In 1609 he was translated to the see of Ely, and appointed one of his majesty's privy-councillors, both for England and Scotland. To the latter country he accompanied the king in 1617, as one of the royal instruments for persuading the Scotch of the superiority of episcopacy over presbytery. In the following year he was translated to Winchester, where he died on the 27th March 1625. Bishop A. was, with the exception of Usher, the most learned English theologian of his time. As a preacher, he was regarded by his contemporaries as unrivalled; but the excellent qualities of his discourses are apt to suffer much depreciation in modern judgment from the extremely artificial and frigid character of the style. His principal works published during his life were two treatises in reply to Cardinal Bellarmin, in defence of the right of princes over ecclesiastical assemblies. His other works consist of sermons, lectures, and manuals of devotion. Bishop A. was the most eminent of that Anglican school in the 17th c. of which the 19th has seen a faint revival under the name of Puseyism. Its distinctive peculiarities were high views of ecclesiastical authority, and of the efficacy of sacraments, ceremonies, and apostolic succession, and extreme opposition to Puritanism. In his private life, A. was singularly pious, meek, and charitable.

ANDREWS, St, an ancient city of Scotland, is situated on the bay of the same name, in Fifeshire, about 10 miles from Cupar, and 44 miles from Edinburgh. Tradition dates the origin of this city as far back as the 9th c., when St Regulus or Rule is said to have taken refuge in this place, then called Mucros, and afterward Kilrymont, bringing with him some of the bones of St Andrew, which, being enshrined here, continued to be an object of pilgrimage for several centuries. A cave on the sea-shore still bears the name of St Rule. He would seem to have founded a Culdee monastery, of which the Scottish King Constantine, having resigned his crown, became abbot about the year 940. Probably about the same time, it became the seat of a prelate, who, as 'bishop of the Scots,' continued to enjoy a certain pre-eminence among the other bishops, until, in 1471, the see was erected into an archbishopric, when he became primate. In the reign of Alexander I., a priory of Canons Regular was founded at St A., which afterwards became one of the chief ecclesiastical establishments in Scotland. The last prior was the Regent Moray. In 1140 St A. was created a burgh by the bishop, with consent of King David I. The cathedral, commenced in 1162, and consecrated in 1318, was sacrificed in 1559 to the frenzied zeal of the mob, an outrage which it is customary to attribute to the preaching of Knox. The eastern gable, part of the western, and part of the south side wall and of the transept, are all that remain of this building. It was the second cathedral of St A., the first being what is now called St Rule's Church, but was long known as 'the old cathedral.' Of this interesting little edifice, built between 1127 and 1144, the roofless chancel, and a square tower 108 feet high, are still preserved. They are in the Romanesque style.

The university of St A., the oldest in Scotland, was founded by Bishop Wardlaw in 1411. It consists of the United College of St Salvator, founded by Bishop Kennedy in 1456, and St Leonard, founded in 1512; and St Mary's College, founded by Beaton in 1537. The education in the latter is exclusively theological. The number of chairs in the colleges which constitute the university is 14, and the attendance of late years has been rather less than 200. The castle, once a very extensive and strong building, is now in ruins. It was for some time the residence of Cardinal Beaton, who was assassinated here in 1546. As the ecclesiastical metropolis of Scotland, an ancient seat of learning, and the centre of a considerable trade, St A., at the time of the Reformation, was an important and flourishing city. Since that period, it has greatly declined in importance; but its excellent educational establishments and convenience as a watering-place still make it an eligible residence for a highly respectable population. Its chief interest is still connected with the past. Here, in the centre of the papal jurisdiction in Scotland, the Reformation first made its appearance; Scotland's proto-martyr, Patrick Hamilton, suffered here in 1528, and George Wishart in 1546, and here John Knox first opened his lips as a preacher of the Reformed faith. The trade of St A. is inconsiderable. The harbour is difficult of access, and particularly exposed to the east wind. A few coasters and fishing-boats constitute all the shipping of the port. St A. is much frequented as a bathing-place, and the game of golf is more practised than anywhere else in Scotland on the Links or downs which stretch along the shore to the north of the town for about two miles. Besides its university, St A. affords singular advantages for cheap and excellent education in the Madras College, established by the well-known Dr Andrew Bell, which attracts a very large number of pupils, the annual average being about 900. The grammar school and commercial school are incorporated with it. St A. is a royal and parliamentary burgh, and unites with several smaller burghs in returning a member to parliament. The corporation includes a provost, dean of guild, and four bailies. Pop. in 1851—parish, 6740; parliamentary burgh, 5107; 1871, parliamentary burgh, 6316.

ANDRIEUX, François Guillaume Jean

STANISLAUS, a French writer of comedies, was born at Melun, May 6, 1759. In 1798, he was elected deputy of the Seine department, and distinguished himself by his speeches on several points of public interest. In 1800 he was made Secretary, and soon afterwards, President of the Tribunal. From this post he was removed by Bonaparte in 1802, and afterwards devoted himself to literature. During his political career he had written a comedy, *Les Etourdis*, 1787. From 1803 to 1815 he held a professorship in the Polytechnic School, and in 1814 was appointed professor in the Collége de France. Louis XVIII. gave him a place in the Academy in 1816, of which he was made perpetual secretary in 1829. In this position he took an active part in the preparation of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*. His most popular dramas were *Molière avec ses Amis*, *Le Vieux Fat*, and the tragedy of *Brutus*. A collection of his æsthetic lectures was published under the title *La Philosophie des Belles Lettres* (Paris, 1828). He died May 10, 1833.

ANDROGYNOUS (i. e., male-female; from two Greek words), a term sometimes employed in botany to designate an inflorescence which consists of distinct male and female flowers; and more frequently in zoology in reference to animals which possess a distinct male and female generative system in the same individual. This is the case with very many of the lower kinds of animals, but is not inconsistent with a necessity for the co-operation of two individuals in the propagation of the species. See HERMAPHRODITE, PHYSIOLOGY and REPRODUCTION.

ANDROMACHE, the wife of Hector, was the daughter of King Eetion of Thebes, in Cilicia, and is one of the finest female characters in Homer's *Iliad*. During her childhood, Achilles slew her father and her seven brothers. Her love of Hector is pathetically depicted in her address to the hero on his going to battle, and her lamentation over his death (*Iliad*, 6 and 24). After the fall of Troy, she was given into the hands of Pyrrhus (son of Achilles), who took her away to Epirus, but afterwards surrendered her to Helenus (Hector's brother), by whom she had a son named Cestrinus. A. is the heroine of one of the tragedies of Euripides.

ANDROMEDA, daughter of the Ethiopian king Cepheus, by Cassiopeia, was, like her mother, remarkably beautiful. When Cassiopeia, with motherly pride, boasted that her daughter was more beautiful than the Nereids, these offended deities prayed Neptune to revenge the insult. Accordingly, the territory of King Cepheus was devastated by a flood; and a terrible sea-monster appeared, whose wrath, the oracle of Ammon declared, could only be appeased by the sacrifice of A. As A. was fastened to a rock, and left as a prey to the monster, Perseus, returning from his victorious battle with Medusa, saw the beautiful victim, and determined to rescue and win her. Having slain the sea-mo er, he received A. as his re Minerva gave A. a among the constellati

Andromeda polifolia.

ANDROMEDA, a of plants of the order *Ericaceæ* (q. v.), distinguished by a 5-valved naked capsule, which splits up through the back of the cells; anthers with two awns, and a globose corolla with the orifice contracted. The species, which are pretty numerous, have very much the general appearance of heaths. Most of them are small shrubs, but some attain a considerable size. The only British species is *A. polifolia*, occasionally found in peat-bogs in different parts of the country, and common throughout the north of Europe and of North America, a small evergreen shrub with beautiful rose-coloured drooping flowers. It has acrid narcotic properties, and sheep are sometimes killed by eating it. The shoots of *A. ovalifolia* in like manner poison goats in Nepaul; and similar effects are ascribed to *A. Mariana* and other species in the United States.—*A. fastigiata* was observed by Dr Hooker abounding at great elevations in the Himalaya; a humble shrub, resembling the heather of Scotland. The leaves are used as a substitute for tea. See SORREL-TREE.

ANDRONICUS, the name of three Byzantine emperors.—A. I., the son of Isaac Comnenus, was one of the most conspicuous characters of his age, which produced no man more brave, more profligate, or more perfidious. His life was full of extraordinary vicissitudes. During part of his youth, he was a prisoner of the Turks in Asia Minor. He afterwards spent some time at the court of his cousin, the Emperor Manuel, and a niece of the emperor became his mistress. He was appointed to a military command in Cilicia; but although his courage, his noble appearance, and his gracious manners made him the favourite of the army, his imprudence and waste of time in dissolute pleasures involved him in defeat. Having engaged in a treasonable correspondence with the king of Hungary and the German emperor, he was thrown into prison by Manuel, and remained there above twelve years; but at last succeeded in making his escape, and, although not without further extraordinary adventures, reached Kiew, the residence of the Grand Duke Jaroslav. He regained the favour of his cousin by persuading the Russian prince to join him in the invasion of Hungary, and by his gallantry in that war; but incurred his displeasure again by refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the Prince of Hungary, the intended husband of Manuel's daughter, as presumptive heir to the empire. He was sent in honourable banishment to Cilicia, where he found a new mistress in a sister of the empress. The resentment of the emperor breaking out against him, he sought refuge in a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. His professions of zeal made his former conduct to be forgotten, and he was invested with the lordship of Berytus; but his profligacy became, if possible, more scandalous than ever in the seduction of Theodora, the widow of Baldwin, king of Jerusalem, who lived with him for years as his mistress. The emperor's anger made Palestine unsafe for him, and he fled with Theodora to Damascus, and finally settled among the Turks in Asia Minor, with a band of outlaws, making frequent inroads into the Roman province of Trebizond, from which he carried away spoil and slaves. Theodora and her children were at last taken and sent to Constantinople, and thither he followed, imploring, with a chain about his neck, and in a form of abject submission, the forgiveness of the emperor, which he obtained, but was sent to Oenoe in Pontus. After the death of Manuel, re indignation was excited against the empress, as regent for her son, Alexius II., and A. a 1182 to deliver the empire from her was appointed guardian of the young soon after, his colleague in the empire. es-mother to be strangled, and

afterwards Alexius himself, with whose widow he contracted an indecent marriage. His reign, though short, was vigorous, and restored prosperity to the provinces; but tyranny and murder were its characteristics in the capital. He set no bounds to the gratification of his revenge against all who had ever offended him, and his jealousy of possible rivals was equally sanguinary. At last, a destined victim, Isaac Angelus, one of his relatives, having fled to the Church of St Sophia for sanctuary, a crowd gathered, and a sudden insurrection placed Isaac on the throne, whilst A., now 73 years of age, was put to death by the infuriated populace, after horrible mutilations and tortures, on September 12, 1185. He was the last of the Comneni that sat on the throne of Constantinople; but the succeeding Dukes and Emperors of Trebizond were descendants of his son Manuel.—A. II., the son of Michael Palæologus, ascended the throne in 1283; but after a weak and inglorious reign, was driven from it in 1328 by his grandson, A. III., who, after a reign equally inglorious, died in 1341. During these reigns, province after province was conquered by the Turks.

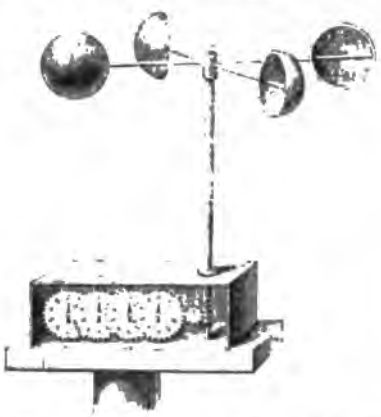
ANDRONI'CUS—surnamed CYRRHESTES from his birthplace, Cyrrhos in Syria—is said to have erected the octagonal tower called the Tower of the Winds at Athens, a building of the 3d or 2d c. B.C. It probably received its name from figures representing the eight principal winds, and from a brazen Triton which surmounted it, and shewed the direction of the wind—the first known weather-cock.

ANDRONI'CUS of Rhodes, a Peripatetic philosopher, lived at Rome in Cicero's time, and employed himself in criticising and explaining the works of Aristotle, a great number of which he was probably the means of preserving to us. None of the writings of A. himself are extant; for the works ascribed to him are probably the productions of *Andronicus Callistos*, a learned Greek of the 15th c., who taught the Greek language in Italy and France.

ANDROPO'GON. See LEMON-GRASS.

ANEGA'DA, the most northerly of the Lesser Antilles, its lat. being about 19° N., and its long. between 64° and 65° W. It contains about 13 square miles, with a scanty population of little more than 200. It belongs to England. It is of coral formation, being, like most islands of the kind, low and beset by reefs. One reef in particular, which runs out 10 miles to the south-east, is marked, even on ordinary maps, as the scene of numerous shipwrecks.

ANEMO'METER (Gr. *anemos*, the wind, and *metron*, a measure; Fr. *anémomètre*, Ger. *Windmesser*), an instrument for measuring the stren and velocity of the wind. The simplest and b A. is that which is generally known as Robins hemispherical-cup A. (see fig.). It consists of f hollow hemispheres or cups fixed to the ends two horizontal iron rods crossing each other at angles, and supported on a vertical axis w turns freely. The cups revolve with a third of wind's velocity, and the instrument is so const that 500 revolutions are made whilst a mile of passes over it. The revolutions are register a system of wheels similar to those of an o gas-meter. The difference between two gives the number of revolutions passed o the intervening time, from which the mi calculated, and the rate per hour.

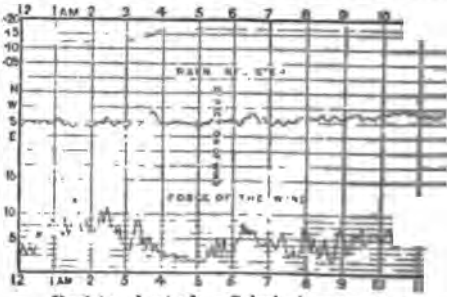


Robinson's Hemispherical-cup Anemometer.

The following table gives approxima tion of the height of the water in the A. and velocity of the wind in winds of characters. (See AERODYNAMICS.)

	Height of Water.	Pressure per Square Foot.	V pe
Feeble Wind, . .	$\frac{1}{64}$ in.	$\frac{1.3}{160}$ lbs.	4½
Fresh Breeze, .	$\frac{1}{4}$ "	$1\frac{3}{10}$ "	16½
Very Strong Wind,	1 "	$5\frac{2}{10}$ "	
Tempest, . .	4 "	$20\frac{8}{10}$ "	

Pressure anemometers are of very gr ance in meteorological observatories. O most complete is that invented by Osler. an instrument, the force of the wind is ascertain a different way from the hemispherical-cup ane meter. A brass plate one foot square is suspen by means of springs, and being attached to vane of the instrument, is maintained at r angles to the direction of the wind. This plate, the action of the wind, is beaten back upon springs, and in so doing, causes a pencil to m backwards and forwards on a sheet of paper below it. This sheet of paper is made to the pencil in a direction at right angles to tion; and by means of clock-work, move form rate, so that the force of the wind at ticular time of the day is recorded with accuracy. A pencil in connection with the



Register-sheet of an Osler's Anemometer.

and moving in the same transverse line as former, records the changes in the dire wind; and a third pencil, guided by a registers the quantity of rain that has fall preceding sketch, taken from the first half register-sheet, gives an idea of the kind of made by an Osler's A. The space betw upright lines indicates an hour; that betw horizontal lines, in the rain-register $\frac{1}{10}$ of an rain, in the direction of the wind two points, and in the force of the wind 1 lb. of on the square foot.

Thus, on the day in which these lines w there was in the rain-register, brought ov

former account, between ·10 and ·15 of an inch; and during the twelve hours, the pencil had only risen one space, indicating a fall of ·05, or $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch, almost entirely between the hours of 3 and 4 in the morning, and immediately before 12 in the day. If the day had been very rainy, and the pencil had risen to the top of the register, it would have fallen immediately to the bottom of it, and begun a new account; and it might have done so several times in the course of the twelve hours. This would have been effected by the mechanism connected with the rain-gauge, which enables the gauge to empty itself each time that the pencil reaches the top of the rain-register. As regards the direction of the wind, it was, during the first six hours, south, veering slightly towards the east; and for the last six hours, it was tending decidedly towards the west, being between 10 and 11 nearly west. From the line marking the force of the wind, it will be seen that the day was stormy. Between 1 and 2, and at 11, the wind was blowing a very high gale, producing a pressure of upwards of 12 pounds on the square foot; and between the hours of 4 and 5, there was a decided lull, the wind being brisk, but not stormy (2—3 lbs.). Both the hemispherical-cup A. and the pressure A. are equally indispensable in fully equipped observatories. The former registers the quarterly wind which passes over the place, but cannot register the force of those sudden and almost instantaneous gusts of wind to which storms and hurricanes owe their destructive energy.

In Lind's A., the wind, entering the mouth of one of two upright glass tubes, connected below, depresses the column of water contained in the one tube, and raises proportionately that in the other. This A. is convenient for rough purposes.

ANEMONE, a genus of plants of the natural order *Ranunculaceæ*, having an involucre of three divided leaves, more or less remote from the flower, a petaloid calyx, scarcely distinguishable from the corolla, and soft woolly achenia (see ACHENIUM), which in some species have tails. The name is originally Greek, and is said to be derived from the word for *wind*, because many of the species love very exposed situations. The species are numerous, and generally beautiful. Most of them flower early in spring. They are natives of temperate and cold climates, chiefly of the northern hemisphere. One species, *A. nemorosa*, the Wood A., is a common native of all parts of Britain, and its white flowers, externally tinged with purple, are an ornament of many a woodland scene and mountain pasture in April and May. Another species, *A. pulsatilla*, the PASQUE FLOWER, adorns chalky pastures in some parts of England at the same season. Its flowers are purple and externally silky. The Garden A. is a favourite florist's flower; the varieties are very numerous, and whole works have been published on them and their cultivation, which is most extensively carried on in Holland, and has prevailed from a very early period. It is generally supposed that all these varieties have originated from two species, *A. coronaria*, and *A. hortensis* or *stellata*. Both are natives of the Levant; the latter is found also in Italy and the south of France. By cultivation, the size of the flower is increased, its form and colours are modified, and many of the stamens are often changed into small petals, forming a sort of *heart* of the flower. The cultivation of the A. requires great attention. It prefers a light soil. The root, which consists of clustered tubers, is taken up after flowering. The plant is propagated by parting the roots, or by seed. In the latter way, new varieties are obtained. Seedling plants do not flower till the second or third year.—Besides the species which have been named, others occasionally appear as ornaments of our flower-gardens. *A. Apennina* and *A. pratensis* have beautiful blue flowers. They are both natives

Anemone coronaria.

of the south of Europe. *A. Japonica*, a most beautiful species, has recently been introduced from Japan. —The species of this genus are characterised by the acridity prevalent in the natural order to which they belong; and the rhizomes of *A. nemorosa*, and others, have been recommended in obstinate rheumatism and in tænia.—The genus *Hepatica* was formerly included in *A. H. triloba* (*A. hepatica*), with three-lobed leaves, grows wild in most parts of Germany, and throughout the north of Europe, but is not a native of Britain. It is also found in North America. Varieties of different colours, and both single and double, are among the finest ornaments of our flower-borders in early spring. The plants are very apt to suffer from being removed, or having the earth much loosened about them, and must be permitted to remain as much as possible untouched.

ANEMONE, SEA, a popular name of the species of *Actinia* (q. v.) and some other *Actiniadæ*. It seems to have been first applied to them about a century ago by Ellis, one of the most celebrated investigators of the department of natural history to which they belong, who remarks that 'their tentacles, being disposed in regular circles, and tinged with a variety of bright lively colours, very nearly represent the beautiful petals of some of our most elegantly fringed and radiated flowers, such as the

Actinia Mesembryanthemum.

carnation, marigold, and anemone.' It is only, however, when in their proper element and undisturbed, that the sea-anemones expand their tentacula and exhibit their beauty. When left dry by the receding tide, they contract into a jelly-like mass, usually hemispherical or conical, with a puckered hole in

the top. The most common of all the British species of sea-A. is the *Actinia Mesembryanthemum*, which has received its specific name from another floral association. It attaches itself to rocks and stones from low-water almost to high-water mark, and when left by the tide, appears as a sub-conical liver-coloured or greenish mass, not more than 1—1½ inch in diameter, which, when touched, is found to be very smooth and slippery, but of pretty firm consistency. The tentacula, when fully extended, are in length nearly equal to the height of the body, and are nearly of the same colour. An azure line frequently encircles the base; and on the base are dark-green lines converging towards the centre, and which are formed by radiating vertical plates in the fleshy substance of the animal, analogous (although not calcareous) to the calcareous partitions in the single-starred madrepores. Around the margin of the mouth, there is a circle of azure tubercles, like turquoise beads of the greatest beauty. These are only to be seen when the mouth is pretty fully expanded. They are about twenty-five in number in full-grown specimens. Their use is not known, though they have been conjectured to be eyes.—A smaller species, *Actinia* (or *Sagartia*) *troglodytes*—olive-green, with snow-white stripes and numerous tentacula, is pretty common on the British shores, inhabiting holes in the rocks, often the deserted holes of the *Pholas*, above which its oval disc and tentacula scarcely rise, and into which it quickly withdraws, upon being disturbed. A number of species inhabit holes as this does.—*Actinia* (or *Bunodes*) *coriacea*, which attains a diameter of two inches, attaches itself to sand-covered rocks, and is often much buried in the sand. It is covered with pale perforated warts, which have the power of agglutinating to themselves sand, gravel, fragments of shell, &c.; so that, when the tide is out, the animal is readily passed over by the inexperienced eye as a mere inequality in the surface of the sand, unless some accidental pressure cause it to squirt out water through its tentacula; as, in such circumstances, many of the species are very apt to do, sometimes to the annoyance of those who incautiously meddle with them.—*Actinia* (*Bunodes*) *crassicornis* is one of the largest and most beautiful British

Actinia crassicornis.

sea-anemones, being about four inches in height, and fully more when expanded between the tips of the opposite tentacula. It exhibits great diversity of most beautiful colours. Red is usually predominant; the surface of many is variegated w white, or with orange-green and yellow. It occ almost totally white, cream colour, sulphur yell and bright scarlet with pale warts like ornament beads.—Beauty of colour and form are still m abundantly lavished on *Actinia Dianthus*, a s

Actinia Dianthus.

larger species, with very numerous tentacula, v inhabits deep water.—*Anthea Cereus* is, on parts of the coast, one of the most abundan anemones. Its tentacula are from 120 to number, are longer than in the Actinia and are incapable, it is said, of be n the true Actiniæ, but remain o and are almost never completely

Of all the species, *Actinia Mesem* perhaps most easily kept in the aquarium unfrequently changes its place, and its locom an interesting subject of observation. It will for a considerable time without supplies of fo readily accepts morsels of beef or mutton almost any kind of animal food. The t which the offered food first comes in c themselves to it; those next to them as if to support them, if necessary, sympathy seems to extend even to the but except in the case of struggling very large morsel, only a small number the tentacula are usually employed in conveyi food into the mouth, or, more properly, in stomach, for they do not seem to part from it they have fairly lodged it there.

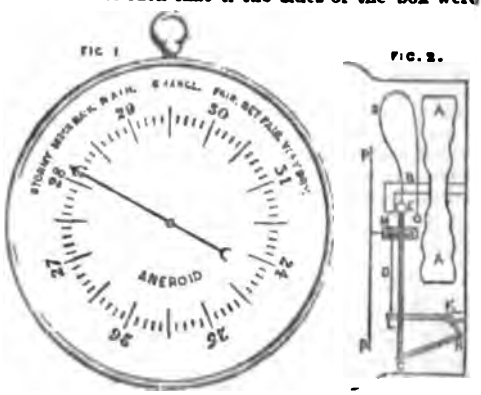
Sea-anemones are extremely v almost every observer has his own illustrate it. Dr Johnston relates one same time remarkably illustrates their po reproducing organs of their own body. 'I ha brought to me a specimen of *Act. crassicornis* might have been originally two inches in di and that had somehow contrived to swallow of *Perten maximus* of the size of an ordinary The shell, fixed within the stomach, was so p as to divide it completely into two h the body, stretched tensely over, had and flattened like a pancake. All c between the inferior portion of the st mouth was of course prevented; y emaciating and dying of an atrophy, tha availed itself of what undoubt untoward accident, to incr

its chances of double fare. A new mouth, furnished with two rows of numerous tentacula, was opened up on what had been the base, and led to the under-stomach: the individual had indeed become a sort of Siamese twin, but with greater intimacy and extent in its unions. (*British Zoophytes*, i. 235.)

As inmates of the aquarium, sea-anemones are apt to prey upon their fellow-prisoners. 'Simple contact of the tentacula,' says Sir J. G. Dalyell, 'is the prelude of destruction. Some animals, as if conscious of their inevitable fate, seem paralysed by the touch, and yield without a struggle. Others, whose size and strength should insure indemnity, are held in the relentless grasp; the tentacula crowding faster and faster around, until the victim is speedily swallowed alive.' There appears to be in other marine animals an instinctive horror of the tentacula of the sea-A. The hermit-crab will instantaneously flee out of its shell, if the shell is caught by them. It is now believed that, like the *Acalephæ* (q. v.) and the *Hydras* (q. v.), the sea-anemones possess a power of benumbing their prey. Sea-worms (*Nereides*) have been observed first to writhe, and then to become paralysed. Little elliptical capsules are in some species scattered over the whole surface of the body; in others, confined to the tentacula, or even to their tips. These are furnished with spicula or minute spears, by which it is probable that not only are wounds inflicted, but poison is also conveyed into them. The sensations produced by the touch of the tentacula appear to be very different in the case of different persons, from a mere 'rasping feeling' on the withdrawal of the hand, to a slight tingling, and even to a stinging as by a nettle. The *Anthea Cereus* possesses the stinging power in a much greater degree than the ordinary *Actinia*. Probably the skin of the human hand is in general too thick or hard to be pierced by their fine spicula. Dr A. Waller of Birmingham has discovered that, on submitting the tip of his tongue to the tentacula, a pungent pain and stinging, as by a nettle, were the constant result. He has also found that a thin India-rubber membrane grasped by the tentacula retains the microscopic 'poison-darts' sticking on its surface. Some of these are only two or three times the length of the capsule which contains them, or at most 100th part of an inch; but others are much longer, and when within the capsule, are coiled up after the manner of a watch-spring. The capsules are therefore called *filiferous* or *thread capsules*. This thread is highly elastic, and the expulsion of it, as of the shorter spicula, is effected, Mr Gosse tells us, by organs having this for their special office.

AN-END, a maritime term relating to the position of any mast or boom when perpendicular to the plane of the deck or other level from which it springs. When a top-mast is in its proper place at the head of the lower mast, it is said to be 'an-end.'

A'NEROID (formed in an anomalous way from Gr. *a*, priv., and *νηρος*, wet), the name given to a barometer invented by M. Vidi of Paris, in which the pressure of the air is measured without the use of liquid, as in ordinary instruments. The face of the A. barometer, represented in fig. 1, has a diameter of about 5 inches, and the case behind, which contains the mechanism, a general idea of which is given in fig. 2, is about 2 inches deep. The pressure of the atmosphere acts upon a circular metal box, AA, about 3 inches in diameter, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch
v h has been nearly exhausted of air, and
d air . The sides are corrugated
— — to increase their elasticity,
d to the back of the brass case which contains the whole. The amount of exhaustion is such that if the sides of the box were



Aneroid Barometer.

allowed to take their natural position, they would be pressed in upon each other, and to prevent this they are kept distended, to a certain extent, by a strong spring, S, fixed to the case, which acts upon the head of the stalk, B, attached to the side next the face. When the pressure of the air increases, there being little or no air inside the box to resist it, the corrugated sides are forced inwards, and when it diminishes again, their elasticity restores them to their former place; and thus the little box becomes a spring extremely sensitive to the varying pressure of the external atmosphere. Supposing the two sides pressed inwards, the end of the spring, E, will be drawn towards the back of the case, and carry with it the rod, EG, which is firmly fixed into it. EG, by the link GH, acts on the bent lever, HKL, which has its axis at K, so that, while the arm, KH, is pushed to the right, LK is moved downwards. By this motion, a watch-chain, O, attached at L, is drawn off the little drum, M, and the index-hand, PP, which is fixed to it, would move from the position represented in fig. 1 to one towards the right. When the contrary motion takes place, a hair-spring moves the drum and the hand in the opposite way. By this mechanism, a very small motion of the corrugated sides produces a large deviation of the index-hand, $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch causing it to turn through 3 inches. The A. barometer is graduated to represent the inches of the mercurial barometer. Both from its small size and construction, it is extremely portable, and consequently a very useful instrument; but from its liability to change from time to time, it must be frequently compared with the mercurial barometer. The 'Metallic Barometer' of M. Bourdon is a modification of the A. principle.—See *Manual of Barometers*, by J. H. Belville.

A'NEURISM (Gr. *aneurysma*, a dilatation) is a pulsating tumour consisting of a sac or pouch into which blood flows through an opening in an artery. The sac of an arterial A. may be formed in the first instance by one or more of the tunics of the vessel, generally the outer one, the two inner having given way. This is called a *true* A., in contradistinction to the *false*, in which the sac is formed of cellular tissue condensed by the blood flowing into it after a wound has been inflicted on the artery from without. Should the sac give way, and the blood escape among the tissues, the A. is said to be diffused. Varicose A. is when the sac communicates both with an artery and a vein; Aneurismal Varix, when these vessels communicate without any sac intervening; both of these are generally the results

of bleeding being performed by non-professional persons. Aneurisms prove fatal by their pressure on some important part, or by bursting and allowing a sudden escape of blood. They are cured by the deposit, within the sac, of fibrin from the blood —a result the surgeon can promote by obstructing the artery above the A. by compression or by ligature; applying the latter close to the sac, if the A. is of the 'false' variety, but at a distance, if it is the result of disease. Internal aneurisms are treated by those remedies which moderate the heart's action, as digitalis, &c.

A'NGEL, an ancient English gold coin, varying in value from 6*s.* 8*d.* to 10*s.* It was so called from

Angel of Edward IV.

the figure of the archangel Michael piercing the dragon upon its obverse. Angels continued to be coined down to the time of the Commonwealth.

ANGEL-FISH (*Squati'na A'ngelus*), a fish common on the southern coasts of Britain, and remarkable for its extreme ugliness. On some parts of the coast, it is called *monk-fish*. It is very nearly allied to the sharks, and was included by Linnæus in the genus *Squalus*. See SHARK. It is very voracious, preying chiefly upon fishes. It attains a length of

Angel Fish.

seven or eight feet; and the body is broad and flattened horizontally. The head is nearly round, and broader than the body, from which it is separated by a very distinct neck; the mouth is extremely large, and at the extremity of the snout; the eyes are on the upper part of the head, and are very small; behind the eyes are large spout-holes; the skin is very rough, and covered with tubercles. The upper parts are of a gray colour; the under parts, dirty white. The female is said to produce seven or eight young in spring and autumn.

ANGE'LICA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Umbellifer* (q.v.), by some botanists divided into two: *A.*, and *Archangelica*. The species are mostly herbaceous and perennial, natives of the temperate and colder regions of the northern hemisphere. They have bipinnate or tripinnate leaves. WILD A. (*A. sylvestris*) is a common plant in moist meadows, by the sides of brooks, and in woods in Britain and throughout many parts of Europe and Asia. The root is perennial, short, ringed, and branched; it is white within, and contains a yellow milky juice. The stem is hollow, 1½—5 feet high, often flecked with red; the umbel is convex. GARDEN A. (*Archangelica* or *Archangelica officinalis*) is a b plant, becoming perennial when not allowed t

Angelica archangelica.

its seeds. It has greenish flowers in alm umbels. The stem is as high as a man, is long and straw-coloured. The root is fusiform, an inch or more in thickness, wi irregular rugose radicles. The whole plan especially the root, is aromatic and bitter, con ing much resin and essential oil. The roo admitted into the pharmacopœia as an a stimulant and tonic, and is used in nervous and in indigestion and flatulence. It is used in Britain. The root of *A. sylvest* times substituted for it, but is much wea Garden A. was at one time much cultiv the blanched stalks, which were used as celery is; but its cultivation for this purpose has long almost entirely discontinued. The tender stalks midribs of the leaves, candied, are still, howe a well-known article of confectionary, agreeable stomachic; the roots and s employed in the preparation of gin and of The plant is a very doubtful native of Br common in many parts of Europe, a Lapland and Iceland. The Lapland use it as food, but regard the stalks r ashes as an efficacious remedy in pecto —The powdered seeds of the Wild A. a the country people in some parts of Europe to lice. Several species of A. are natives of N America.

ANGELICA TREE. See ARALIA.

A'NGELO, MICHAEL. See MICHAEL A

A'NGELS (Gr. messengers), in Jew Christian theology, a class of superior spir sented as the immediate instruments o Providence. As Scripture contains no co systematic account of angels, the belie Church respecting them, except in a few never been exactly defined. It has always that A. and l an souls, notwithstandi

origin of the latter, are distinct; only Dionysius Areopagita (q. v.) and a few modern speculators have maintained the contrary. Dionysius, in his *Hierarchia Cœlestis*, divides A. into nine orders. Whether there are not spirits superior both to men and A., has been a disputed point. As to the number of A. and their names, the Church in the middle ages repeatedly checked the tendency to go beyond the usually received accounts; a Romish council, in 745 A. D., mentions with reprobation the use of the unwonted names of Uriel, Raguel, Simiel, &c. The names that have all along been in most common use are Michael, Gabriel, and Raphael.

The creation of the A. was placed, by the Platonising Church-fathers, before that of the material world; others assigned it to some one of the six days. Equally various were the opinions as to the nature of the A. The second synod of Nice (787) assigned them a subtle, ethereal, or firelike body; the scholastics, on the other hand, and the Lateran Council of 1215, maintained their immateriality; while others, owing to the appearing of A., mentioned in Scripture, attributed to them the power of assuming momentarily the corporeal form. The poet Nonnus (lived in Egypt in the 5th c.) is the first to speak of angels' wings.

The belief in *guardian* A. was common both to heathens and Jews, and had been reduced to system by Philo; and the doctrine was adopted in the Christian Church, and defended by Origen and others, founding on Matthew xviii. 10, and Acts xii. 15. It has been cherished by many in all ages and of all parties, but has never been decided on by the Church. Some of the fathers also spoke of good and bad guardian-angels, the former of whom were always ready to prompt to good actions, and to avert evil, while the latter were equally quick in bringing about mischief, wickedness, and calamity. From the belief in the guardianship of A., and their participation in the government of the world, arose naturally the early practice of invoking and worshipping them. Many Christian teachers condemned it, appealing to Colos. ii. 18; and the Council of Laodicea, 360, called it disguised idolatry. But after the Council of Nice had conceded that though A. were not to receive divine worship, they might receive a reverential obeisance, the practice mentioned became more and more rooted, and continues in the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches to this day.

A'NGER is displeasure or vexation accompanied by a passionate desire to break out in acts or words of violence against the cause of the displeasure; which must, of course, be a sentient being capable of feeling the infliction. Like most other emotions, it is accompanied by effects on the body, and in this case they are of a very marked kind. The arterial blood-vessels are highly excited; the pulse, during the paroxysm, is strong and hard, the face becomes red and swollen, the brow wrinkled, the eyes protrude, the whole body is put into commotion. The secretion of bile is excessive, and it seems to assume a morbid consistency. In cases of violent passion, and especially in nervous persons, this excitement of the organs soon passes to the other extreme of depression; generally, this does not take place till the A. has subsided, when there follows a period of general relaxation. The original tendency to A. differs much in individuals according to temperament; but frequent giving way to it begets a habit, and increases the natural tendency.

From the nature of A., it is easy to see that it must be—often at least—prejudicial to health. It frequently gives rise to bile-fever, inflammation of the liver, heart, or brain, or even to mania. These effects follow immediately a fit of the passion; other evil effects come on, after a time, as the consequence of repeated paroxysms—such as paralysis, jaundice, consumption, and nervous fever. The milk of a mother or nurse in a fit of passion will cause convulsions in the child that sucks; it has been known even to occasion instant death, like a strong poison.

The controlling of A. is a part of moral discipline. In a rudimentary state of society, its active exercise would seem to be a necessity; by imposing some restraint on the selfish aggressions of one individual upon another, it renders the beginnings of social co-operation and intercourse possible. This is its *use*, or, as it is sometimes called, its final cause. But the more social intercourse comes to be regulated by customs and laws, the less need is there for the vindictive expression of A. It seems an error, however, to suppose that the emotion ever will be—or that it ought to be—extirpated. Laws themselves lose their efficacy when they have not this feeling for a background; and it remains as a last resource for man, when society, as it does every now and then, resolves itself into its elements. Even in the most artificial and refined states of society, those minor moralities on which half the happiness of social intercourse depends, are imposed upon the selfish, in great measure, by that latent fund of A. which every man is known to carry about with him.

ANGERMANNLAND (Swedish, Ängermland, pronounced Ongermland), a province of Norrland, one of the four great divisions of Sweden, extends along the Gulf of Bothnia, and is watered by the river Angermann. Next to Dalecarlia, perhaps, it exhibits the richest variety of wild and beautiful landscape—wood, mount, stream, and lake; vieing with the banks of the Rhine, the Danube, or the far-famed scenery of Switzerland. In addition, it is one of the best cultivated provinces in Sweden, producing barley, rye, and peas, and abounding in excellent pasturage. The river Angermann, in its lower course, becomes navigable for the largest ships, and broadens out into a lake shortly before discharging itself into the Gulf of Bothnia. The inhabitants are reckoned among the solidest of the Swedes, and are favourably known for their sobriety and industrious habits, on account of which, prosperity is general. The chief town of the province is Hernösand, with a population of rather more than 2000, standing on the small island of Herno, and having steam-communication weekly with Stockholm. It is the see of a bishop, has a cathedral-school and literary and printing establishment with Lappish type, public baths, and landing docks. It exports linen fabrics, and the Baltic products generally.

ANGERS, the ancient *Juliomagus* or *Andegavum*, formerly the capital of the Duchy of Anjou, and now of the French department of Maine-et-Loire, is situated on both sides of the navigable river Mayenne, not far from its junction with the Loire, lat. 47° 28′ N., long. 0° 33′ W. A. is the see of a bishop, and was the seat of a university founded in 1246; instead of which it has now an academy of the highest class. Lord Chatham and the Duke of Wellington received a portion of their education at the military college which was once here, but which is now removed to Saumur. It has also given birth to two distinguished men, Bernier, the traveller, and David, the sculptor. It has also a theological seminary, an institution for the deaf and dumb, a botanical garden, a large picture-gallery, and a public library containing 25,000 volumes. The ruins of the ancient castle of A., built by St Louis, about the middle of the 13th c., are situated on a projecting rock above the river. The cathedral of St Martin is a fine building of the 9th c., in the Roman basilica

style. Sail-making, cotton-spinning, stocking-weaving, &c., are carried on to a considerable extent, and a trade in corn, wine, brandy, flax, hemp, honey, &c. The neighbouring slate-quarries employ 3000 men. Pop. (1872) 51,524.

ANGINA PECTORIS, or **HEART-STROKE**, is characterised by intense pain and sense of constriction, which occur in paroxysms beginning at the breast-bone, or deep in the chest, and extending towards the left shoulder. The fits recur, and the patient either dies in one of them, or from effusion of fluid within the chest.

A. P. rarely occurs before the fiftieth year, and is caused by some defect in the vascular or nervous supply of the heart itself; but the exact seat of the disease has not yet been ascertained, and, indeed, probably varies with the individual. The paroxysms are induced by any excess in diet, by exertion, as walking uphill or against a boisterous wind, or by mental emotions. As, during the paroxysm, but little can be done, 'whoever is subject to fits of the heart-stroke, should studiously shun all occasions of having his feelings roused or his passions warmly interested. If he is prone to anger, he must either endeavour to restrain his passion, or must withdraw from scenes likely to awaken it. If he feels keenly contradiction, disappointment, or insult, he had better avoid all disputes in which he may meet either one or the other. He must lead a sober, quiet, and temperate life, in which neither the emotions of the soul are to disturb the functions of the body, nor corporeal affections are allowed to disturb the serenity of the mind.'—*Craigie.*

ANGIOSPERMOUS (from the Greek *angeion*, a vessel, and *sperma*, seed), a term in Botany, applied to phanerogamous plants which have their seeds enclosed in a pericarp. This is the case with the greater part of phanerogamous plants. Those which have the seeds naked, as the *Coniferæ* (q. v.), are called *Gymnospermous*. In the Linnæan system, one of the two orders of the class *Didynamia* is called *Angiospermia*.

ANGLE (from Lat. *angulus*, a corner) means, in Geometry, the opening or inclination of two lines that cut or meet one another. If the lines are straight, the A. is *rectilinear*. The magnitude of an A. depends, not upon the length of the lines or legs, but upon the degree of their opening. If the legs are supposed closed, like a pair of compasses, and then gradually opened till they come into one straight line, they form a series of gradually increasing angles; when half-way between shut and straight, they contain a *right* A. Any A. less than a right A. is called *acute*, and one greater, is called *obtuse*. Angles are measured by degrees, of which a right A. contains 90. The A. made by two curved lines (*curvilinear*) is the same as the A. made by the tangents to the two curves at the point of intersection. Angles made by planes with one another can also be reduced to rectilinear angles. When three or more planes meet at the same point, the angular space included between them is called a *solid* A.

Angle.

The FACIAL ANGLE, on which Camper founded a scheme for estimating the degrees of intellect and sagacity bestowed by nature on the several members of the animal kingdom, was measured by him in the following way: One straight line was drawn from the ear to the base of the nose, and another from the prominent centre of the forehead to the most advancing part of the upper jawbone, the head being viewed in profile. 'In the angle produced by two lines,' says the physiologist, 'may be consist not only the distinction between of the several species of animals, but which are found to exist between d and it might be concluded, that na herself at the same time of this angle to the diversities of the animal kingdom, and lish a sort of scale from the inferior tribes up t most beautiful forms which are found in the h species. Thus it will be found that the he birds display the smallest angle, and that it becomes of greater extent in proportion as approaches most nearly to the human there is one species of the ape tribe in v has a facial angle of forty-two degrees animal of the same family, which is *simiæ* approaching most closely to the l the facial angle contains exactly fifty d to this is the head of the African n well as that of the Kalmuc, form seventy degrees, while the angle discovered heads of Europeans contains eighty difference of ten degrees in the f. superior beauty of the European that high character of sublime be striking in some works of anc the head of the Apollo and in by an angle which amounts to one hundred d

ANGLE, DEAD. In fortification, where an of the wall is so formed that a small plot of in front of it can neither be seen nor defend the parapet, it is called a 'dead angle.' See CURTAIN, FORTIFICATION.

ANGLER (*Lophius piscatorius*), a common on the British shores, and s the *Fishing-frog*, sometimes, from voracity, the *Sea-devil*. It usually of about three feet in length, sometimes The head is enormously large, depressed, and the mouth is of similar proportions (wh Scottish name *Wide Gab*), and furnished v

Angler.

sharp curved teeth. The lower jaw is c longer than the upper. The body is comparison with the great breadth of tapers rapidly to the tail. The whole with a loose skin, almost without sca two dorsal fins, which are spinous, and three rays, regarded as belonging to the first do free and articulated to the head, which great probability supposed to serve the a delicate organs of touch. The nostril tube gated into a membraneous stalk, capable of out like a cup at the upper end, and of be in every direction by a very numerous set o the bottom of the cup being divided into proc leaflets, on which the olfactory nerve is distributed. There are also numerous wo appendages about the mouth, and by m these, and still more of the filaments which the upper part of the head, the creature is to attract small fishes, upon which it

ful stories told upon this point seem to authentication, yet they are in themselves by as incredible, and have been current concern- and its congeners, since before the days who mentions them, and says that this ed a *fisher* because of the means by which ood. Yarrell justly remarks of the ibed to the *Lophius*, that it is not l than that of spiders, which spin and e webs to catch insects, upon which they —The genus *Lophius* belongs to a family anthopterygious Fishes, called *Lophiadæ* or ids, and by Cuvier, *Pectorales Pedunculati*, able for the elongation of the carpal bones, to form a sort of wrist, to the extremity of the pectoral fin is articulated; so that, by of it, these fishes are able to leap suddenly up water to seize prey which they observe above ac of them can hop about upon sea- s from which the water has retired. ues suffer so quickly as most other fishes g out of the water, their gill-opening being ll, and an A. has been often known to flounders or other fish which have been along with it. The bones are much softer ose of Acanthopterygious Fishes in general.

ILES (*Angli*), a German tribe of the race of i, who seem originally to have occupied the ying on the east of the Elbe, between the of the Saale and the Ohre, and moving to have settled in Schleswig, between s and the Saxons. Along with the latter passed over in great numbers to Britain, 5th c., and ultimately established there Saxon (q. v.) kingdoms of the Heptarchy. m England derives its name (Lat. *Anglia*, a, *Engla-land*). After these migrations wig, the Danes from the north entered al districts, and mingled with the A. ned there. The German language and were afterwards introduced by immigrant from Holstein, and prevailed among the classes; but to the time of Christian VI., the was still generally spoken by the common During the present century, the German has mpletely gained the ascendency. The modern are of a more passive disposition than the nders and the people of the Dithmarsch, and s sentiment is very strongly manifested them. The district called *Angeln* extends e Schlei on the south, to the Flensburg Hills north, contains about 330 square miles, and lation of about 50,000. The name has no l or administrative signification.

ILESEA, Henry William Paget, Earl ridge and Marquis of A., born May 17, as educated in Oxford, and, as Lord Paget, the army at the beginning of the French tion. From 1793 to 1794 he commanded nteer corps in Flanders, and subsequently d a high reputation as a cavalry officer in the lar War, especially during the retreat under Moore. At the battle of Waterloo, where manded the British cavalry, he lost a leg. rreturn to England, he received a vote of from parliament, and was made Marquis of erwards, he took a part in the administration Canning, and in 1828 was appointed lord- nt of Ireland, at a period when that country y agitated on the question of its religious s. He at first opposed the emancipation Catholics; but ultimately became convinced was essential to the peace of the country, in ence of which he was recalled from Ireland n in 1829. He was again appointed to the same office under Lord Grey's administration in 1831; but the perverse policy of the Tories had involved matters in such perplexity that even the decisiveness and integrity of his character could not allay the irritation. O'Connell had now commenced his ruinous career of agitation, and the marquis was compelled to resort to severe coercive measures, which destroyed the popularity he had previously acquired. His rule in Ireland was not characterised by any superior statesmanship; but it ought to be remembered, to his honour, that he founded the Irish Board of Education, which has been of immense service to that nation. In 1833, he was succeeded by the Marquis of Normanby; but did not again take any prominent part in public proceedings till 1846, when he accepted the office of Master-general of the Ordnance in Lord John Russell's ministry. In the same year he was raised to the dignity of field-marshal. He died on the 29th April 1854.

ANGLESEY, or ANGLESEA (Sax. *Angles' Ey*, i. e. 'the Englishmen's island'), an island and county of Wales, on the north-west coast of that principality, being separated from the mainland by the Menai Strait. Its form is that of an irregular triangle, the base facing the mainland. Its length is about 20 miles; breadth, about 17; coast-line, about 80; area, 193,453 acres. Pop. (1871) 51,040. The climate is mild, but foggy, especially in autumn; the soil, generally a still loam, varying with sandy and peaty earth; the general aspect of the island, flat and uninteresting, there being very little wood. The prevailing rock is mica schist; limestone ranges traverse the county; granite, marble, coal, serpentine, soapstone, are also found. The island is rich in minerals; the Parys and Mona copper mines, near Amlwch, were opened in 1768. Lead ore, containing much silver, has also been found. The manufactures of A. are inconsiderable. Agriculture, though still rather backward, has yet in recent years made considerable advance in the way of adopting means of improvement. Increased attention has also been given to the breeding of cattle and sheep. The number of acres under all kinds of crops, bare fallow, and grass, in 1872, was 142,799; under corn crops, 33,750; under green crops, 11,164. The number of horses used for agricultural purposes was 6560; of cattle, the number was 37,710; of sheep, 52,132; and of pigs, 17,639. Communication with the mainland is by the Menai Suspension Bridge, and the great Britannia Tubular Bridge, over which the Chester and Holyhead Railway passes. See Tubular Bridges. A. was known to the Romans under the name of *Mona*. It was one of the chief seats of the Druidical power, which in 61 A.D. was all but destroyed by the Roman general, Suetonius Paulinus. The island was again subdued by Agricola, 76 A.D. Egbert conquered it in the 9th c.; but the native princes afterwards recovered their dominion, establishing the seat of government at Aberffraw. It was finally subdued by Edward I. The ancient remains consist chiefly of dolmens, two of which, side by side, are in the park of Plas, Newydd, the seat of the Marquis of A. At Holyhead, are the remains of a Roman camp.

The climate of A. is milder than that of the mainland of Wales; but in the autumn the air is frequently filled with noxious mists. The county is divided into three districts, called *cantrefs*, each subdivided into two *cwmwds*. The market-towns are Amlwch (a flourishing little seaport of 2968 inhabitants), Beaumaris (q. v.), Holyhead (q. v.), Llangefni (pop. 1222), and Llanerch-y-medd. The first four of these towns unite in returning one member to the imperial parliament; the county returns another.

ANGLING is the art of alluring and capturing

fish by means of a rod, line, and hook—the hook being furnished with a lure, which is either some object on which the animals naturally prey, or is a counterfeit of such an object. A. is of great antiquity, as we learn from mention being made of it by the prophet Isaiah: 'The fishers also shall mourn, and all they that cast angle into the brooks,' chap. xix. v. 8. The practice has continued through all ages, till the present time, and in almost all countries. In 1496, Wynken de Worde 'emprented at Westmestro' a '*Treatise of Fysshinge with an Angle*, by Dame Juliana Berners or Barnes.' Izaak Walton, in 1653, gave to the world his *Complete Angler*, a work afterwards enriched with additions by his friend Charles Cotton, and till this day esteemed both for correctness of details, and the singularly happy humour of its apologues, poetical pieces, and disquisitions.

We reserve for future articles the habits and best methods of capturing the principal species of fish that haunt the streams and lochs of Great Britain, and here confine ourselves to a short notice of A. apparatus, and some general directions, &c., for the guidance of tyros, proceeding at once to describe, first:

FISHING-TACKLE.—The angler's equipment consists of *rod* and *reel*, *lines*, *hooks*, *baits*, *flies*, *tackle-book*, and *basket*; these should be as simple as possible in their construction, many accessories added by the fishing-tackle maker being more ornamental and cumbrous than really useful.

The *rod* must be long or short, stiff or supple, to suit the habits of different species of fish; thus, a long rod of sixteen or eighteen feet, very strong, but not very elastic, is necessary for salmon; while a rod of ten to fourteen feet, light, elastic, and finely tapering, is sufficient for trout. The rod for trout and similar kinds of fishing should be light enough to be wielded easily for several hours together by one hand. Spliced rods are easier mended than those with joints, and do not so readily get out of order. For salmon and other kinds of large fish, a large rod of several pieces, united by joints, is necessary.

The *reel* or *pirn*—an apparatus fixed near the bottom of the rod, and upon which the line is wound—should be simple in its mechanism, and made so as to wind or unwind freely and quickly.

Lines should be long, smooth, and flexible, and of a material not easily injured by wet. The part of the line which is wound upon the reel, and passes along the rod, is called the *reel-line*; that which is attached to it, is called the *casting-line*. The casting-line should be made of triple gut, twisted, and between it and the gut to which the hooks are attached, there should be several threads of strong single gut. Reel-lines vary from twenty to one hundred and twenty yards in length, according to the dimensions of the water to be fished, and the habits of the species to be captured. Lines are made of various materials, such as horse-hair and oiled silk. If, in purchasing, the angler be at a loss to decide between a heavy or a light line, he should incline rather to the heavy, for the sake of its *casting* superiority, and the advantage gained in windy weather. The *casting line* is sometimes made of horse-hair, lighter and finer than the reel-line, and at the end of this is attached the *gut-line*—the finest of all. Sometimes, however, the horse-hair casting-line is dispensed with. The casting and gut lines should taper in thickness from the reel-line to the end hook on the gut line; all knots should be small, but *secure*, the only breaks discernible by a general glance throughout the entire length of casting and gut lines, being the hooks.

Hooks range in size from several inches down to a quarter of an inch in length. Their chief manufacture are Kendal and Redditch.

Baits consist of any substance put upon a h act as a lure to the fish; and when used, the hook is dropped into, and allowed to sink in water, instead of being kept near the surface, the case with fly. The materials, living or d used for bait are very numerous, the principal b being worms, caddis-worms, pastes, maggots, nows, insects, and salmon-roe. The metho using baits are extremely various, and in m rather complicated.

Artificial Flies, intended as they something like a resemblance to the ac are the most important lures used by chief materials for dressing flies are or other feathers, to form wings; the fu a ha ear, mouse, water-rat, or some other animal, to f the body; and waxed silk thread to tie the wh in an artful, neat manner, to the shank of the ho

The following is a list of trout-flies and spid with a supply of which the angler may pursue 'meditative art' in almost any river or st Great Britain throughout the entire season: is almost needless to add, that the wood- though copied from two favourite flies and is intended as a guide to *size* rather than to Spiders are dressed, as they naturally e wings.

Flies.—No. 1. Wings formed of feathers from wing of the chaffinch, with a black hackle, tied w slate-coloured silk.

2. Wings composed of woodcock or feathers, and red hackle, tied with yellow

3. Wings formed of the feathers of bunting, with a red hackle wound round the head, tied with orange-coloured silk.

4. Wings formed from the speckled feather of teal, with a black hackle wound round close to head, tied with brown silk. The same wi a red hackle, tied with yellow silk, also killing fly.

5. Wings from the feathers of the dot and hackle same as No. 2.

6. Wings from woodcock or corn bunting body of hare's ear.

Spiders.—1. From the small feather of the d terel wing, tied with yellow silk thread.

2. From the small glistening feather taken from the outside of the shoulder of the starling's wing, tied with yellow silk thread.

3. From the neck-feathers of the hill-partridge, tied with yellow silk thread.

Flies. Spide

4. From the black hen-hackle, tied w black silk thread.

5. From the blue hen-hackle, tied with silk thread.

6. From a small red cock-hackle, or the feather of the landrail's wing, tied with yell

Of *salmon-flies*, the best two we know formed from the following materials:

'No. 1. Tail—crest-feather from golden phe tip—gold tinsel and orange silk, with two ostrich herl; body composed of claret-colour wool and mohair mixed, with a little the head, of a light-blue shade; wound tinsel and dark-red hackle, with blue jay for shoulders; wings from the teal-du geon, distinctly marked or barred; head ostrich herl.

'No. 2. Tail—crest feather from golden pheasant; body composed of pigs' wool and mohair mixed, of a dark-cinnamon shade; wound with silver twist and

Salmon Flies.

dark-red hackle; shoulders composed of breast-feather of the argus pheasant; wings composed of golden pheasant tippet or neck feathers, distinctly marked teal, four fibres of blue and red macaw tail-feathers, with pairs of wings from the brown and black barred feathers of the peacock wing surmounting the whole; a blue feather from the kingfisher or blue chatterer on each side of the wings; feelers from blue and buff macaw tail-feathers; head black ostrich herl.'

Larger and more gaudily dressed hooks are necessary for some of the bigger rivers of Great Britain, such as the Shannon in Ireland, and the Tay in Scotland; but the two here described are the most killing varieties for general use that we know of, and have been found more or less serviceable in every salmon river of any importance. No. 1 may be varied by different shades of wing, to suit various colours and sizes of water. Both are stock-flies with every tackle-maker.

The angler's equipment is completed by the addition of a *basket* or *bag* for holding his fish, and a *tackle-book*; also a flat, round tin box for holding his fly-casts. In fishing for perch, gudgeons, bream, &c., a small float is often used. Floats are made of cork, quill, reed, and other light materials; and a choice, according to circumstances, may be added to the tackle-book. Books adapted for the angler's purpose can be had of any tackle-maker.

The angler's dress should be a plain, dull-coloured suit; his shoes strong; and if he prefers wading, his boots or leggings should be waterproof.

The *gaff* and *landing-net* are each useful for securing large fish when stranded in very shallow water, or when fishing from a boat; and the *drag-hook*, which is an instrument with three bent prongs or hooks, with a long strong line attached, is frequently useful for casting into rivers or lochs to clear away any object at the bottom on which the hook has fouled.

Practice of Angling.—*Bait-fishing*.—As a rule, bait-fishing is practised more on sluggish, deep rivers than on swift running streams, though it answers as well, and, under certain circumstances, even better in the latter than in the former. The fish usually sought for in the slow-running, deep rivers south of the Tweed, are gudgeon, roach, dace, bream, chub, barbel, tench, carp, perch, pike, trout, &c. All are sometimes taken with fly; but worms, gentles, roe, or paste are more generally used.

The first thing the bait-fisher has to learn, is the art of baiting his hooks. Taking the hook in his right hand, and the bait between his fingers in the left, let him enter the hook at the head of the worm, and carry it through the animal to near the tail, covering the entire hook and its tying. The worm should be broken or mangled as little as possible; and the more lifelike it appears, the greater the probability of its proving an effectual lure. There must not, however, be too much spare worm left dangling from the hook, otherwise the fish will keep nibbling it away without biting at the bait boldly, and taking it into its mouth—the thing which the angler desires.

In throwing the line with bait, take care not to splash the water, but throw forward and upward, so as to let the bait fall gently on the surface, and sink slowly in the water to the required depth. The motion of the line down the stream must then be carefully followed and watched.

Occasionally, the angler will *feel* a nibble, but he must not be in a hurry to *strike*—that is, to fix the hook in the fish's mouth. Perhaps it is no more than a nibble, and it is well to allow the fish time to bolt the hook. If drawn too quickly, you may actually pull away the hook after it is half-gulped. Experience and dexterity are required in this ticklish part of the craft.

In May, the creeper, or stone-fly, in its embryo state, is a deadly bait; and in June, when it assumes the winged state, it is the most killing bait that can be used. The creepers are found under large stones in the water, the flies under large stones in the dry channel at the edge of the water. On Tweedside this fly is frequently but erroneously called the May-fly, and is productive of large takes of trout when other lures are comparatively useless. Minnows and parr-tail are two important baits; tackle is made on purpose for these, and consists of several hooks tied within an inch or so of each other. These are inserted in the minnow, so as to give a curving form to the bait, for the purpose of making it *spin* in the water; swivels are attached to the tackle further up, to prevent the line from twisting with the spinning of the minnow. Stoddart says: 'Fish in rapid streams, also in deep discoloured pools, and during a smart curl. Manage the minnow as you would your fly, throwing it down and across as far as you are able; bring it towards you about six inches below the surface, spinning rapidly by the aid of several swivels. When a fish rises, give him time before you strike; let him turn and gorge the bait, then strike sharply, and he is yours.' This mode of fishing requires more dexterity and practice than ordinary bait-fishing, and will be best learned by carefully watching the motions of an experienced hand.

Fly-fishing.—This is the true A., all other kinds being tame in comparison. Trout and salmon are the fly-fisher's chief objects of desire; and here we will quote some remarks of Mr Stoddart's upon the method of capturing the former of these fish with the lure in question: 'Your rod and tackle being ready, the wind in your favour down the river, draw out with your left hand a few yards of line from your reel, dip the top of your rod in the water, and with a rapid jerk you will lengthen as you wish that part you intend for throwing. A thirteen-foot wand will cast from six to seven fathoms of line. With a large double-handed rod you may manage a much greater length. Always, if you can, angle from a distance. Trout see you when you least imagine, and skulk off without your notice.

'All jerks, in casting, are apt to whip off your hooks or crack your gut. A fly-fisher may use two, three, or four flies on his casts, according to pleasure. When angling with small hooks, we adopt the medium number. Large ones ought to be fished

with in pairs, and well separated. In throwing the cast, the lowermost or trail-fly should be made to alight foremost; its fall ought to be almost imperceptible; it should come down on the water like a gossamer followed by the droppers. The moment a fly touches the surface, it is ten times more apt to raise a fish than during the act of drawing it along. At no time are we stanch advocates for the system of leading our hooks either against or across a stream; our method is rather to shake them over it for a moment, and then repeat the throw. A trout will discover your fly at the distance of several yards, if feeding, and will dart at it like lightning.

'Trout will sometimes take in the most unlikely weathers, so that the angler should not despair at any time. Hunger causes them to feed at least once in the twenty-four hours, and generally much oftener. If the wind blows down the river, commence at the pool-head, and fish every inch of good water; you may pass over the very rough and very shallow parts, also those which are absolutely dead calm and clear, unless you see fish rising in them, when, should your tackle be light, there is no harm in taking a throw or two. Dead water, however, when rippled or discoloured, may be angled in with great success.'

The following remarks and hints apply chiefly to trout-fishing in streams, and may be found of service to those who follow that delightful recreation. As a rule, fish *up*, especially when the water is clear, and the wind not directly down-stream: the advantages are, that the fish do not so readily detect the presence of the angler—their heads being directed up the water; they are more easily hooked; and when a large trout is hooked, he may be landed down-stream, thus saving the water above for further operations. The practice of angling up-stream is somewhat difficult at first, but a little practice works wonders, and is sure to bring its reward ultimately. Gut should be *round, clear, strong*, and *fine;* the finer it is, consistent with strength, the better, as it scares fewer fish than coarser material. Trout-flies for ordinary use in rivers such as Tweed, &c., should be dressed rather sparely, and should be small; some half-dozen varieties, such as those already enumerated, will be found amply sufficient; and were we asked to choose three kinds as being more valuable than any others, our choice would incline to a red hackle, a black hackle, and a woodcock-wing dressed with hare-ear body. For turbid or dark water, however, the size may be increased, and the dressing be made rather gaudier by the addition of tinsel. Practise casting till you can throw your flies like gossamer on the water, and, above all, avoid splashing. The use of a short line will give you great advantage over your tackle. Heavy fish hook themselves in nine out of ten cases, so that striking is unnecessary; striking is performed by a motion of the wrist, not of the arm, and is only to be learned by practice; it then comes quite naturally to the angler. Cast *frequently;* you get over more ground, and vastly increase your chances of success. Trout generally seize the fly the instant it lights on the water, or the instant after; hence, it is necessary that the angler be on the *qui vive in time*. Cast above where fish are likely to lie, and remember that the greater part of your success lies in the art of *keeping out of their sight*. Dull-coloured clothes materially assist in achieving this important desideratum.

When fishing with a friend, always come to a distinct agreement, before starting, relative to the division of the water, especially if the stream be small.

The true angler returns all smoults, parr, and small trout to their native element—his maxim being quality, not quantity. He a
well varnished, dries his line and
and looks into his tackle-book at le
three months during the non-A. se
saves his flies from the ravages of the
tyro should always be guided in his se
rod and tackle by some experienced
upon arriving at strange angling quarter
place himself in the hands of a residen
who will guide him to the best casts
loch, or stream. A day spent in w
proceedings of an expert angler, is a dav
and a few hours' lessons in fly-makin
&c., work wonders. And, lastly,
practise courtesy towards all his br
and be ever willing to lend a killi
friend.

The principal works on A. are
Stoddart's *Angler's Companion*,
the *Encyclopædia Britannica*,
the angling section of Colquhoun's *M*
Loch, and Stewart's *Practical Angler*
is perhaps the best work ever writt
fishing as applied to clear water.
also find many useful hints in the
Chambers's Information for the Peo

A'NGLO-CATHOLIC CHU H. CAN CHURCH, a term freque designate collectively those church the principles of the English Refo lowing are, in brief, the views ge of those principles by the members in question: By referring the Anglo to the English Reformation, it is her origin dates from that event, tenets, as she now exists, are thos Reformation cleared of what she holds t tions. For, as the word 'church' its —being derived, like 'kirk' in Scotla Greek adjective *kuriakē*, which means (i.e. *house*)—the origin of the Anglica to be traced not to a Roman but to source. She claims the name of Cath also is from the Greek *katholikē*, uni cause she is united, in origin, in d in form of government, with the Unive as it has existed, with various differe and ceremonies, in all countries and Eusebius even asserts that some of the ap over into Britain. Tertullian, who lived speaks of places in Britain which, sible to the Romans, were subject to norum inaccessa Romanis loca, Christo At the Council of Arles, 314 A.D., three British bishops present; and St Al martyrdom, under Diocletian, about the 3d c., or nearly three centuries before of St Augustine (q. v.) and his mission Christianity, however, was driven by Saxons into the mountainous districts o though Augustine, on his arrival, found seven bishops and one archbishop in tho though Bertha, queen of Ethelbert, was yet the whole Saxon part of the count state of heathenism. The British Chu from the Roman and other Western Ch the form of administering baptism, and keeping the festival of Easter (see E ing the customs of the Greek or Easter it was not until the close of the Theodore, that the two churches becam the meantime, the conversion of Brit much due to the labours of St Aidan, Bishop of Lindisfern in the north, and the Saxon saint, as to the missionaries of Church in the south. See ANGLO-S

[illegible] at the [illegible] ...rv of [illegible]
[illegible] period [illegible]
[illegible] to c [illegible] ...m the ...egin-
[illegible] ...the 16th c., she
[illegible] ...ompletely, assimilated
[illegible] ...e Church of Rome, as
[illegible] ...domination; and the fact of
[illegible] ...reed herself from both, is in no
[illegible] ...her having existed, in Saxon
[illegible] ...freedom and purity. It required,
[illegible], a struggle of nearly a century to
British Church conform to the Roman in
...rs of baptism and Easter; and it was the
...which offered a strenuous, and for some
...tual, resistance to the peculiar doctrines
...f Rome and the claims of pa... do-
[illegible] ...always found i... vidu...
[illegible] ...pro...
[illegible] ...cl...
[illegible] ...Fu...
[illegible] ...fifty y...
[illegible] ...doctrines of W...
[illegible] ...of the Anglican Church.
[illegible] ...of papal supremacy was indeed
[illegible] ...Henry VIII.; but that monarch rather
than favoured the reformation of *doctrine*, as
from the rapid progress which it made when
VI. came to the throne. The bloody reign
interposed a check to further progress; and
...till the accession of Queen Elizabeth that
...iples of the Reformation finally triumphed,
...-catholic Church assumed the form in
...since continued to exist. During the
...e than 800 years preceding the Refor-
...became gradually, and at length com-
...in the Roman Catholic; at the
...e may be said to have emerged;
...at the Council of Trent, anathematised
...receive her articles, the separation
...positions of the two churches
...r irreconcilably hostile.

...ples of the Anglican Church are to be
Book of Common Prayer (q. v.), which
...n the second prayer-book of Edward
...settled in its present form 1662 A. D.
...re more *legally* defined in the Thirty-
...es, which were settled 1562 A. D. (see
THIRTY-NINE). As distinguished from
...rejects tradition as a rule of faith,
...dmitting it as to rites and ceremonies, and
her teaching upon the books of the Old and
...staments, rejecting from them as apocry-
...ain which Rome receives as canonical. She
...s only two sacraments, Baptism and the
...upper, whereas Rome allows five others—
Confirmation, Orders, Penance, Matrimony,
...eme Unction; she denies the doctrines of
...antiation and the propitiatory sacrifice of
...; she forbids what Rome practises—the
... of the Virgin, saints, and angels, and the
... of relics and images; she also denies the
doctrines of purgatory and the spiritual
...y of the pope. It is not, however, to be
that a great part of her liturgy is derived
missals of the Roman Church. As distin-
...om the Presbyterian Churches—e. g., that of
—she is Episcopal, and holds the unbroken
... of her orders from the apostles, as one of
esteemed privileges; whereas the Presby-
especially in Scotland, reject prelacy as a
of popery. These do not, however, differ
materially in essential matters of faith, but
... to the sacraments, the form of administer-
..., and the grace conveyed in them; as to
...vance of seasons, such as Christmas, Lent,
...nd as to the forms of public worship, the Presbyterians using no set forms. Her differences with the Greek Catholics are less wide than with the Roman, and will be best seen by referring to the article GREEK CHURCH. From the Lutherans she differs on the doctrine of consubstantiation in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. From the Calvinists she differs radically as to the extent of the efficacy of Christ's death, they believing only in 'particular,' she in 'universal,' redemption (meaning, of course, not that all men will actually be saved, but that Christ died for all); nevertheless, some of her articles, as the 17th, are decidedly Calvinistic. The numerous sects of Wesleyans, Baptists, and Independents do not differ from her on what they themselves consider essential articles of faith, but chiefly as to the necessity of orders, the grace conveyed in the sacraments, and the forms of public worship and of church government. But since their separation from her, endless varieties of doctrine and worship have spread among them. Unfortunately, there remains no Gallo-catholic Church with which to compare her.

The Anglo-catholic Church embraces the Church of England, the Protestant Episcopal Church in Ireland, the Episcopal Church in Scotland, all the colonial and the American Episcopal Churches. All but the latter use the English *Book of Common Prayer;* in America this has been slightly altered. The American Church is one of the most flourishing offshoots of the Anglican. It was planted in Virginia, 1607 A. D., but, for nearly two centuries, the mother church in England withheld from her offspring the necessary boon of an episcopacy of her own. It was not till the close of the 18th c. that the first three American bishops were ordained (one by the Scottish bishops in 1784, and two by the archbishop of Canterbury and the bishops of Bath and Peterborough in 1787); but now this branch of Anglo-catholicism has spread over the greater part of the United States.

ANGLOMA'NIA designates, among the French and Germans, a weak imitation of English manners, customs, &c., or an indiscriminate admiration of English institutions. In German literature, an A. was especially prevalent in the 18th c., when translations of English books became numerous, and were read with great admiration. The Germans have ascribed the sentimental and affected style of some parts of their literature to the influence of the English literature of last century. But the A. was harmless in comparison with the GALLOMANIA, or imitation of French literature and customs, which prevailed in the time of Frederick II. of Prussia, and was developed in the writings of Wieland. A remarkable A. prevailed in France for some time before the commencement of the Revolution. It arose out of political considerations and admiration of English free institutions, but extended to trifles even of fashions and manners, and often became very ridiculous.

A'NGLO-SA'XON LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. The term Anglo-Saxon is of quite modern origin, the ruling race in England before the Norman conquest not knowing itself by any other name than Æ*nglisc* or English. Mr Freeman, Professor Stubbs, and other able scholars of the present day, argue stoutly for a return to the old and true name; and to all appearance the abolition of 'Anglo-Saxon' and the restoration of 'English' is only a question of time. English is one of the Low German family of Teutonic languages. We do not know it in its earliest form. Some centuries elapse after the invasions of the 5th century, before any literature was produced or recorded. During this time, the dialectic differences of the various Low German

tribes who had come into the island were probably diminishing, while separation from their kinsmen on the continent must on the other hand have tended to develop new peculiarities. The result is, that the very oldest English is by no means the same as the very oldest dialects of Low German in the coast regions between the Rhine and the Baltic. But it most nearly resembles the old Saxon of Rhenish Prussia and Westphalia, and the old Dutch and the old Frisian of the provinces of Holland, and to the last of these it has the closest affinity. It is not to be supposed, however, that at any time before 1066, Englishmen spoke or even wrote a single dialect. There is evidence of at least two being used—a northern and a southern—an Anglian by the people of Northumbria, and a Saxon by the people of Wessex. The former is the more primitive, and as Mr Kington-Oliphant points out (*Sources of Standard English*, 1873, pp. 35—40), has more in common with old Norse and Frisian than its southern sister; e.g., the infinitive ends not in the *an* of Wessex English, but in *a*. The history of England during the six hundred years before the Norman conquest accounts both for the antiquity of the Northumbrian literature, and for the subsequent triumph of the Wessex dialect. In the 7th and 8th centuries, Northumbria was the strongest, the most civilised, and the most learned of the English states. Christianity had poured its benign influences over it in double measure. Paulinus and Aidan, Rome and Iona, had both striven successfully against paganism, and light flowed over the land. Cadmon and Bede and Alcuin were all Northumbrians. That so little of this Northumbrian literature has come down to us is owing to the destruction of the northern monasteries by the Danes. The influence of Alfred, 'king of the West-Saxons,' and the unification of government in the island under his successors, gave the dialect of Wessex an irresistible supremacy; so much so, that even most of the early northern literature only survives in a southern dress —e.g., we can only read Cadmon in a Wessex version of the 10th c. Yet, so strong was the impression left on its neighbour by the Anglian state, that not even the havoc made by the Danes of its literary monuments and its political prosperity could prevent its name from being given to the island, the people, and the tongue.

Wessex English, then—that is, the English of the court, of books, and probably in great measure of the schools, prevailed in England for more than 150 years before the Norman conquest, and is substantially what we mean when we speak of the 'Anglo-Saxon' language. There is no reason to suppose that it ever superseded the dialect of the north for ordinary purposes of intercourse. Anglian lived on in the mouths of the people, and in later times has won an immortal fame in literature under the name of Lowland Scotch. Cadmon and Burns both used it, though in the unapproachable verse of the Ayrshire bard it has become utterly inorganic, and so remains. English, then, before the Conquest, differs from modern English in being an inflected language. Its inflections are not so rich, or various, or euphonious as those of Latin, or Greek, or Mœso-Gothic, that oldest and noblest of the Low-German dialects; but they are still sufficient to give it a distinct character, and to make it strange and almost unintelligible at first sight to one whose reading does not go back beyond Shakspeare. Its nouns can be grouped into declensions, and classified according to gender, and faint traces of the terminations are preserved in the English of the present day. The *en* in 'children' and 'ox*en*' is the old *an* of the plural in nouns of the first declension; the *s* and *es*, the old *as* marking the plural of masculines of the third. Adjectives have both a definite and indefinite form. The article is as complete as in Greek, though everything has now vanished but a fragment of the neuter *thæt* (modern *the*). Some mutilated remains of the pronominal inflections still survive to puzzle school-boys, and delight the lovers of 'hoar antiquity.' Verbs are divided into 'strong' and 'weak' conjugations, as is still the case [illegible]. The distinction between the indicative and subjunctive moods, though slight, is real; and the [illegible] only an infinitive in *an*, but a gerund in *ane*, and present participle in *ende* is not confused with the verbal noun in *ung*, as is unhappily the case [illegible] who have made *ing* do duty for both. The study of the English tongue, in its earliest stage, has become [illegible] grammatical works are now an [illegible] fragmentary or discursive consisting of [illegible] ject of English grammar by Grimm, Earle, Morris, Kington-Oliphant specify Rask's *Angelsäksisk Sprogl[illegible]* 1817, with Thorpe's translation of [illegible]; *Lectures on the English Language* ([illegible]); *Historische Grammatik der Englische Sprache* —1869); Mätzner's *Englische Gram[illegible]* 1865); Latham's *English Language*; March's *Comparative Grammar of the English Language* (1870).

Having thus indicated very briefly some of salient features of English as it was spoken written before the Conquest, we proceed to rapid survey of the contemporary literature what has been said above, one will naturally to the north for the earliest examples. The graven upon the Ruthwell Cross, which about 680 A. D., are now proved from the itself to be the composition of Cadmon, very oldest relic of Anglian poetry. Cadmon speaking his own speech, not [illegible] poems, speaking to us through a [illegible]. Other and later monuments of Northumbrian are a *Psalter* (800 A. D.); *Gospels* (900 A. D.); the *Lindisfarne Gospels* (A. D.). But the great body of the literature, whether produced in Northumbria or Wessex, has come down to us only in the last of these states; therefore, in what we shall consider, not the antiquity of the author. A good deal of [illegible] verse is alliterative, as in the [illegible] German poetry; and only in [illegible] poems do we find a beginning of [illegible] or narrative poems are remarkable [illegible] ance of often-recurring epithets, [illegible] and a certain pomp and magnificence of [illegible] the genuine heroic poetry, however, there remains, the principal one being the poem of (q. v.), a work which must have been [illegible] before the Angles and Saxons quitted their seats on the continent. Other pieces [illegible] Germany, though only surviving in [illegible] are the *Traveller's Song* and the *Battle* The introduction of Christianity gave a character to Anglo-Saxon poetry; and [illegible] tive poems are extant on religious subjects which may be seen in the *Codex Oxoniensis* tion edited by Thorpe (Lond. 1842). *Cadmon* (see CÆDMON), which is [illegible] Alfred's translation of Bede, has been [illegible] by Junius and Thorpe; and a metrical of parts of the Holy Scriptures, ascribed [illegible] author, has found editors both in Thorpe 1832) and Bouterwek (vol. i., Elberfeld, [illegible] mon is said by Bede to have died about both of the works in question must be 7th c. Two poems from the *codex* [illegible]

discovered at Vercelli in 1832, have been edited by Jacob Grimm (Cassel, 1840), under the title of *Andreas und Elene;* a poetical calendar of the saints by Fox (Lond. 1830); and a version of the Psalms by Thorpe (Lond. 1835). Among the most important prose works must be mentioned the laws, civil and ecclesiastical, from the time of Ethelbert of Kent to that of Canute, of which the best edition is in Thorpe's *Ancient Laws and Institutes of England* (Lond. 1840). Of historical works may be mentioned Alfred's translations of Orosius and Bede; and the *Chronicle* carried on by different hands to 1154, of which the best edition, down at least to the Conquest, is Price's, in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica*, 1848, an earlier one being that of Ingram (Lond. 1823). It is in the province of theology that English literature before the Conquest is most rich, abounding particularly in legends and homilies. A collection of homilies made by Bishop Ælfric has been published by the Elfric Society (2 vols., Lond. 1847), a society instituted in 1843 for the promotion of the knowledge of the England and English language of those times. Ælfric did much to enrich it with translations, and began a translation of the Bible. He translated the first seven books, the book of Job, and the apocryphal Gospel of Nicodemus, and also a fragment of a poem on the history of Judith, of great celebrity (Oxf. 1698). The *Durham Book*, or St Cuthbert's book, a very famous manuscript, now in the British Museum, contains an interlinear gloss of the gospels in the East-Anglian dialect, the text being probably of the 9th, and the gloss of the 10th c. Alfred translated the work of Boethius, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*. The opinions of Englishmen before the Conquest on astronomy, natural philosophy, and medicine, are exhibited from their works by Wright in his *Treatises on Sciences written during the Middle Ages* (Lond. 1841), and Turner's *History of the Anglo-Saxons* (3 vols., 7th ed. 1852). Compare also Thorpe's *Analecta Anglo-Saxonica;* Marsh's *Origin and History of the English Language and the Early Literature it embodies* (1862); and Grein's *Bibliothek der Angelsächsich en Poesie* (1857–1858, and 1863–1864). See ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

ANGLO-SAXONS, the collective name generally given by historians to the various Teutonic or German tribes which settled in England, chiefly in the 5th c., and founded the kingdoms of the Heptarchy. They consisted for the most part of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. The generally received opinion is, that the first of these invaders made their appearance in Britain in 449, having Hengest and Horsa as their leaders. But under the more searching scrutiny of later writers, these famous leaders have evaporated into mythical heroes of romance, common to most of the Germanic nations; and though the fact of a great Germanic invasion in the middle of the 5th c. is not doubted, it is believed that this was by no means the earliest period at which Germanic settlements were effected in England. Long previous to this period, a portion of the coast, extending from Portsmouth to Wells in Norfolk, was known as the *Littus Saxonicum;* but whether in reference to Saxons by whom it was settled, or to roving adventurers of that race by whom it was ravaged, is still a subject of dispute. Of the three tribes mentioned above, the Jutes are believed to have been the first comers. Their original settlements were in what is now the duchy of Slesvig; and the portions of England of which they possessed themselves were Kent, the Isle of Wight, and the opposite coast of Hampshire. The Saxons, who were the next invaders, settled chiefly in the southern and central parts of England—in Sussex, Essex, Middlesex, the south of Hertford, Surrey, the part of Hampshire not possessed by the Jutes, Berks, Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devon, and the portion of Cornwall which did not remain in the possession of its former Celtic inhabitants. The Saxons who invaded England probably belonged chiefly to the portion of that great nation, or confederacy of nations, whose territories lay on the shores of the Baltic—occupying what are now the duchy of Holstein, the north of Hanover, and the west of Mecklenburg. The third tribe, whose name and nationality afterwards prevailed over the others—the Angles—did not arrive till a somewhat later period. Coming like the Jutes from the duchy of Slesvig, a corner of which is still called Angeln, they made, from 527 to 547, a succession of descents on the coasts of Suffolk and Norfolk, and latterly, on the country to the north of the Humber, and the southern part of Scotland between the Tweed and the Forth. Eventually, the Angles obtained possession of the whole of England, except the portions already mentioned; that is to say, of all the part to the north of the Avon, on the one side, and the Thames on the other—Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertford excepted. The union of different bands of these conquerors amongst themselves, with their countrymen who had preceded them, and with the Celtic population which, though conquered, there is no reason to suppose was exterminated, gave rise to the so-called Heptarchy (q. v.)—the kingdoms of Northumbria (originally Bernicia and Deira), Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, and Mercia.

The various independent states into which England had till then been divided, were united by Egbert, king of Wessex, in 827, into the one kingdom of England (the land of the Angles). The royal family of Wessex, which was thus raised to what, for the first time, probably, is entitled to be called the kingly dignity, never again lost its supremacy, except, indeed, during the Danish period (1017 to 1042), till the Norman Conquest; and to it Alfred the Great (q. v.) belonged.

The English constitution, the origin of which is sometimes ascribed to Alfred, was not framed by him, though he restored it and improved it after the deliverance of the country from the Danes in 1042. It was essentially the same as that of other Germanic nations. At the head of the government was the *cyning* or *cyng*. The kingly office, among the Germanic nations in early times, had reference solely to the tribes or peoples governed, and never to the land which they occupied. During this period, it was naturally elective; but after the idea of great territorial possessions came to be inseparable from it, it became hereditary, though a form of election, or colour of ascertaining the national will, was still retained. The life of the king, like that of every other man, was assessed at a fixed price (*Weregild*, q. v.), which was that of an *atheling*, or person of royal blood, with a sum superadded as the price of his royalty. The first of these sums went to his family, the second to the people. The king possessed the power of calling together the Witenagemôt (q. v.), and of laying before them propositions for the public weal; but he had not the power of dismissing the assembly, so that in England, from the first, the real centre of power seems to have been in parliament. Neither was the convocation of the Witenagemôt at the option of the sovereign, for there is every reason to believe that his power was all along limited by the necessity of consulting the principal members both of the clergy and laity of the kingdom; nor, it would seem, could he impose taxes, or declare peace or war, without their consent. The sons and other near relations of the king constituted an aristocracy of birth, called ethelings or æthelings (the same word with the

German *Adel*, noble). Out of the great officers of the state, or immediate servants of the king, was gradually formed a hereditary aristocracy, closely corresponding to that which subsequently existed in feudal times. Of these, the person next in rank to the king was the *ealdorman* ('elderman,' Lat. 'senator') or *heretoga* ('army-leader'). 'But inasmuch as the ducal functions, in the Anglo-Saxon polity, were by no means confined to service in the field, the peculiar title of heretoga is very rarely met with, being for the most part replaced by ealdorman or aldorman, which denotes civil as well as military pre-eminence' (Kemble, *ut sup.* ii. 126). Though the word is derived from an adjective signifying age, in practice, no such meaning attached to it, more than to senior, which is the original form of the word seigneur. It was to the same class of officials that subsequently the Danish title of *eorl* or earl came to be applied. The powers of these officers probably varied in the different kingdoms, whilst they remained separated; but we shall form, on the whole, a pretty accurate conception of the position of the ealdorman, if we regard him as the governor of the *gá* or shire, the *scirgeréfa* or sheriff being his deputy. Much difference of opinion exists as to the rank and position, social and political, of the thane; and all that can be said with confidence is, that before the Conquest, it was not convertible with ealdorman, or equivalent to baron, as it came to be after the Conquest. The office seems to have implied subordinate landed tenure, similar to that by which the lands of the vassal were held of the lord in feudal times; and thus, whilst the king's thanes were frequently ealdormen, these, in their turn, had thanes of a lower rank, who appear to have been very numerous. This view is strengthened by the derivation of the term from *thegnian* or *thenian*, to serve, which is the same word as the modern German *dienen*, and from the fact of its being frequently translated *minister* in the Latin charters of pre-Norman times. The whole class of ordinary freemen or commoners were called *ceorls*, afterwards *churls* (a word preserved in the German *Kerl*, and in the Lowland Scotch *carle*), and were generally associated under the protection of some person of rank and influence, who was called the *hlaford* (our 'lord,' but *lit.* 'bread-winner,' or rather 'bread-beginner'). This, however, was in itself no recognised title, and up to a very late period the Anglo-Saxon laws knew no other distinction than that of ceorl and corl. The Britons, who retained some degree of freedom, constituted a lower class, called *wealhas* or 'Welsh' (*lit.* 'foreigners,' as they seemed to the conquerors). The number of slaves (*theowas*) was not very great, nor does the character of the servitude imposed on them seem, comparatively speaking, to have been oppressive. Different rights and privileges belonged to the different ranks of the Saxon people, and, as we have already said, a different *Weregild* (q. v.), or pecuniary estimation, was fixed for each rank, as the penalty for homicide. The great districts or shires were subdivided into tithings (*teothunga*), each containing *ten* free heads of families, who were held mutually responsible for each other. Ten tithings formed a *hundred*, which had a court subordinate to the court of the shire. In important matters, the ealdorman of the shire could not decide without the concurrence of an assembly (*Scirgemót*, Assembly of the Shire) of thanes of the shire and representatives of townships, which met half-yearly, and corresponded to the *Witenagemót* (Assembly of the Wise), or *Micklegemót* (Assembly of the Great) for the whole kingdom.

Christianity was introduced among the newcomers in the end of the 6th, or beginning of the 7th c. by St Augustine, a missionary sent by Pope Gregory I., called the Great. Augustine became the first archbishop of Canterbury; and before the close of the 7th c., the whole of *Engla-land* was a Christian country under one metropolitan. Ethelbert, king of Kent, was the first sovereign who embraced the Christian doctrine. Bringing with them the traditions and feelings of the empire, the whole influence of the clergy was thrown into the scale of monarchy, and greatly tended to its consolidation. A Christian church, however, already existed in Scotland and the north of England; and the influence of the Culdees (q. v.) long prevailed against the efforts of the southern prelates to establish uniformity of worship and complete conformity to Rome. But in truth, the English clergy in general were not very submissive to the authority of the popes, who did not succeed in reducing the land to complete subjection till after a long struggle. St Dunstan (q. v.) gained for them their final victory in the 10th c. During the time of its comparative independence, the English Church was distinguished for the learning and laboriousness of its clergy. Bede (q. v.) is the most eminent author whom it produced. Between his time and that of Alfred, a very great degeneracy had taken place both in the learning and efficiency of the clergy, which that active and enlightened sovereign laboured to restore, but only with partial success. St Boniface (q. v.) and many other English and Scottish missionaries laboured with success in the propagation of Christianity in Germany.—Besides the works already referred to, see Freeman's *History of the Norman Conquest*, and his *Old-English History*.

ANGO'LA, a name often applied to the v[illegible] of the West African coast from Cape Lopez de G[illegible] in lat. 0° 44′ S., to San Felipe de B[enguela] 14′ S.; but, in a more restricted sense, [illegible] kingdom in Lower Guinea dependent u[pon] and extending from the river Coanza in lat. 9° 20′ S., to the Danda on 8° 20′ S. The natives generally call i[t] interior is very imperfectly known. [illegible] aries uncertain; but along with B[enguela] presidencies, A. is supposed [to] 500,000 inhabitants. The country [is] watered, is covered with a most lu[xu]tion. The heat being moderated by [the] the orange and other fruits of the [tem]perate climates are produced, as [well] which are strictly tropical. There [is] ance and variety of wild animals, [and] of the rivers swarm with sharks [and] The principal rivers are the Coa[nza]. Much of the country is mountain[ous]. tains are covered with forests, [and] metals, particularly copper, iron, and [gold] with wax and ivory, are the pr[incipal] exports, although the great trad[e] present day, has been in slaves. F[etishism] prevailing superstition, and circu[mcision] among the natives. A. might [be] very productive both of sugar and [cotton], manner in which it has been gov[erned] Portuguese has not tended to develop [its] They discovered it in 1486, and have h[eld] ments in it since 1488; but the n[umber] of Portuguese is very small, and they [are] confined to a few spots—forts and establishments called *feiras* or fairs. [The] Loando, or San Paulo de Loando (q. v.).

ANGON, a barbed spear used by [the] nations. The Franks, in the 7th c., angons both for thrusting and hurling. [They] were armed with iron, so as to leave [a]

the wood uncovered; the head had two barbs. When hurled or thrust at an opponent, the head of the A. became fixed in the flesh by means of the barbs. This form of spear was much adopted by the Anglo-Saxon and other Teutonic nations.

ANGORA, the Ancyra of the ancients, a city in the eastern part of the Turkish eyalet of Bozo, in the mountainous interior of Asia Minor, and distant from Constantinople about 220 miles E.S.E. It is said to have been built by Midas, the son of the Phrygian Gordius; was a flourishing city under the Persians; became the capital of the Gallic Tectosages, who settled in Asia Minor about 277 B.C.; was a principal seat of eastern trade under the Romans; and was made the capital of the Roman province of Galatia Prima. It was the seat of one of the early churches of Galatia, and the scene of two Christian councils held respectively in 314 and 358. A decisive battle between the Turks and Tatars was fought near A. in 1402, in which Timur defeated and took prisoner the sultan Bajazet I. A temple of white marble was erected by the citizens of Ancyra to the Emperor Augustus, who had greatly beautified the city, and his deeds were recorded in inscriptions upon a number of tablets and the columns of an altar. These inscriptions, the *Monumentum Ancyranum*, discovered by Busberg in 1553, are important for the elucidation of ancient history. They were first printed in Schott's edition of Aurelius Victor (Antw. 1579), and have recently been edited with notes by Franz and Zumpt (Berl. 1845). The present A. is said to contain not more than 20,000 inhabitants, of whom one-third are Armenians. It is famous for its breed

Angora Goats.

of goats, with beautiful silky hair, eight inches long. Of this goat-hair, a kind of yarn is made, known as *Turkish yarn* or *camel yarn*, and of which also a manufacture of *camlets* is extensively carried on in A. itself. The name camel yarn has led to mistakes; it has no reference to the camel, but is derived from the Arabic word *chamal*, fine. Of the skin of the A. goat, the fine Oriental Morocco leather is made. Many of the animals in this region are characterised by the length and softness of their hair, especially the dogs, rabbits, cats, &c. This peculiarity seems to depend upon the climate, and soon disappears in Europe.

ANGOSTURA, a seaport town of Venezuela, in lat. 8° 8′ N., and long. 63° 55′ W., on the right bank of the Orinoco, about 240 miles from its mouths. It takes its name, which signifies a strait, from its being built at a point where, on both sides, the river is narrowed by rocks to a width of 3134 feet, after having measured three miles across at thrice the distance from the sea. The site of A. is only 191 feet above the sea-level—an elevation which, on the intermediate distance as above, yields an average of less than ten inches to the mile. In fact, the bottom of the river in front of the town is lower than the surface of the sea, for, even in the lowest state of the water, it is said to be 200 feet deep, with a margin for floods to the amount of fifty or sixty feet more. Under these circumstances, the bed of the stream must be about 250 feet under the level of the city, or about 60 feet under the level of the sea. When the river does rise to its highest, there are at least portions of the city inundated; and instances are believed to have occurred in which careless people were devoured by alligators in the very streets. Chiefly, as is supposed, through the free access of the trade-winds over the flat surface of the country, A. enjoys, in proportion to its latitude, a singularly temperate climate. Even in the hottest season of the year, the thermometer is said seldom to shew more than 86° F.; while, between the beginning of November and the end of April, it ranges from 77° by day to 69° by night.

The situation of A. is highly favourable, in a commercial view. The basin of the Orinoco, which lies nearly all above the town, and is estimated to contain 250,000 square miles, or more than twice the area of the British Isles, is particularly rich towards the north. On that side it reaches very nearly to the coast-line, so as to comprise some of the best parts of Venezuela. Towards the south, again, it consists, in a great measure, of boundless plains, traversed by countless herds of cattle. Over the whole of this vast basin, and that almost equally in both directions, the main stream and its affluents are, with hardly any interruptions, navigable to near the foot of the mountains. Owing to the impetuosity of the currents and the obstruction of shoals, sailing-vessels are said to take fifteen days to sail up to A.; but with steam-navigation these impediments would in great measure disappear.

With such advantages of position, A. was a flourishing mart before the commencement of the war of independence; but the civil broils materially interfered with its prosperity. As far back as 1807, A. had 8500 inhabitants; ere twenty years elapsed, the population had been reduced to little more than a third part of the number. According to later information, however, it was rapidly approaching its former amount.

ANGOSTURA BARK, or **ANGUSTURA BARK**, the aromatic bitter bark of certain trees of the natural order *Rubiaceæ*, and tribe *Cuspariæ*, natives of the tropical parts of South America. It derives its name from the town of Angostura, where it is a considerable article of commerce. It was first brought to England in 1788. It is used in medicine as a remedy for weakness of digestion, diarrhœa, dysentery, and fevers. It is tonic and stimulant. The most important of the trees producing it is the *Galipea officinalis*, which grows upon the mountains of Columbia and near the Orinoco. It is a tree of 12—20 feet high, and 3—5 feet in diameter, having a gray bark, trifoliate leaves, with oblong leaflets about ten inches long, which, when fresh, have the odour of tobacco, and flowers about an inch long, in racemes, white, hairy, and fragrant. The bark contains a chemical substance not yet sufficiently examined, called *Angosturin*, *Cusparin*, or *Galipein*, to which its medicinal efficacy is ascribed. It is supposed that a variety of A. B. is produced by *Galipea Cusparia* (called by some *Bonplandia trifoliata*), a majestic tree of 60—80 feet in height, with fragrant trifoliate leaves more than two feet long. A. B. is believed to be one of the most valuable of febrifuges; but its use is at present very limited, and has, indeed, in some countries been prohibited, in consequence

of its frequent adulteration with the poisonous bark of the *Strychnos Nux Vomica*, or the substitution of that bark for it. This poisonous bark is sometimes called *False A. B.* It differs from the true A. B. in having no smell, in its much greater weight and compactness, in its inner surface being incapable of separation into small laminæ, and in the effects which are produced upon it by acids and other tests, particularly in its outer crust being rendered dark-green, or blackish, by nitric acid, whilst that of the true A. B. is rendered slightly orange-red.

ANGOULÊME, the capital of the department of Charente in France, and formerly of the province of Angoumois. It is situated on the Charente, and has narrow and crooked streets, a number of paper-mills, manufactures of woollen stuffs, linen, and earthenware, &c., and a population (1872) of 22,109. It possesses a royal college, a museum of natural history, and several other useful institutions. In the centre of the town stands the remnant of the ancient castle of A., in which was born the celebrated Marguerite of Navarre, the authoress of the *Heptameron*, and other works. The railway from Paris to Bordeaux passes through it. Much saffron and wine are produced in the neighbourhood. The province of Angoumois was in early times a county; but the heir of it, in the beginning of the 14th c., being an adherent of the English, Philip the Fair took possession of it, and it became an apanage of younger branches of the royal family. It was made a duchy by Francis I., and was sometimes bestowed upon natural sons of the French kings. Charles de Valois, Duke of A., a natural son of Charles IX., was a distinguished general in the reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XIII.

ANGOULÊME, Louis Antoine de Bourbon, Duc d', the eldest son of Charles X. of France, and Dauphin during his father's reign, was born at Versailles on 6th August 1775. He retired from France along with his father at the commencement of the Revolution, and spent some time in military studies at Turin. In August 1792 he entered Germany at the head of a body of French emigrants; but the ill success of the campaign, and his own unfitness for military command, led to his seeking tranquillity along with his father at Edinburgh. Till 1814 he continued an exile from France, wandering from one place to another on the continent, and latterly resident with the other members of his family in England. On the entrance of the allies into France, he appeared at the British head-quarters at St Jean de Luz, and thence issued a proclamation to the French army. He entered Bordeaux under protection of the British on 12th March, and made liberal promises in the name of his uncle, Louis XVIII., among which was that of complete religious liberty. He was again in the south when Napoleon returned from Elba. He was appointed lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and hastened with such forces as he could collect to oppose the emperor; but although he obtained some advantages at first, he was soon deserted by his troops, was for some days detained a prisoner, and at last sent away in a Swedish merchant-vessel to Barcelona. After the second restoration, he was sent by Louis XVIII. to the southern provinces to repress the political and religious movements there; and in 1823 he led the French army into Spain, to put an end to the constitution. A man of phlegmatic disposition and mean abilities, he was, in all political matters, a tool of the ultra-royalists and the priests. When the revolution took place in July 1830, he signed, along with his father, an abdication in favour of his nephew, the Duc de Bordeaux; and when the Chambers declared the family of Charles X. to have forfeited the throne, he accompanied him into exile to Holyrood, to and to Görz, where he died, 3d 1844.

ANGOULÊME, Marie-Thé Duchesse d', the daughter of Louis at Versailles on 19th December 1778, displayed much quickness of intelligence of character, with the most tender sym the distresses of others. Having passed the horrors of the Revolution, and endure imprisonment, she was exchanged, on 25th D ber 1795, for some French prisoners in the ha the Austrians, and lived at Vienna till her ma in 1799, with her cousin, the Duc d'Ang whose subsequent fortunes she shared. Sh vived him seven years, and died on 19th O 1851.

ANGRA, the capital of the Azores, a seap the head of a deep bay on the south coast island of Terceira, lat. 38° 38′ N., lo 27° It is a station for ships between Port and the East Indies; but the harb exposed. It is the seat of the Porta general of the Azores and of the bisho but dirty; strongly fortified, and prote del at the foot of the Monte de Br military college and arsenal, seve literary societies, a cathedral and nu and from 10,000 to 15,000 inhab considerable export of wine, chee honey, This city furnished an asylum for the Port regency from 1830 till the taking of Oporto, in by Don Pedro.

ANGUILLA. See Eel.

ANGUILLA, or LITTLE SNAKE, one West India islands, so called, perhaps long and narrow figure. Next to An the most northerly of the Lesser An almost due east of the eastern extremit Rico, in lat. 18½° N., and in long. 63°— belongs to England, having an area of miles, and a population of about 3000. and wooded; but its cleared spots produce tobacco, and sugar. Its harbour, such as it is, is with reefs; but there is said to be good anch ground in the channel between A. and St Martin to the south.

ANGUIS. See Blind-worm.

A'NHALT, one of the oldest princip Germany, and now a state of the Germanic is situated on the Elbe, the Mulde, and th It consisted formerly of three duchies—A. A.-Bernburg, and A.-Köthen. A. contains square miles. Pop. (1872) 203,354. This s almost entirely surrounded by the Prussian tories, which intermix with it and divide portions. Dessau, Zerbst, Bernburg, and are the principal towns. The country fertile, producing wheat, flax, rape-see tobacco. Wine is produced on the Sa ture is the chief employment of the are generally Protestants. Part of duchy of A.-Bernburg approaching the tains possesses mineral wealth in ir mines. A. began to be an independen in the first half of the 13th c. repeatedly, in the course of its history, amongst branches of the reigning family. division into three duchies dates from th ning of the 17th c. It was divided o four parts, but the line of A.-Zerb extinct. The three duchies were indep other; but a family compact connected the r lines, which often led them to take public conjointly. Some of the princes of A. have

eminent in the political, military, and ecclesiastical history of Germany.

A'NHYDRITE, a mineral, consisting of anhydrous sulphate of lime, with some slight addition of sea-salt, appears in several varieties, as, 1. Granular; found in concretions with a foliated structure: 2. Fibrous; easily broken with a fracture in delicate parallel fibres: 3. Radiated; translucent: 4. Sparry, or Cube Spar: 5. Compact, of various shades, white, blue, gray, red. A. is converted into gypsum by combination with a certain proportion of water, and, where it is found in large masses, as on the south of the Harz Mountains near Osterode, the surface consists of gypsum. For building, A. has no great value, on account of its tendency to this change; but some of its varieties, especially the Siliciferous or Vulpenite, found at Vulpino, in Upper Italy, are used for sculptures, and take a fine polish. When burned and reduced to powder, it is used as a manure, resembling gypsum in its effects.

ANHYDROUS is the term applied to a chemical substance free from water. Thus, ordinary lime-shell as it comes from the kiln is simply lime (CaO) without any water, and is called *anhydrous* lime; but when water is thrown upon the lime-shell, the liquid disappears by combination with the lime, which very much increases in volume and becomes *hydrated* lime (CaO,HO). Again, ordinary stucco, before being used by the modeller, contains only lime and sulphuric acid ($CaOSO_3$), with no water, and is therefore anhydrous; but when water is added, and the stucco sets into its mould, it combines with two equivalents of water, and becomes hydrated stucco ($2HO,CaOSO_3$). Examples of A. substances are also found amongst liquids; thus, alcohol free from water is called A. Alcohol; and in like manner we speak of A. Acetic Acid, A. Nitric Acid, &c.

ANIMA, Cos, in Music; with animation, in a spirited manner.

A'NIMA MUNDI literally signifies 'the soul of the world.' The doctrine contained in this phrase was a favourite one with the early philosophers, who conceived that there resided in nature a force immaterial, yet not intelligential, which was the source of all physical and sentient life. Plato held it impossible for pure spirit—the atmosphere in which alone eternal and archetypal ideas could exist—to bear any relation whatever to matter, and he therefore supposed the latter to be operated upon by an inferior agency, the *A. M.* In the system of the Stoics, the *A. M.* was conceived to be the sole vital force in the universe; it usurped the office of pure spirit, and the doctrine became indistinguishable from Pantheism (q. v.). The notion does not seem to have been entertained by the schoolmen, but it reappears in the writings of Cornelius Agrippa, Paracelsus, and Van Helmont, and, in a modified form, was held by More, Cudworth, and others.

ANIMAL AND ANIMAL KINGDOM. According to a very old classification, all bodies are divided into three kingdoms—the mineral, the vegetable, and the animal. Animals and vegetables are again classed together as *organic*, in opposition to minerals, which are *inorganic*. Mineral bodies are masses of matter without internal movement, increasing by additions from without, having, with the exception of crystals, no determinate form or size, homogeneous throughout, and without relation of one part to another. Animals and plants, on the contrary, exist as individual beings, consisting of various organs. Their existence has a beginning and an end, and at their death they are replaced by other similar beings developed out of them.

The distinction between animals and plants strikes us at once in the higher classes; but among the lower organisms there are beings which have been at times classed among animals, at times among plants. The marks of animality which, with very few exceptions, have as yet been found to exist in all animals, are spontaneous motion, the existence of a special digesting apparatus (it may be only a mouth and a stomach), and sensation by means of nerves. The prevalence of nitrogen as a chemical ingredient, is another general characteristic of animals, while carbon prevails in plants. Most animals, though not all, possess the faculty of *loco*-motion (q. v.); it is wanting in some, as the oyster and polype. This locomotion is generally effected by appropriate organs, which are very different in the different classes of animals, as legs, wings, fins, suckers, cilia, &c., sometimes merely by muscular dilatations and contractions. In the higher animals, it is connected with a special system of bones and muscles, which becomes less and less prominent as we descend in the scale, and at last disappears.

Nutrition is effected by swallowing and digesting organic matter by means of a mouth, stomach, and intestinal canal. A part of the food—the *chyle*, namely, which results from digestion—is taken up by a system of vessels into the body of the animal, and thrown into the blood, into which, under the action of the air in the lungs or gills, it is converted; the other part is excreted by a second orifice, except in some of the lowest forms where the mouth forms the exit. For keeping up a circulation of the blood, which must be brought to all parts of the body for the purpose of nourishment, there is provided a system of blood-vessels and, in the higher classes, a heart. See HEART. Nutrition may, to some extent, take place also by absorption from the external surface; but this is not considerable except, perhaps, among the lowest classes of animals. The substances that serve for the nutrition of an animal are either vegetable or animal, and the mouth and other organs are adapted accordingly. The number of omnivorous animals is small, and among these, man has the greatest latitude of choice.

Propagation or reproduction takes place in a great variety of ways: among the lowest forms, by division, gemmation or budding, and cell-germs; among the more perfect, by generation between two individuals of different sex. Of the two sexes, the male is generally distinguished by superior size and strength, more brilliant colouring, larger appendages, and often stronger voice. Besides male and female, there are among some animals (bees and ants) neuters. In some of the lower kinds, the individuals are hermaphrodite. See REPRODUCTION.

All animals develop gradually, and most of them go through one or more changes of form or metamorphoses. This is most marked among insects which go through the four stages of egg, larva, pupa, and perfect insect. The class of reptiles with naked skins also go through changes, though less striking. In the higher animals, these transitions through a series of forms take place in the ovum, or before birth. In some cases, the embryo comes to maturity after the exclusion of the ovum (birds and amphibia); in others (mammalia), within the body of the mother: animals of the last kind are called viviparous. The reproduction of some intestinal worms is peculiar; the egg of the mother-animal produces a sexless creature—a nurse—the eggs laid by which reproduce the original animal. A somewhat similar peculiarity is observed in some insects, as Aphides. See APHIS.

The life of animals is dependent on many conditions. Among these rank warmth, atmospheric air, and moisture, along with sufficient nourishment.

Light also is essential to many, though most of the colourless animals of the lower classes can dispense with it. With regard to outward pressure, the limits are wide, as is seen in the condor soaring to a height of 20,000 feet, and the whale descending to a depth of 1000 feet below the surface of the sea. But individual animals are confined to much narrower limits; often to one circumscribed range of climate, one species of food, one medium. To go beyond those limits, though it does not always occasion death, yet gives rise to various degrees of degeneracy, from which even man with all his powers of adaptation is not exempt.

Most animals give more or less strong indications of mind: in those high in the scale, this mental life rises to intellect capable of cultivation, while, in the lower classes, it appears as instinct confined to a few operations. For communicating with the outer world, vertebrated animals are provided with a nervous system in connection with a central brain—a *cerebral* nervous system; the *ganglionic* nervous system of the lower animals seems to serve this purpose less and less as we descend in the scale. The impressions from without are received immediately by the organs of sense, which become more numerous and complex the higher the animal stands in the scale; among the highest, five senses are usually distinguished, which are variously developed in different species—in none so harmoniously as in man.

Nocturnal sleep, being the means of gathering strength for the activity of the waking hours, stands in intimate relation to that activity, and therefore is wanting in beings low in the scale. Winter sleep, or hybernation (q. v.), serves many animals instead of migration, to enable them to outlive the cold and hunger of winter. Analogous is the summer sleep of serpents and crocodiles, which lie buried in the dry mud during the summer droughts of the tropics.

Of the other vital manifestations of animals may be mentioned, the faculty of giving *light* (glowworm, medusæ), and that of developing *electricity*, both possessed only by a few; also *voice*, belonging almost exclusively to vertebrate animals, and of them chiefly to the warm-blooded.

A very remarkable peculiarity occurs in some of the lowest kinds of animals, in what may be termed a composite life; individuals which separately manifest many of the powers of life, being united in part of their frame, many of them together into one living mass. Of this, examples are numerous among the Zoophytes (q. v.), some of which have already been noticed in the article ALCYONIUM.

Apart from the transforming and modifying influence of man, the animals and plants of a district—its *fauna* and *flora*—give it life and character. To man himself, animals stand in a variety of relations of the highest importance. Some are directly useful to him for labour, food, the chase, &c.; others hurtful, as destroyers of vegetation, as beasts of prey, as vermin, or by their poisons.—The number of known species of animals amounts at present to about 130,000. To describe and classify these on scientific principles, is the object of Zoology (q. v.).

ANIMAL CHEMISTRY. The object of researches into the chemical nature of animal substances is twofold: First, to classify the proximate or immediate component ingredients of the animal body, study their properties, their mutual relations and metamorphoses, and the ultimate elements of which they are composed; second, to investigate the processes that go on during the elaboration and assimilation of new materials, and the wearing out and excretion of old—processes that, taken together, constitute nutrition, or the vegetative side of animal life. Without a pretty complete knowledge of the first part, no successful researches can be made in the second; and it is chiefly owing to the great progress that has been made within the last thirty years in the knowledge of the chemical properties of the animal compounds containing nitrogen, that we owe the recent advance in our knowledge of the chemical processes of life. That advance is not the less decided that we are still far from a complete understanding of them. The general laws of chemistry are now traced into the province of organic nature much further than formerly, and the abrupt partition between the two is removed. It is still acknowledged that these laws operate differently within the sphere of organic life, from what they do without; but instead of resting contented with saying, that owing to the vital force this could not be otherwise, the aim is now to trace the why and wherefore of the modified action as far as possible.

In the animal body, two classes of substances may be distinguished: those that properly compose the body, and those that are on the way either into it or out of it. The former, or actual components of the body, are, again, of two kinds: 1. Substances that compose the actual tissues of the organs, and in which the vital functions seem properly to inhere; the substances, namely, of muscle, of nerve, of brain, of membranes, sinews, and the organic part of the bones. All these agree in consisting chiefly of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen, with usually minute proportions of sulphur and phosphorus. But in respect of their mode of composition, they fall into two classes—those that yield gelatine on boiling, and those that do not. To the former belong the substance of the cartilages, bones, sinews, and skin; to the latter, the fibrin of the muscles and of the blood corpuscles, the albumen of the nerves and blood, the caseine of milk, &c. These last are the so-called compounds of proteine (q. v.). In the living tissues, all these matters are combined with about 90 per cent. of water. 2. Besides the above, which are the real animalised or vital substances, the animal body contains substances which are merely deposited in the cells and interstices of the former for imparting colour, solidity, elasticity, &c. Of this kind are fat, the earthy matter of the bones, pigment, &c. Whether the minute quantities of common salt and of phosphates that are found in all parts of animals essentially belong to the constitution of the substance they are associated with, is not yet made out, but it is extremely probable they do; at all events, they play a very important part.

The substances that are on their way into and out of the body, form on the one hand the contents of the digestive organs, and on the other those of the organs of excretion. The vascular system forms the means of communication between both and the substance of the body, and the blood is the carrier of all that enters that substance or leaves it. In the digestive organs, accordingly, we find, along with the unaltered materials of the food, the various products of their digestion, and at last the useless refuse, not absorbable by the vascular system, and the various fluids—some acid, some alkaline—added to the food to effect its digestion, such as the saliva, gastric juice, and bile.

The matters prepared in the digestive organs for being taken up into the blood, either enter the venous system directly, or get there by first going through the lymphatic system. This last contains a fluid which is chemically very like the blood, but colourless—the chyle, namely. This fluid and the blood contain the so-called proteine compounds derived from the food, partly in solution, and partly solid in the blood corpuscles. Arterial blood contains, besides, all those salts and other substances that must be supplied for the nourishment of the

various organs. The venous system, again, which brings back the blood from the different parts to the central organs, is laden with all the matters that are no longer of use, and must therefore be carried to the chief excretory organs—the skin, liver, and kidneys. The dark colour of venous blood indicates that its components have undergone a change. But all blood that is on its way both to and from the parts of the body, before it can impart nourishment, must pass through the lungs, an organ in which it is brought into extensive contact with atmospheric air, and undergoes a process of oxidation, producing the following palpable results: The disappearance of a portion of the inhaled oxygen, and the substitution of water and carbonic acid in its place; the transformation of the dark venous blood and of the chyle into red arterial blood; lastly, the development of heat. Breathing, then, contributes to nutrition by making the blood fit for that purpose; it is an excretory process, inasmuch as it burns out useless matters and separates them in the form of gases; and at the same time it produces heat, without which life could not go on.

Sweat, urine, bile, and emanations from the skin and lungs, contain only products of the decomposition of effete animal substances; many of these products are highly interesting in a chemical point of view, especially urea, uric acid, and bile. It is clear, then, that comparative investigation of the blood in its different states, of the excretions and secretions, can alone give any knowledge of the condition of the vegetative side of the organism; and, accordingly, this kind of investigation has in recent times become of the highest importance for pathology and diagnosis. See Liebig's famous work on *A. C.*, translated by Gregory, and the excellent *Lehrbuch der Physiologischen Chemie* (3d ed., Leip. 1854), by Lehmann.

ANIMAL FLOWER. See ACTINIA, and ANEMONE (SEA).

ANIMAL HEAT is that generated in animal bodies by certain of the changes constantly taking place within them. A certain amount of heat is necessary to the proper performance of the functions of the body, and any material increase or decrease of it from the healthy standard endangers life. The air and other objects surrounding the body being in almost all cases colder than it, are constantly stealing part of its warmth; but within the system there are processes incessantly going on which produce more heat. When the heat thus generated is not dissipated fast enough, so that the body tends to become warmer than the due degree, the accumulation finds vent in perspiration, the evaporation of which carries off the excess. The power of producing heat is in relation to the climate in which the animal is accustomed to live. It is weaker in warm climates than in cold, and consequently, when an animal is removed from a warm to a cold climate, it frequently pines and dies. In most fish and reptiles, commonly termed '*cold-blooded* animals,' the temperature differs but little from that of the water or air in which they live; the same is the case with hybernating animals during the latter part of their torpid condition.

Man has the power, to a greater degree than other warm-blooded animals, of adapting himself to changes of surrounding temperature. His average standard of heat is about 98·4° F., varying with circumstances, being slightly higher after exercise or a hearty meal, and at noonday than at midnight. It also varies in diseased conditions of the body, rising to 106° in a fever, and falling as low as 77° in cholera. But if the body be in a healthy condition, the standard of heat is maintained, even when the person is exposed to intense heat, as in the case of men attending furnaces; one can for a short time be exposed to 350° of heat without materially raising the temperature of his own body, although he will lose weight by the copious perspiration necessary for the evaporation.

Throughout the animal kingdom, the power of generating heat bears a close relation to the activity or sluggishness of the animal. Thus, many birds, which are perpetually in action, have the highest temperature (100°—112°); and the swallow and quick-flighted birds, higher than the fowls which keep to the ground. The higher the standard of A. H., the less able is the animal to bear a reduction of its temperature; if that of a bird or mammal be reduced 30°, the vital changes become slower, more languid, and death ensues. Fish and frogs, on the other hand, may be enclosed in ice and yet survive.

The sources of animal heat in the living body are the chemical and physical changes continually taking place. The chemical changes are those occurring in respiration, digestion, nutrition, secretion, and muscular and nervous action. It has been shewn experimentally that when those functions are performed there is an increase of temperature. Heat is, no doubt, also produced by any movements causing friction. The ultimate sources of heat are (1) the energy locked up in the food consumed; and (2) in the oxygen inhaled in respiration. The food, in the processes of digestion, is split up into its constituent parts; these are absorbed, and may become parts of the textures and fluids of the body for a time; and these textures, in the performance of their functions, disintegrate, become redissolved, and are then eliminated by various channels from the body: all of these processes generate heat. On the other hand, the oxygen of the air, by uniting, in the process of respiration, with the carbon or hydrogen of certain of the tissues or of the food, produces carbonic acid and water, and thus also heat is generated. If we estimated the potential energy of the food consumed and of the oxygen inhaled in respiration as so much heat, and also estimated, as near accuracy as possible, the amount of heat produced in the various processes above referred to, it would be found that this latter amount of heat would be less than that derivable from the food and oxygen. This deficiency is accounted for by the work done by the body, partly as internal mechanical work, such as the movements of heart and lungs, &c., and partly as external mechanical work, such as the movements of the body in the performance of the daily activities of life. This view of animal heat, which is now universally adopted, was first put forward by J. R. Mayer of Heilbronn, in 1842—1845, and numerous applications of it have since been made to many physiological and pathological phenomena.

ANIMAL MAGNETISM or **MESMERISM** is a supposed influence or emanation by means of which one person can act upon another, producing wonderful effects upon his body, and controlling his actions and thoughts. It was fancied to have some analogy to the magnetism of the loadstone, and hence its name. The term has been used to group together a multitude of manifestations deemed of a wonderful kind, and which have given rise to an amount of delusion and credulity hardly exemplified on any other subject. Electro-biology, Odylism, Table-turning, Spirit-rapping, Table-talking, Spiritualism, have been classed as only modifications of the same phenomena. The art of inducing the magnetic state, as practised by its discoverer, Mesmer, involved the use of apparatus—the *baquet* or magnetic tub, iron rods, &c.; but the more common means have been

passes made by the hands of the magnetiser from the head of the 'subject' or patient downward, or simply making him fix his eyes on the operator. He then generally feels a creeping sensation stealing over the surface, and shortly falls into the mesmeric sleep—a state more or less resembling somnambulism. About one person in ten is found capable of being thus affected, to a greater or less extent. While in this state, the functions of the body are liable to be much affected; the pulsations of the heart and the respiration are quickened or retarded, and the secretions altered, and that chiefly at the will of the operator; at his direction, the limbs are made rigid, or become endowed with unnatural strength; one liquid tastes as any other, and is hot or cold, sweet or bitter, as the subject is told; in short, every thought, sensation, and movement of the subject obeys the behest of the mesmeriser. According to the mesmeric theory, the nervous energy of the operator has overpowered that of the subject, as a powerful magnet does a weak one, and the two are in *rapport*, as it is termed. In some cases, the mesmeric trance assumes the form of *clairvoyance*. See SOMNAMBULISM.

It has been clearly established, however, that the notion of a force of any kind whatever proceeding in such cases from a person or from a magnetising apparatus, is a delusion. The effects, whatever they are, must have their cause somewhere else. Where it is to be looked for was indicated, though not followed up, as early as 1785, in the report of the commissioners, one of whom was Franklin, appointed by the king of France to examine the pretensions of Mesmer. They report that 'on blindfolding those who seemed to be most susceptible to the influence (of this agent), all its ordinary effects were produced when nothing was done to them but when they imagined they were magnetised, while none of its effects were produced when they were really magnetised, but imagined nothing was done; that when brought under a magnetised tree (one of Mesmer's modes of operating), nothing happened if the subjects of the experiment thought they were at a distance from the tree, while they were immediately thrown into convulsions if they believed they were near the tree, although really at a distance from it; and that, consequently, *the effects actually produced were produced purely by the imagination.*'

But this part of the science of human nature—the reflex action of the mental upon the physical—had not then been sufficiently studied, and is not now widely enough known to render the conclusion of the reporters a satisfactory explanation of the phenomena; and the fallacies of mesmerism, though subjected since to many similar exposures (Dr Falkoner of Bath, e. g., annihilated the Patent Metallic Tractors of Perkin, by making wooden ones exactly like them, which produced exactly the same effects), have constantly revived in some shape or other. One chief cause of the inveteracy of the delusion is, that the opponents of mesmerism do not distinguish between denying the theory of the mesmerists and the facts which that theory pretends to explain; and have been too ready to ascribe the whole to delusion and fraud. It thus happens that the most sceptical often become all of a sudden the most credulous. Finding that things do actually happen which they cannot explain, and had been accustomed to denounce as impostures, they rush to the other extreme, and embrace not only the facts but the theory, and call this, too, believing the evidence of their senses. Now, the reality of the greater part of the manifestations appealed to by the mesmerist must be admitted, though we deny his explanation of them; and even where their reality must be denied, it does not follow that the mesmerist is not sincere in believing them; there is only greater room than in any other case for suspecting that he has deceived himself.

The first to give a really scientific direction t investigation of appearances of this class wa Braid, a surgeon in Manchester (see HYPN who detaches them altogether from the sensi power exerted by one individual over anoth metallic discs or magnets, and traces the whole to the brain of the subject, acted on by *suggestion*, a principle long known to psychologists, though never made so prominent as it ought to be. The subject has since been ably handled in a paper in the *Quarterly Review* for September 1853 (said to be by Dr Carpenter). The reviewer traces the operation of this principle through the most ordinary actions, which no one thinks wonderful, up to the most miraculous of the so-called 'spiritual' manifestations.

Ideas become associated in our minds by habit or otherwise, and one being awakened by another, thus forming a train of thought; *internal* suggestion. But impressions from originate and modify these trains, consti *external* suggestion. While awake and in a condition, the *will* interferes with and dire trains of thought, selecting some ideas to upon, and comparing them with others present impressions. A comparative this selecting and comparing faculty, flow of ideas to its spontaneous activity. the state of mind called *reverie* or *abstr* dreaming and somnambulism, the will seem completely suspended; and unc suggestions the mind becomes a mere while external suggestions, if they act at upon a machine. These are well-know human constitution, and independent though their bearing upon it is obvious

Another fact of like bearing is, the t centrated attention on any object o intensifying the impression received. proceed so far, in morbid states of the system, that an idea or revived sensati vividness of a present impression, the evidence of the senses. Idea *dominant*, overriding the impressions world, and carrying themselves independently of the will, and even *sciousness* of the individual. These play a greater part in human a and than most are aware of. 'Exp acts powerfully on the bodily organs, makes the individual see and hear what he to see and hear, and, without his consci moves his muscles to bring it about. These recognised facts in the sciences of p psychology (see Carpenter's *Human* Dr Holland's *Chapters on Mental Phy*

These principles enable us to bring t explain a whole class of phenomena, rev ing, somnambulism, the inspiration of priestess, religious ecstasies, the ph ment attendant on 'revivals' and 'c belief in witchcraft, possession, and m and epidemic. And it is now held festations of mesmerism, electro-biol to the same class, and are to be acc same way.

The mesmeric state is produced by a steady gaz at some fixed object. There is no peculiar virtue i the eyes of the mesmerist or in a metallic disc, for a spot on the wall will produce the effect. The thing requisite is a monotonous and sustained concentration of the subject's will, producing weariness and vacancy of mind; and this resembles the condition

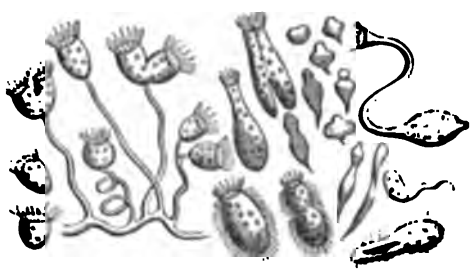
that induces reverie and sleep, and leaves the mind open to any suggestion, and at the command of any idea that may be made to possess him. But that he is governed by *his own ideas*, and not by the *will* of the mesmeriser, is clear. *No wish of the mesmeriser, or of any other person, was ever known to affect the 'subject' until it was conveyed to him by voice or otherwise;* while an idea suggested by putting his body in a certain posture, or by an accidental touch, has the same effect as a command. If he seems more subject to the will of the mesmeriser than of any one else, it is because he was previously impressed with that idea, and is therefore more awake to his suggestions. It is thus that the operator is enabled to play upon him as an instrument; to make him taste, feel, think, and act, and lose and recover memory, the power over his limbs, or even his own identity, as the operator dictates. We must content ourselves with thus indicating the principle of explanation, leaving to the reader to apply it in detail.

The manifestations connected with table-turning, such of them as are genuine, are explained by the operation of *expectant attention*. A number of individuals sit round a table with their hands resting upon it, having the idea in their minds that it will or may move, the *direction* of the expected movement being also agreed upon. Accordingly, if none of the party are very sceptical, it generally does move after a time, all declaring, and in perfect good faith, that they did not press. And yet it has been proved by a contrivance of Faraday, that there always is pressure, though without the will or consciousness of the performers; and this is only what is to be looked for from the involuntary effects of a dominant idea. This explanation does not suffice for many of the wonders *related* by believers to have happened. But all such are to be received with suspicion, and that without accusing the relaters of bad faith. The very disposition to look for something out of the usual course of nature makes them incapable, for the time, of distinguishing what actually happens from what they expect to happen. The mysterious indications of the divining-rod, and of an oscillating body, such as a ring, suspended from the finger, are all to be accounted for in a similar way: they result from unintentional muscular movement.

In spirit-rapping, a 'medium' puts, somehow, the questioner into communication with any departed spirit he may wish to consult, and the answer is given by raps, supposed to be made by the spirit. The questioner runs a pencil over the letters of the alphabet, and the raps are given as the pencil comes to the successive letters forming the words of the answer. Many of the 'media' in this species of 'spiritual' manifestation have been proved to be impostors, though it is not necessary to suppose that they are so in all cases; they may be imposing upon themselves, as witches did of old. There is no doubt, however, that the wonderful revelations they sometimes made of things known only to the questioner, arose from involuntary indications made by the latter—by his pausing, without knowing it, at the letters of the expected answer. A variation on the mode of communicating with the world of spirits, consists in putting the questions to a table, which is manipulated, as in table-turning, and gives its answers by rapping with one of its feet, or by rocking, as may be agreed upon. The agency of the *expectant ideas* of the performers in these cases is apparent in their own narratives. Would it not otherwise be strange that spirits should reveal heaven to Robert Owen as organised on his own social theory, while a Protestant clergyman finds the world of spirits pervaded by a horror of the pope (Rev. F. Gillson, *Table-talking*), and to pious Scotch Presbyterians every revelation regarding it is completely in accordance with Calvinistic theology.

Such are the views of those who, in regard to this matter, may be denominated the 'rationalist' party. But there is a large class of intelligent persons who hold the explanations above given to be insufficient. After making every allowance for deception, whether intentional or unintentional, they find many undoubted facts remaining which are quite beyond the scope of suggestion, dominant ideas, or any other of the usually received theories, physical or psychological. Phenomena of the character in question are, therefore, still the subject of earnest investigation on the part of many both in Great Britain and America. See SPIRITUALISM.

ANIMA'LCULE, a term etymologically applicable to any very small animal, and limited in actual use to those which are microscopical. Animalcules exist in prodigious numbers, and of many different kinds, their size being such that multitudes of them find ample space for all the movements of an active life within a single drop of water; and they abound almost wherever there is moisture, at least wherever organic matter is present. The *Monas crepusculus* of Ehrenberg is only 1-20000th part of a line, or 1-24,000th part of an inch in diameter. 'Take any drop of water from the stagnant pools around us,' says Professor Rymer Jones, 'from our rivers, from our lakes, or from the vast ocean itself, and

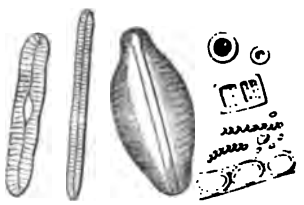


Various forms of Animalcules.

place it under the microscope; you will find therein countless living beings moving in all directions with considerable swiftness, apparently gifted with sagacity, for they readily elude each other in the active dance they keep up. . . . . Increase the power of your glasses, and you will soon perceive, inhabiting the same drop, other animals, compared to which the former were elephantine in their dimensions, equally vivacious and equally gifted. Exhaust the art of the optician, strain your eyes to the utmost, until the aching sense refuses to perceive the little quivering movement that indicates the presence of life, and you will find that you have not exhausted Nature in the descending scale.' Animals belonging to different classes are, however, microscopical, and the term A. is either applied to them all with reference to their mere size, or it is restricted to those which received from Müller, with whom the scientific study and classification of them may be said to have begun, the name of *Animalcula Infusoria*, and which are by Cuvier made the fifth and last class, under the name *Infusoria*, of his fourth great division of the animal kingdom, *Radiata*. See INFUSORIA. The name *Infusoria*, indeed, etymologically considered, is not more appropriate than *Animalcula*, perhaps not quite so much so, as only a small proportion of the animals of this class are actually found in infusions, but it continues to be generally employed by zoologists. Attempts have been made to classify them according to their structure, and to assign them their proper places accordingly in the

general arrangement of the animal kingdom; and one part of them have been formed into a class under the name *Rotifera* (q. v.), regarded as probably belonging to the Articulated division; another part, formed into a class called *Polygastrica* (q. v.), consisting of the simpler kinds, have been in like manner somewhat doubtfully referred to the Radiated division. Agassiz unhesitatingly describes the class *Infusoria* as 'an unnatural combination of the most heterogeneous beings.' He regards many as locomotive *Algæ;* and of those which are true animals, he expresses the opinion that many are merely the chrysalis states of other animals. There still remain, however, many kinds which are perfect animals.

Among the most remarkable discoveries of modern science must be reckoned that of *fossil animalcules*, in such abundance as to form the principal part of extensive strata. This discovery was made by Ehrenberg, who found the *Polierschiefer* (Polishing-slate or *Tripoli*) of Bilin to be almost entirely composed of the silicious shields of a minute fossil A., the length of one of which is about $\frac{1}{288}$th of a



Fossil Remains of Animalcules which form Tripoli.

line, so that about 23 millions of animalcules must have gone to form a cubic line, and 41,000 millions to form a cubic inch of the rock. Ehrenberg succeeded in detecting the formation of similar strata in deposits of mud at the bottom of lakes and marshes, the mud swarming with living animalcules, probably in their turn to be fossilised. The *Bergmehl* or Mountain Meal of Sweden and other parts of Europe, which is sometimes used as an article of food, is entirely composed of the remains of animalcules; not merely, however, of their silicious shields, for it contains a considerable percentage of dry animal matter. Some animalcules prefer waters impregnated with iron, and their death gives rise to an ochreous substance, in which iron is a principal ingredient.

ANIMALS, Cruelty to. England has the honour of first making this a distinct subject of public attention by the formation of societies for its prevention, and by legislative enactments making it punishable. The movement has now extended into France and Germany.

Benevolence to A. is a result and a proof of extending civilisation. It is the carrying out to its just limits the principle of sympathy, which first appears when the savage ceases to think exclusively of himself and learns to identify his tribe with himself. It is this principle of sympathy, only carried further, that, under Christianity, unites all the tribes and races of men in one family. And it only requires cultivation of the faculty of sympathy generally, and the direction of the attention to what the lower animals have in common with man—sensibility, namely, to pain—to make any one feel, that needlessly to inflict that pain, is to sin against his own nature, and therefore a crime. This ought to be a special object of attention in the training of children. Besides the cruelty to beasts of burden and domestic animals arising from cupidity, many, especially children, torture creatures from thoughtlessness and ignorance. This, therefore, is one of the instances where instruction of the head made to mend the heart. It deserves t... marked, that the mere extinction of life necessarily constitute cruelty. There cruelty in prolonging the life of an a... taking it away. It is the infliction of ... or restraint that is the essence of cruelty to

Animals, Cruelty to (in Law). This is ... against the criminal law, and has freque... late formed the subject of legislation, ... act of parliament, the 12 and 13 Vict. c. ... in 1849), being that which at present ... law of England on the subject. By t ... is provided, that if any person shall ... ill-treat, over-drive, abuse, or torture ... any h... mare, gelding, bull, ox, cow, heifer, steer, ... mule, ass, sheep, lamb, hog, pig, sow, goat, ... cat, or any other domestic animal, he shall ... a sum not exceeding £5 for every such ... recoverable before a justice of the peace in a ... mary way; and if by any such misconduct he ... injure the animal, or any person or pro... further sum not exceeding £10 to the o... person injured. The acts also inflict pena... the case of conveying cattle by railway ... water-supply, &c., causing unnecessary ... suffering; and also in the case of bull-... cock-fighting, and the like, and makes a ... humane provisions for the regulation of the ... of slaughtering horses and other cattle not ... for butcher's meat.

Formerly, in Scotland, this offence was pun... at common law—that is, according to the ... legal principle, common law as distinguished ... *statute* law—and so late as the year 1828, a ... was convicted there of affixing a stob, or ... armed with iron nails, to the tail of a ... which the animal was wounded in ... and punished with two months' ... But the Scotch law at that time did ... conduct so much as an act of cruelty ... injured, as of 'malicious mischief,' as it ... and, in fact, regarded such treatment of ... simply an offence against *property*. An ... liament, however, passed in the year 1 ... law on this subject in Scotland on the ... as it is in England. The act referred to ... provisions similar to those enacted by the 12 ... Vict. for England; and in both acts it is de... that the word 'animal' shall be taken to m... horse, mare, gelding, bull, ox, cow, heifer, ... mule, ass, sheep, lamb, hog, pig, sow, g... or any other domestic animal.'

ANIMALS, Worship of. The pra... worshipping animals, as well as certain ... stones, prevailed among many of the n... quity, and is still common among bar... That animals should be held sacred ... worship, need excite no surprise when ... mind the origin of polytheistic wo... They are manifestations of power; ... because actuated by impulses differing ... of man; and often, by their greater ... sense and more unerring instincts, ... possess supernatural knowledge. Besid... general ground, various animals have been ... ciated with the gods as emblems and in ... But a more important source of the ... regard bestowed on animals, is the b... and spirits in general, often take the ... mals, either temporarily or as a perma... The doctrine of the transmigration of ... confined to India. Kindred notions, ... perhaps reduced to system and formally ex... are all but universal; they seem as ind...

; of Africa as on the banks of the Ganges. s a manifestation of the soul of Osiris— , like all the other Egyptian deities, a - t the sacred bull Apis was worshipped .. pt. When the Spaniards first visited — South America, they found a ludicrous l-worship practised by the natives on .. Cumana (Venezuela). 'They held the be, as they said, "the lord of the waters," efore they were very compassionate with it, led by any accident to kill a toad; though, en found the case with other idolaters, they ly, in times of difficulty, to compel a favour- ing from their pretended deities, for they wn to keep these toads with care under an essel, and to whip them with little switches was a scarcity of provisions and a want another superstition worthy of note was, n they hunted down any game, before , they were wont to open its mouth and some drops of maize-wine, in order that which they judged to be the same as that night give notice to the rest of its species ool entertainment which it had met with, lead them to think that if they came too, participate in this kindly treatment.'—

, a resin exuding from the trunk of the *Courbaril*, a large tree of the natural order ae, sub-order *Cæsalpineæ*, a native of New d Brazil. It somewhat resembles copal, are easily soluble in alcohol.—The name A., is, however, also given in Britain to sed in India copal, the produce of *Vateria* a tree of the natural order *Dipteraceæ*; e copal of Madagascar is produced by a *verrucosa*, and that of Brazil in great everal species of *Hymenæa*, a tree of which also regarded as the probable source of the Mexico.

N8. See Anoor.

E (*Pimpinella Anisum*), an annual plant natural order *Umbelliferæ*. The genus s has compound umbels, usually without . Two species are natives of Britain; commonly known by the name of Burnet , and have no properties of import- - is a native of Egypt. It is an annual stem is 1½ to 2 feet high, dividing into nder branches; the lower leaves roundish- ped, divided into three lobes, and deeply es of the stem pinnate, with wedge- afleta. The umbels are large and loose, lowish-white flowers. It is much culti- Egypt, Syria, Malta, and Spain, and Germany, especially in the district around where a large quantity of the seed is produced. Attempts were made, more years ago, to cultivate it in England; but rs are seldom warm enough to bring it to . It is occasionally sown in gardens for or for seasoning. A.-seed (*aniseed*) is a condiment and in the preparation of also in medicine as a stimulant stomachic, e flatulence, &c., particularly in infants; as been used in pulmonary affections. It aromatic, agreeable smell, and a warm, taste. It contains a volatile oil, called ., which is nearly colourless, has the d taste of the seed, and is employed for purposes. One hundred-weight of seed bout two pounds of oil, which is obtained lation; but at Erfurt the oil is made from s and leaves, the whole plant being aroma- tic. *A.-water*—water flavoured with the oil, and sugared—is much used in Italy as a cooling drink.

Star Anise, or Chinese Anise, is the fruit of *Illicium anisatum*, a small tree of the natural order *Magnoliaceæ*. See Illicium. It receives its name from the star-like form of the fruit, which consists of a number (6—12) of hard, woody, one-seeded carpels. The tree has evergreen leaves, somewhat like those of the common laurel. The whole plant is carminative, and is used by the Chinese as a stomachic and as a spice in their cookery. The qualities of the fruit so much resemble those of the common anise, that it may be used instead of it, and by distillation it yields an oil which is very generally substituted for oil of anise, and is imported into Europe in considerable quantity, to be used instead of it. Star aniseed is also imported, chiefly from China and Singapore.

ANJOU, a former province in the north-west of France, of about 3080 square miles in extent, now forming the department of Maine-et-Loire, and small parts of the departments of Indre-et-Loire, Mayenne, and Sarthe. Its capital was Angers. The ancient inhabitants of A. were the *Andegavi*, who long and resolutely resisted the Roman arms.—The male line of the Counts of A., who took their name from it, having become extinct in 1060, their title and possessions passed by the female line to the powerful House of Gatinais; and from one of this family, Godfrey, Count of A., sprung the Plantagenets. He conquered the greater part of Normandy; assumed the title of duke; and in 1127 married Matilda, the daughter of Henry I. of England, and widow of the Emperor Henry V. Through her, his son inherited the English throne, which he ascended in 1154 as Henry II. A. now became one of the possessions of the kings of England; but in 1204, the French acquired it by fortune of war; and it was bestowed as a fief upon Philip, the son of Louis VIII., and afterwards upon his brother Charles, who became the founder of that House of A. which gave kings to Naples, Sicily, and Hungary. Charles II. of Naples gave A. to his daughter Margaret on her marriage with Charles of Valois, the son of Philip IV. Her son ascended the throne of France as Philip VI. in 1328. King John, in 1360, made A. a duchy, and gave it to his son Louis, and he succeeding to the crown of Naples, it remained a possession of the kings of Naples till the overthrow of that dynasty, when René II., the last of his family, was deprived of it by Louis XI., who permanently annexed it to the French crown in 1481. Since that time, it has merely given an honorary title to princes of the royal family. The last who bore it was the grandson of Louis XIV., who became Philip V. of Spain.

ANKARSTROM, John Jacob, the assassin of Gustavus III., king of Sweden, born in 1761, the son of a lieutenant-colonel. He came very early to court, in the capacity of a page, and next entered the army; but having obtained the rank of captain, left it in 1783; married and settled in the country. He was a man of violent feelings and rough manners, and much opposed to the measures taken by the king for curtailing the power of the senate and of the nobles. Implicated in certain intrigues in the island of Gothland, he was accused of treason, but released for want of positive evidence. His hatred to the king was increased by the harsh usage he met with in the course of his trial. In 1790, he went to Stockholm, and, together with General Pechlin, Counts Horn and Ribbing, and others, planned the assassination of the king. A. begged that the execution of the deed might be left to him; but Horn and Ribbing disputing the point, they drew lots, and the lot fell

upon A. In 1792, the king convoked the Diet at Gefle, and the conspirators hoped upon that occasion to carry out their purpose; but being thwarted in this, they had to wait till the 15th of March, when Gustavus was to attend a bal masqué, during which A. shot at and mortally wounded him. He was instantly apprehended, and at once confessed his crime, stoutly denying, however, that he had any accomplices. On the 29th of April, he was condemned to death, publicly flogged for three successive days, and then beheaded. He went to the scaffold with perfect composure, rejoicing to his last moment in the success of his crime.

ANKO'BAR, the capital of the kingdom of Shoa, in Abyssinia, is built 8198 feet above the sea-level, on the ascent of the table-land, in lat. 9° 34′ N., long. 39° 35′ E. The higher portion of the town is fortified in a very, primitive way, by means of a palisade constructed of stakes, with intertwisted branches of trees. The royal palace, unlike the most of the buildings, which are chiefly of wood, is built of stone and mortar, although the roof is thatched. The vegetation around the place is extremely rich, and the air is both cool and pure, so that A. is a very agreeable residence, and is consequently favoured with the presence of the court during a portion of the year. Pop. 10,000.

ANKYLO'SIS (Gr. *ankulōsis*, bending or crooking; *ankulē*, stiff-joint), is a term used in surgery to imply a stiffness in any joint. It is usually the result of disease, which, having destroyed the articular cartilages, leaves two bony surfaces opposed to each other. The reparative powers of nature cause a union to take place by means of granulations between them. This bond of union may become osseous, so as to render the joint perfectly rigid, or it may continue membranous, allowing of a certain amount of motion. Some joints, especially the elbow, are very apt to become ankylosed; and in the knee or hip-joints, this osseous A. is reckoned the most favourable termination to disease, as the limb can then afford a rigid support for the trunk. Joints, stiff through a membranous A., may be forcibly bent, and the bond of union ruptured, so as to restore mobility, or allow of their being placed in a convenient position. A. of the joints between the ribs and the vertebræ is common in advanced age; and there are some cases on record of universal A. of all the joints. A case occurred in 1716 of a child only twenty-three months old with all its joints thus stiffened; and there are in various museums specimens of adult bodies in this condition.

ANN, or **ANNAT**, in Scotch law, signifies the half year's stipend payable for the vacant half year after the death of a clergyman, to which his family or nearest of kin have right, under an act of the Scottish parliament passed in the year 1672. It is a right that does not belong to the clergyman himself, but to his next of kin absolutely, and therefore can neither be assigned or disposed of by him nor attached for his debts. Compare ANNATES.

ANNA, St, according to tradition, was the daughter of Mathan, priest of Bethlehem, and the wife of St Joachim. After twenty-one years of barrenness, she is said to have given birth to the Virgin Mary, the mother of the Saviour. Nothing positive is known regarding her life; her name does not occur in the Scriptures, nor even in the writings of the Fathers during the first three centuries. The first who mentions her is St Epiphanius, in the 4th c.; but towards the 8th, she was all but universally invoked. Her body was believed to have been transferred from Palestine to Constantinople in 710 A.D.; and her head to Chartres, by Louis de Blois, about 1210 A.D. The inhabitants of Duren (Duchy of Juliers, Germany) also pretend [illegible] St A.; and a third is believed to [illegible] the church at Ursitz, in the diocese [illegible] although numerous other churches cla[illegible] equally favoured. The Roman Catholic [illegible] a festival in her honour on the 26th of [illegible] Greek, on the 9th of December. In Austria, [illegible] and other Catholic countries, this festival [illegible] great importance. In honour of St A., a fra[illegible] called the Fraternity of St A., was instituted [illegible] 13th c. After the Reformation, it was organ[illegible] anew by the Jesuits; and in modern times, has manifested some vitality in Bavaria and Catholic Switzerland.

ANNA CARLOVNA, regent of I[illegible] the minority of her son Ivan, was the [illegible] Charles Leopold, Duke of Mecklenb[illegible] Catharine, sister of the Russian [illegible] Ivanovna (q. v.). In 1739, she [illegible] Ulric, Duke of Brunswick-Wolfen[illegible]. Ivan, born August 20, 1740, was nominated Empress Anna Ivanovna as her successor. [illegible] was done at the instigation of Biron (q. v.), [illegible] empress's favourite, whose object was to secure [illegible] regency for himself; and the empress, on her d[illegible] bed, actually appointed him regent, but he continued in power only for a short time. She died on October 28, 1740, and his overthrow took place on the 18th of November in the same year. A. C. now proclaimed herself Grand-duchess and R[illegible]nt of R[illegible]: but she shewed no capacity for ma[illegible] of a great country, spent her time [illegible] ments, and resigned herself very mu[illegible] ance of one of the ladies of her court, [illegible] Mengden. A conspiracy was formed by [illegible] desirous of raising to the throne Elizab[illegible] of Peter the Great and of Catharine, [illegible] accomplished on December 6, 1741. [illegible] Ivan was sent to the castle of Schli[illegible] he was afterwards murdered; Anna [illegible] band were condemned to imprisonment [illegible] conveyed to Cholmogory, a town upon [illegible] the Dwina, near the White Sea. Here she [illegible] children, and died in childbed in 1745. [illegible] band remained a prisoner for thirty-nine ye[illegible] died in 1780.

ANNA COMNE'NA, a learned Byza[illegible] cess, author of one of the most valua[illegible] to be found in the collection of the [illegible] historians, was the daughter of the Emperor [illegible] (Comnenus), and was born on December [illegible] She received the best education that C[illegible] nople could give, and early displayed a [illegible] literary pursuits; but was also habit[illegible] childhood to the intrigues of the co[illegible] the last illness of her father, she [illegible] scheme, which her mother, the Emp[illegible] favoured, to induce him to disinherit [illegible] viving son, John, and to bestow the [illegible] Failing in this, she framed a co[illegible] life of her brother (1118); and [illegible] Nicephorus Bryennius, a Byzan[illegible] from timidity or virtuous princi[illegible] it, she passionately lamented that [illegible] born a man, and upbraided him as ha[illegible] of a woman. Her brother spared [illegible] punished her by confiscation of her p[illegible] however, he soon after ge[illegible] appointed and ashamed, she [illegible] court, and sought enjoyment in [illegible] death of her husband (1137), she [illegible] vent, where she died in 1148. [illegible] life of father, entitled *Annæ Comnenæ Alexiados li* is full of professions of careful inquiry and a re[illegible] regard for truth, but 'the perpetual strain

gyric and apology awakens our jealousy.' The style is characterised by an elaborate affectation of rhetoric. The best edition is that of Schopen (2 vols. 8vo, Bonn, 1839).

ANNA IVANOVNA, Empress of Russia, was on the 8th February 1693, and was the second ...er of Ivan, the elder brother of Peter the ... She was married in 1710 to the Duke of ...nd, the last of his race, who died in the ...ing year; and she obtained the duchy of ...rland for her favourite, Biron, a Courlander of ... birth. The throne of Russia was offered to ... by the Supreme Council on the death of Peter ... in 1730, on conditions which greatly limited power of the monarchy, but which she soon ...ke. Her elevation to it was very much owing ... the intrigues of the Chancellor Ostermann, who had had the charge of her education, but who ... disappointed in finding her not grateful and ...able, as he expected. For three years, however her rule was mild, humane, and equitable. ...y was reformed, greater liberty was allowed landed gentry, government debts were paid ...nd the poll-tax for the serfs lessened; but her mour, Biron, having determined to govern the ...ss as well as the empress, a sudden and deplor... change ensued. This man, a blood-thirsty and ...ious wretch, established something like a ... of terror through the land. He is said to have ...d not less than 20,000 persons to Siberia; ...es were knouted, had their tongues cut out, or broken alive on the wheel. Eleven thousand ...d in this way. Prince Basil Dolgoruki, and ... of his family, suffered the ignominy of the ...d. At length the health of the queen gave ... She died on October 28, 1740, and left the ...ne to her grand-nephew, Ivan, with Biron as ...t. See RUSSIA and BIRON.

ANNALS. These were at first books which contained a record, in chronological order, of the principal events occurring in one or more years. The name is derived from the oldest historical documents of the Romans, the *Annales Pontificum*, or *Annales Maximi*, the duty of drawing up which devolved upon the *Pontifex Maximus*; but these were all destroyed by the Gauls at the sack of Rome, some hundreds of years before the time of Christ. After the second Punic War, A. similar to the former ones were composed, not, however, by the priests, but by educated members of the Roman laity, such as Fabius Pictor, Calpurnius Piso, &c. At a still later period, the term was applied to any historical work that followed the order of time in its narrations, separating them off into single years —as, for instance, the *Annals* of Tacitus.

ANNAMABOE, a small seaport town, protected by a strong British fort, on the Gold Coast of Africa, in lat. 5° 5′ N., long. 1° 5′ W., 10 miles east of Cape Coast Castle. In 1807, the inhabitants took part ... the Fantees against the Ashantees, in consequence of which the town was attacked by an ...erwhelming force of the latter, and most of the ...bitants were slain. There is little trade in anything but gold. The present population is between ...nd 5000.

ANNAN, a seaport, and royal and parliamentary ..., in the county of Dumfries, on the river of the same name, near its entrance into the Solway Firth. ... neat and well built; among the chief industries ... tanning and bacon-curing. The river, which ...ds excellent salmon-fishing, is spanned by a ... of three arches, and is navigable to within ... mile of the town for vessels of 250 tons; ... considerably larger vessels can enter the ...uth of the river, half a mile below. There is regular communication by steamers with Liverpool and Whitehaven; and the Glasgow and Southwestern and Caledonian Railways connect the town with Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Carlisle. The burgh unites with Dumfries, &c., in returning one member to parliament. Pop. in 1871, 4631.

ANNANDALE. See DUMFRIESSHIRE.

ANNAPOLIS, a seaport of Nova Scotia, in lat. 44° 40′ N. Pop. about 500. It stands on a river of the same name that runs into the Bay of Fundy. Its harbour is excellent, though somewhat difficult of access. A. is the oldest European settlement to the north of the Gulf of Mexico, having been established, in 1604, by the French as the capital of their province of Acadia, under the name of Port Royal. Acadia having been conquered by the English in 1710, and ceded by the French in 1713, Port Royal changed its name in honour of Queen Anne, continuing to be the seat of government, till, in 1750, it was superseded by the newly founded city of Halifax on the outside coast of the peninsula—the new capital, with its better position and superior haven, having diverted most of the trade of the place. Since then, A. has rather decayed than otherwise; and it would have done so more decidedly, had not its river been navigable for boats during nearly the whole of its course of 70 miles.

ANNAPOLIS, a city and port of entry, founded in 1649, the capital of Maryland, U.S., and of the county of Anne Arundel. It stands on the south bank of the river Severn, 2 miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay, and 37 miles E. by N. of Washington, 30 miles S. by E. of Baltimore—lat. 38° 58′ 50″ N., long. 76° 29′ W. The A. and Elkridge Railway, 21 miles long, connects the port with Baltimore and Washington. A. contains an imposing state-house, a bank, and six churches. It is the seat of St John's College, and a naval academy, established in 1845, supported by the U. S. government. Three newspapers are supported by the citizens. Pop. (1870) 7363.

ANN ARBOR, a flourishing city of Michigan, capital of the county Washtenaw, on the Huron river and Michigan Central Railway, 38 miles west of Detroit. The state university, founded 1837, is attended by nearly 1000 students. It possesses a library of 9000 volumes, an astronomical observatory, and a capital chemical laboratory. The three colleges, literary, law, and medical, are well attended. The city has an active trade, and contains manufactories of wool, iron, ploughs, and flour. There are in it 8 churches, 1 national bank, 2 other banks, and a large union school. It supports 4 weekly newspapers. Pop. (1870) 7363.

ANNATES, or FIRST-FRUITS, in the ecclesiastical law of England, means the value of every spiritual living for a whole year (hence the name from the Latin word *annus*, a year), which the Pope, claiming the disposition of every spiritual benefice within Christendom, reserved out of every living. This impost was at first only levied from persons appointed to bishoprics; but it was afterwards extended to the inferior clergy. The value of these A. was calculated according to a rate made under the direction of Pope Innocent IV. (1253 A.D.), but which was afterwards increased by Pope Nicholas III. (1292 A.D.). The valuation of Pope Nicholas is still preserved in the Exchequer. This papal exaction was abolished by the act 25 Henry VIII. c. 20, and by an act passed in the following year of the same reign (26 Henry VIII. c. 3), the right to A. or First Fruits was annexed to the crown. The various statutes subsequently passed on this subject have all been consolidated by an act (the 1 Vict. c. 20), regulating the collection

of the moneys so levied. See FIRST FRUITS, QUEEN ANNE'S BOUNTY.

ANNATTO. See ARNOTTO.

ANNE OF AUSTRIA, daughter of Philip II. of Spain, was born in 1602, and in 1615 became the wife of Louis XIII. of France. The marriage was so far from being a happy one, that the royal pair lived for 23 years in a state of virtual separation—a result due chiefly to the influence of Cardinal Richelieu, whose fixed determination to humble the House of Austria, led him to spare no means for alienating the affection of Louis from his queen, by representing her as ever involved in the most dangerous conspiracies against his authority. The naturally grave and phlegmatic disposition of the queen was not calculated to counteract the hostile influence of the great minister. On the death of the king in 1643, A. became queen-regent, and evinced her discernment by choosing as her minister Cardinal Mazarin, by whose able management the young king (Louis XIV.) came, on attaining his majority, into possession of a throne firmly established on the ruins of contending parties. The character of A. had much influence in moulding that of her son. She displayed the same cold and haughty temper, combined with the power to charm by a condescending grace, the same love of pomp and power, and the same skill in the choice of able instruments, thus compensating for the want of genuine personal greatness. She died in 1666. Two curious personal peculiarities of this queen are mentioned by biographers—her antipathy to roses, so strong that while passionately fond of flowers and perfumes, she could not endure even the picture of a rose; and the extraordinary delicacy of her skin, which made Mazarin remark, that 'if her majesty were condemned to the infernal regions, her hell would be to sleep in brown hollands.'

ANNE, Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and the last British sovereign of the House of Stuart, was born at Twickenham, near London, on 6th February 1664. She was the second daughter of James II. of England, and VII. of Scotland (who at the time of her birth was Duke of York), by his first wife, Anne Hyde, the daughter of the famous Clarendon. When she was about seven years of age, her mother died; and her father soon after professed himself a member of the Church of Rome; but he permitted his daughters to be educated in the principles of the Church of England, to which A. always retained an ardent if not a very enlightened attachment—seldom manifesting, in the whole course of her life, so much resolution and independence of mind, as in her resistance to the attempts of her father, after his accession to the throne, to induce her to join the Church of Rome, accompanied, as these were, with the offer that she should be preferred in the succession to her sister Mary. To advance his own popularity, her father gave her in marriage, in 1684, to Prince George of Denmark, brother of Christian V., an indolent and good-natured man, who concerned himself little about public affairs, and was endowed with no capacity for taking part in them. A's own weakness of character and that of her husband gave opportunity to Lady Churchill, afterwards Duchess of Marlborough, her early playfellow, to acquire an influence over her, which, during many years, was almost supreme and absolute. During the reign of her father, A. lived in retirement, taking no part in politics. On the landing of the Prince of Orange, she seems at first to have hesitated, and even to have been inclined to adhere to the cause of her father, whose favourite daughter she was; but Lord Churchill had made up his mind to an opposite course, and his wife induced the princess to adopt it. She consented to [illegible] by which the throne was secured to the I[illegible] Orange in the event of his surviving her Mary; but quarrelled with her sister about [illegible] of etiquette, and was afterwards drawn int[illegible] in which the Churchills were engaged [illegible] restoration of her father, or to secure the [illegible] of the throne to his son. She even en[illegible] secret correspondence with her f[illegible] herself childless when, on the d[illegible] III., on 8th March 1702, she [illegible] throne. She bore, indeed, seventee[illegible] only one, the Duke of Gloucester, [illegible] and he died in 1700, at the age of 1[illegible] of Marlborough and his wife was m[illegible] felt in all public affairs during the [illegible] her reign. The strife of parties [illegible] violent, and political complications were inc[illegible] by the queen's anxiety to secure the suc[illegible] her brother. In so far as she had [illegible] principles, they were opposed to that c[illegible] liberty of which her own occupancy o[illegible] was a sort of symbol, and favourable [illegible] government and the assertion of royal[illegible] according to the traditions of her f[illegible] principles and her family attachme[illegible] alienate her from the Marlboroughs, whose [illegible] from the time of her accession, had become adv[illegible] Jacobitism, and who now, along with [illegible] were at the head of the Whig party. [illegible] also offended the queen by presu[illegible] haughtily upon the power whic[illegible] ha[illegible] possessed. A. found a new favourite [illegible] a relation of the duchess, whom she [illegible] introduced into the royal household. Masham's influence the change of gover[illegible] 1710 was in a great measure owing, [illegible] Whigs were cast out, and the Tories [illegible] office, Harley (afterwards Earl of O[illegible] St John (Lord Bolingbroke) becomi[illegible] of the ministry. But, although concu[illegible] less in the queen's design to secure th[illegible] of the throne to her brother, the new [illegible] quarrels among themselves which [illegible] successful prosecution, and it oozed [illegible] to alarm the nation, and to alienate [illegible] political supporters. A dispute between O[illegible] Mrs Masham, carried on for hours in the [illegible] presence, and which terminated in her dem[illegible] his instant resignation, seems to have bro[illegible] the attack of apoplexy of which she [illegible] August 1714. The Elector of Hanover [illegible] her as George I.—The public events of [illegible] belong to the history of Britain; but the [illegible] England and Scotland, in 1707, may be [illegible] in its personal relation to herself, as she [illegible] last sovereign who reigned over these as [illegible] kingdoms, and the first sovereign styled [illegible] Britain.—Queen A. was of middle size, and [illegible] though not beautiful. She was virtuous, con[illegible] tious, and affectionate, more worthy of est[illegible] woman than of admiration as a queen. [illegible] often mentioned as a period rendered i[illegible] some of the greatest names, both in li[illegible] science, which her country has ever [illegible] but literature and science owed little to [illegible] encouragement.

ANNEALING is the process of [illegible] resorted to in the manufacture of [illegible] preparation of several of the meta[illegible] substances acquire a hardness [illegible] tenacity which renders them much [illegible] consequently more durable. In the [illegible] glass vessels by the glass-blower, they are [illegible] quickly reduced in temperature whilst [illegible] glass is being modelled into the d[illegible]

ass of the glass thus rapidly compelled
ss a position, do not seem to be properly
ally arranged together, and the vessel is
ble to be broken, either by a slight but
dden, or a sudden increase in
. This brittleness is very observable
ymus vitreæ, or glass tears, known as
ert's Drops, obtained by allowing molten
into water, when the glass forms pear-
ps, which are so brittle, that if they be
with a file or the end be broken off, the
rests asunder and falls down into a fine
of glass. The same brittleness is exhibited
ss *jars*, or *phials*, which are small and very
the glass; and yet, if a minute angular
t of any hard substance be dropped into the
latter flies to pieces.

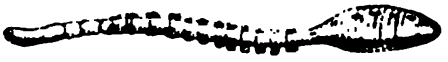
A. of glass vessels, they are arranged in
. and placed in a long oven, where they
raised in temperature to near their
. by the trays being drawn along to the
of the oven; and thereafter, the trays,
nts, are very slowly drawn into a
ss cooler part, till they become cold. The
tion generally takes twelve hours for small
such as wine-glasses; but days, and even
or two, are required to anneal completely
sels. Many articles of glass, such as tubes for
ages, lamp-glasses, &c., are annealed by being
d in cold water, which is very gradually
its boiling-point, and thereafter cooled.

s are often subjected to the process of
dals are repeatedly struck by the
ss gold or other metal, by the concus-
s brittle, and requires to be now and
ss and annealed. In wire-drawing, also,
becomes so hard and brittle, that it
s. to prevent its breaking into short
Boiler-plates, which have been drawn out
g, require to be annealed before they are
together. The brasier, in hammering out
ad brass vessels, must stop now and again,
eal the metal. Articles of tin, lead, and
be annealed in boiling water. The temper-
el is just a process of A. The steel is placed
l-bath, or surrounded by a metallic mixture
s a low fusing-point; and according to the
ure to which it is subjected, a steel with
legrees of softness and strength is obtained.
table of metallic mixtures capable of being
the tempering or A. of instruments made
el, is as follows:

	Alloy.		Fusing-point° F.
	Lead	Tin.	
. . .	7 parts	4 parts	420°
. . . .	8 "	4 "	442
es, . . .	8½ "	4 "	450
, large, .	10 "	4 "	470
shears, .	14 "	4 "	490
ane irons, .	19 "	4 "	500
aives, .	30 "	4 "	530
springs, swords,	48 "	4 "	550
rings, augers,	100 "	4 "	558

heory of A. is very imperfectly understood.
a re-arrangement of the atoms of the glass
no doubt takes place, and an absorption of
ure. It is possible that as the crystalline
e is indicative of brittleness, and the fibrous
characteristic of strength, that the passage
or metal from a brittle to a non-brittle
may be due to the development of a fibrous
e, where a crystalline one was originally

ANNE'LIDA, or A'NNELIDES (from Lat. *annulus*, a ring), a small class of Articulated Animals, mostly included by Linnæus in his class *Vermes*. They have a more or less elongated body, which is always composed of numerous rings. The first of these rings assumes, in most of them, the characters of a head, but in some there is no proper head. They have no articulated limbs, but most of them are provided with bristles and hairs, often in numerous bundles, which are of use to them in locomotion; some, which want these, are furnished with suckers at the extremities, and employ them for this purpose; some remain fixed in one place. Their bodies are always soft, and without external or internal skeleton; but some of them form for themselves a calcareous covering by exudation, others form coverings partly by exudation and partly by agglutination. Their blood is generally red, but not from red corpuscles, as in the vertebrate animals; sometimes it is greenish or yellowish. Their nervous system is simple. Many of them have eyes, and many have tentacula. Most of them live in water, and of these the greater part inhabit the sea. Those which live in water breathe by gills, which are variously formed and placed; some which are terrestrial, as earthworms, have, instead of gills, numerous small respiratory sacs. They are all hermaphrodite; most of them, however, requiring mutual fecundation, and most of them are oviparous. They feed in general upon other animals, and some of them live by sucking blood. They are now divided into four orders: 1. *Dorsibranchiata*, having gill-tufts disposed regularly along the body, and composed of animals of com-



Sandworm (*Arenicola piscatorum*).

paratively active habits; 2. *Tubicolæ*, having gill-tufts near the head, and provided with shelly or other coverings; 3. *Terricolæ*, destitute of all external appendages except minute bristles, and breathing by respiratory sacs; 4. *Suctoria*, destitute even of bristles, and provided with suckers at the extremities. Of the first order, the Sea-worms, Sea-centipedes, and Sea-mouse, are examples; of the second, the *Serpula*, so often an object of interest in the aquarium; of the third, the Earthworm; and of the fourth, the Leech.

A'NNUAL, in Botany, a term employed to denote that the duration of the life of a plant is limited to a single year; within which the germination of the seed, all the functions of vegetation, the ripening of new seed, and the death of the plant, are included. The whole duration of life in the plants thus designated is indeed generally much less than a year, and in temperate and cold climates, falls within the brief period of the summer months. They, as well as the plants generally called biennial, produce flowers and fruit only once. Some species are generally A., and others generally biennial; but whether an individual plant is A. or biennial, often depends upon the accidental circumstance of the season at which the seed germinates, and may therefore be artificially determined by the time of sowing. Peculiar circumstances also sometimes convert A. into biennial, or even perennial plants; and those which are mere annuals in one climate, are perennial, or even shrubby, in another, of which the Castor-oil plant affords a notable example. Most kinds of corn are the produce of A. grasses; some of which, however, as wheat, in certain circumstances, prove of longer duration. The *annuals* cultivated in our flower-gardens are very numerous; and many species, both

native and foreign, are among our most beautiful flowers.

A'NNUALS, the name given to a class of pleasant and graceful publications, which for some years enjoyed an extraordinary amount of public favour, intended for Christmas, New-year, and Birthday presents, in imitation of the Gift-books so popular among the Germans. They were illustrated by exquisitely engraved prints, from paintings by artists of the highest talent, and contained prose and poetry by most of the best writers of the day. The first of them, the *Forget-me-not*, edited by Frederick Shoberl, was begun in London in 1822. The idea, and even the title, were adopted from Germany by the Messrs Ackermann, the London publishers. The following year, two others made their appearance—*Friendship's Offering*, published by Smith and Elder, which had for successive editors, Mr T. K. Hervey, Mr Pote, Mr Thomas Pringle, Mr W. H. Ainsworth, and Mr Leitch Ritchie; and the *Graces*, containing a series of elegant poems on the Months by the Rev. Dr Croly. All three, in addition to their literary and pictorial contents, had at first the blank paper for memoranda, cash accounts, &c., which were customary in the Gift Pocket-books of previous times. The *Literary Souvenir*, commenced in 1824 by Mr Alaric A. Watts, was the first to discard these, and to exhibit a vast improvement on this class of embellished works. Thenceforth, the several publishers vied with each other in their efforts to render their respective A., every succeeding year, more and more attractive. The *Literary Souvenir* was followed by the *Amulet*, started by Mr S. C. Hall, and edited by his wife; the *Winter's Wreath*, a provincial annual; and the *Keepsake*, the latter commenced in 1827 by Mr Charles Heath, an eminent engraver. Up to this time, the price of all the A. was 12*s.* each: the *Keepsake*, however, was published at a guinea. Its first editor was Mr W. H. Ainsworth. The following year, the editorship was offered to Sir Walter Scott, with a salary of £800, and payment besides for his contributions to its pages, but was declined by him. It was then placed under the charge of Mr F. M. Reynolds, who continued to superintend it for many years. The *Keepsake* always maintained a high aristocratic character, the contributors preferred being those who could boast a title. In 1840, it came out under the editorship of Lady Emmeline Stuart Wortley. It was afterwards edited by the Countess of Blessington. So popular did the A. become, that in 1829 no fewer than seventeen were published. In 1840, the number had dwindled to nine. The *Book of Beauty*, long one of the best of the series, was begun in 1833 by Mr Charles Heath. The first volume was written by Miss Landon (L. E. L.), the engravings being principally after drawings by Frank Stone. The volume for 1834 was placed under the editorship of the Countess of Blessington, who conducted it to the close of her life. Mr Heath had also the *Picturesque Annual*, and the *Children of the Nobility*—the latter commenced in 1838. The *Juvenile Album*, an annual for children, was published by the Messrs Ackermann. Scientific A. also made their appearance, and the musical world had its *Musical Bijou*. Thomas Hood started the *Comic Annual*; and among other popular publications of the class were Fisher's *Drawing-room Scrap-book*, edited at first by Miss Landon, afterwards by Mrs Howitt, and latterly by the Honourable Mrs Norton; and Fisher's *Juvenile Scrap-book*, edited by Mrs Ellis; the *Oriental Annual*, the *Historical Annual*, and the *Gift* and *Token*, American productions. At first, the A. were all bound up in tinted paper, and enclosed in a case; but competition produced a great improvement in their external appearance, as well as in their inside attractions. Paper gave place to silk: followed morocco bindings, and afterwards The sums of money expended on the departments were enormous. Mr Heath', for the literary portion alone of the second of the *Keepsake* amounted to no less Of this sum, Sir Walter Scott receiv... the liberty of printing in it his in... of the *House of Aspen*, *Aunt Ma...* and two other little tales. To ... the illustrations formed almost ... ployment. Sums varying from 20 to 1 were paid to artists for the loan of ... engravings, of the size of 4 inches by 3; and frequently received 150 guineas for the p... of one plate. For several years, nearly ... per annum was expended on the ... the A., and 150,000 copies of the ... sold. The sale of the *Forget-me-n...* one time 20,000 copies. In their period, a calculation of their expe... was made, which may be here quoted. volumes, including the guinea-books, of w... were always two or three, the public paid £90,000, thus distributed: Authors and £6000; painters, £3000; engravers, £1... perplate printers, £4000; printers, £... makers, £5500; binders, £9000; silk ... and leather-sellers, £4000; advertisi... &c., incidental expenses, £1000; publ... £10,000; retail booksellers' profits, £... £90,000.

After 1840, the demand for the A. decline. At the best, there had been a mentalism in the bulk of their articles, events, this class of works had been mainly ... to the refined and affluent. Better tastes in ture now began to prevail, and there was a ... that A. had had their day. Deserted by favour, the character both of their e... their literary contents became greatly ... and they ceased to have any attra... literary productions or works of art. ... longer found them safe speculati... discontinued them. They droppe... like spent stars, from the literary fi... *Literary Souvenir* had been disco... after the publication of ten volu... *me-not*, the first in the field, saw 22d ... *Book of Beauty* and the *Keepsak...* were their race. The latter, on the death of ... of Blessington, was placed under the edit... her niece, Miss Power. The *Keepsake* of engravings in which were under the ... of Mr F. Heath, was the only relic of ... in that year it ceased to exist.

ANNUAL REGISTER. The first ... the useful work which bears this n... 1759. Various publications of a ... had previously existed, such as ... *State of Europe*, which was pu... numbers and yearly volumes fr... 1711 and the *Historical Register*, a qu... begun in 1716, and concluded in ... differed from these in being publ... in containing a more full and ab... torica... tive, and in the addition of a literary and ... laneous department, including notices of ... The undertaking was projected by Rob... the bookseller, assisted by Edmund B... some years wrote the historical ... assisted to some extent in the pre... *Register* during most of the subsequ... life. Indexes to the work have be... various periods, and the work ... ill the publishing care of Messrs ...

work, entitled *The New A. R.*, was started in 1781 by Dr Kippis. It was edited after his death by Morgan, and came to a close in 1825. The *Aryll A. R.* was commenced in 1808, and terminated in 1827. The historical narrative was for years written by Sir Walter Scott, and afterwards for a considerable time, by Southey. A similar work was commenced at Paris in 1818 under the title of *Annuaire Historique*, and continued till 1849. The earlier volumes were compiled with much care, but latterly the work fell off. Its place was supplied by the *Annuaire des Deux Mondes*, a publication connected with the well-known review of that name. The *American Annual* is published at New York.

ANNUITY, from the Latin *annus*, a year, is a sum of money paid annually. The term, in its full meaning, expresses an obligation on one party to pay, and a right in another to receive the amount. The different kinds of annuities that may exist are as numerous as the conditions and fancies of those concerned in them; and it is impossible to define them exactly. An A. may be for the life of any person, however long that may be, becoming extinguished only by death. It may be perpetual, so that as each successive owner of it dies, his heirs may succeed to it. It may be on the life of the survivor of any number of persons—for instance, a father may leave to his five children an A. of £500 a year from his estate, to be enjoyed by the latest survivor, so that while the five children live, they have £100 each; after the first death among them, the lapsed share is distributed among the survivors, giving them £125 each; and so on, the last survivor enjoying the whole £500. On the other hand, each might have a separate A. terminating at his own death; and again, instead of either of these simple arrangements, there might be, and often is, a very complex adjustment, giving the survivors on each death a certain proportion only of the deceased's share. An A. may begin immediately, and stop on a contingency, such as the death of a person to whom the annuitant is heir. It may be 'deferred,' so as not to begin to be payable only after the lapse of so many years; and then it may either be payable annually in perpetuity, or for a given number of years, or it may be payable to an annuitant only during the remaining years of his life, if he survive the contingency.

It will thus be seen that there is infinite variety in the nature of annuities, and consequently, in the calculations regarding them. The fixed elements of such calculations, independently of this variety, are in themselves double, being vital statistics, and the profit or interest of money. As to the former, they can only apply, of course, to the adjustment of annuities on a large scale. If a person should sell a single A.—that is to say, engage for a sum down to pay a certain person an A. for life—no study of vital statistics could make his bargain other than a chance; and though he went on the most approved tables, it might occur either that the annuitant died immediately, leaving the whole purchase-money as his profit, or that the annuitant lives to extreme old age, and renders him a great loser by the bargain. But on a large, and especially on a national scale, the rate of mortality and the value of life may be so nicely rendered in statistics, that a market may be opened for the purchase and sale of annuities at their exact value—that is to say, at such a rate that the sum paid in from time to time by persons purchasing annuities, shall just serve to pay each annuitant's annual claim. Such vital statistics, however, can only be obtained through a very accurate and long-continued registration of births, deaths, and marriages (see REGISTER); and it is known that the government having adjusted the price of annuities by the celebrated Northampton (q. v.) Tables, made a losing bargain with their annuitants as a body, and, without being conscious of it until afterwards, sacrificed a considerable amount of public money.

The second element, besides vital statistics, in the calculation of annuities, is the profit or interest of money. If this did not require to be considered, an A. of £1 a year for ten years would just cost £10. But while paying the A., the person who has engaged for it is drawing the interest of the money. If he sold an A. of £1 a year for ten years for £10, he would be drawing the interest of £10 for the first year, £9 for the second, and so on; and the annuitant's bargain would be to a like extent disadvantageous. As the interest of money may be various, so may this element of the calculation of an A.; and to calculate it with reference to future indefinite variations, is of course impossible. It will be seen at once that when the variety of kinds of A. have to be adjusted to different rates of profit, an immense field is opened for calculation. It is, in fact, a province of algebraic science in which several men have achieved reputations.

The interest, as it is termed, of the national debt is virtually a multitude of perpetual annuities. In a country where there is so much superabundant wealth, there is so vast an amount of capital for which people only want interest, that although the lenders of the money are not repaid by the government, yet when any one has invested in the funds, if he wants his money back, he is sure to find a person to take his place at something near to the price paid by him. This would not be the case were the quantity of these annuities in the market disproportioned to the number desiring to invest in them, and hence it is that when there is depression of trade, and money wanted to meet obligations, the funds fall. The government have the largest field of operation, and therefore it is natural to infer that their annuities are more closely adjusted to their actual value than those of insurance companies and other parties dealing in annuities can be. It may be mentioned, however, that, for the encouragement of the working classes to save and provide for old age and contingencies, government, through the savings' banks, grants small annuities on terms advantageous to the purchasers—that is, at less than their market value (see SAVINGS' BANKS).

Many complicated sets of tables have been prepared to facilitate the calculation of annuities. The latest known to us are the *Commutation Tables for Joint Annuities and Survivorship Assurances, based on the Carlisle Mortality at* 3, 3½, 4, 5, *and* 6 *per cent.*, by David Chisholm, 2 vols., royal 8vo, 1858. The calculations are brought out in decimals. Taking the simplest of these tables—namely, those containing the value of an A. of £1, payable at the end of the first year, and thereafter annually during life—we find the following results, commuting the decimals into fractional money through Mr Chisholm's decimal tables:

VALUE OF ANNUITY OF £1.

Age.	£	s.	d.	Age.	£	s.	d.
5	16	11	9½	45	12	12	11½
10	16	13	4½	50	11	14	2½
15	16	4	6½	55	10	7	11½
20	15	16	4½	60	8	18	9½
25	15	6	1	65	7	17	3½
30	14	14	5	70	6	6	8½
35	14	2	6½	75	4	19	9½
40	13	7	9½	80	4	2	10½

In politi[illegible] come within the class of [illegible]r to consumption

than to accumulation or reproduction. As the means of attaining a legitimate object, the establishment of an A. may be an advantage to the community in benefiting some individual member of it. For instance, a man is naturally extravagant—he would spend his heritage immediately, and come to want, if it were paid to him in capital. It is therefore vested in an A.; the man is kept in comfort, and society is not burdened with a needy member. Women are apt to mismanage by false investments or otherwise any capital sums left at their disposal, and therefore it is often advantageous to give them an equivalent in an A. In serving, however, these its legitimate objects, it will be seen that the money so spent is not in its character reproductive. People do save capital out of annuities, but, as a general rule, the object and effect of annuities are in the direction of consumption, as contrasted with accumulation. This is often overlooked in settlements, especially by men who have themselves been accumulators. The consumptive effect of an A. will depend much on its coming out of fixed or fluctuating property. Take, as an instance of the former, a landed estate. If the clear rent be paid on annuities, the estate will not be improved, and it will be stagnant in the proportion so paid. If, out of a thousand a year, nine hundred be thus paid, the owner, out of his remainder of a hundred, is not likely to accumulate sufficient capital to improve the estate and double its value. But fluctuating property may not only be rendered stagnant, but may be destroyed by the burden of injudicious annuities. This is frequently exemplified in disposing of the profits of a business. Different members of a family are portioned off upon it, as if it were a fixed permanent estate; and consequently, there is not a sufficient balance left to induce any one to give his time and energies to the management of the business.

ANNU'ITY, in the law of England, is the right to the yearly payment of a certain sum of money, which is charged upon the person or personal estate of the individual bound to pay it. If it is charged upon real estate, the burden is called a rent, or rent-charge, and not an A. An A. may be created for a term of years, or for the life or lives of any persons named, or in perpetuity; and in the last case the A. is reckoned among incorporeal hereditaments; because, although the security is personal only, yet the A. may descend in the same manner as real estate. In 1854, the old statutes relating to annuities were repealed by 17 and 18 Vict. c. 90, and enrolment in Chancery of annuity deeds is no longer necessary to give them validity. But by another statute of 18 and 19 Vict. c. 15, s. 12, any A. or rent-charge granted after 1855, otherwise than by marriage settlement for one or more life or lives, or for any term of years or greater estate, determinable on one or more life or lives, shall not affect any lands, tenements, or hereditaments as to purchasers, mortgagees, or creditors, unless and until a memorandum or minute of the name, place of abode, title, trade, or profession of the person whose estate is intended to be affected thereby, and the date of the deed, bond, instrument, or assurance whereby the A. or rent charge is granted, and the annual sum or sums to be paid, shall be left with the senior Master of the Common Pleas at Westminster, who enters the particulars in a book of alphabetical names. A fee of 2*s.* 6*d.* is paid to the officer; and any person may search the register for a fee of 1*s.* And when the A. is satisfied, and ceases to affect the lands, a memorandum is in like manner entered in this register (23 and 24 Vict. c. 115, s. 2). But this act does not require the registry of annuities or rent-charges given by will.

Many persons who have a small capital, and are desirous of obtaining the largest life income buy an A. from an insurance office, and grants these in connection with the mor

An important feature of the law itics is, that they are considered day to day, so that, whatever be of payment, whether yearly, half yearly, or monthly, whenever the annuitant dies ment of the A. is counted up to the day death, and the same remedy exists for rec payment of the intervening days between the as if the termly payment had then arrived.

A large number of annuities are created and kept alive by statutes relating to the public stocks, which are nothing else but annuities, not payable out of real estate, but granted to the holder and his h and transferable by a short and easy method. stocks in the funds are merely rights to re certain annuities by dividends as they bec subject to the right of the government such annuities on payment of a stipulated

In Scotch law, an A., as such, may be real estate as well as on personalty. In it has been simply defined to be a right payment in money; and it may be created the payment of the sum of money in the purchase, or it may be secured over land, in w case the creditor, in the event of default of his may attach the land charged, claiming in for recovery a capital sum out of the land, to produce an annual interest equal to which annual interest is paid until the of the A., when the capital sum is debtor. The instrument by which, in A. is constituted in either of the called a Bond of A.; and before the repeal of usury laws (by a recent statute, 17 and 18 Vict. c this form of deed was frequently resorted to means of securing loans where a high rate of interest was charged; and the same practice prevailed in England. But the last-mentioned act renders all such expedients now unnecessary.

ANNU'ITY-TAX, a local impost for the re of the salaries of the Established clergy of of Edinburgh. It was first established on scale by an act of the year 1661; and was e in its sphere of operation by an act of the leg as lately as 1809. It amounted at one time to cent. on the rents of houses and shops within royalty. It was a peculiarity of this tax that members of 'the College of Justice,' includi lawyer class generally, enjoyed an exemptio it, as a relic of an ancient privilege by which were induced to reside and hold the courts of Edinburgh. The tax was reduced in under an act passed in 1870, it was re payment of £56,500 by the Corpora Edinburgh Ecclesiastical Commissione

A'NNULET (Lat. *annulus*, co ring), a term in Architecture for band which frequently surrounds The A. is several times repeated in th which surmounts the shaft of a Doric placed immediately under the ovolo of the A., a ring, a charge in heraldry of fre rence.

ANNUNCIA'DA. 1. The religious the Heavenly Annunciation, or of the N Annunciation of Mary, was instituted by V Fornare at Genoa in 1682, after the rule Augustine. All the convents of the or France, Germany, and the Netherlands have appeared since the French Revolution. Some exist in Italy. 2. Another Order of the A

elation, or of Nuns of Mary's Annouucement or the Ten Virtues, was endowed by John of Valois at Bourges in 1501, after its separation from Louis XII. In 1514, it was placed under the authority of the Franciscans. This order, which extended to fifty convents for the reception of poor gentlewomen, was broken up at the Revolution. 3. The Order of Knights of the Annunciation in Savoy

Star of the Order of the Annunciation.

(*Ordine Suprema dell' Annunciata*), known originally as the Order of the Neck-chain or Collar, was instituted in 1360 by Amadeus VI., Duke of Savoy. It received statutes from Amadeus VIII. in 1409; was renewed in 1518 under the name of the Holy Annunciation; and in 1720 was raised by Victor Amadeus to be the first order of the kingdom of Savoy. The king is always grandmaster. The knights who, since 1720, are not limited in number, must be of high rank, and already admitted to the orders of St Mauritius and St Lazarus. They compose only one class. The decoration is a gold

Decoration of the Order of the Annunciation.

medal, on which is represented the Annunciation, surrounded by love-knots. It is usually worn suspended by a simple gold chain; but the proper collar or chain of the order is composed alternately of love-knots and roses. On the roses are engraved the letters F. E. R. T., which some interpret *Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenuit*, in allusion to the defence of Rhodes by Amadeus I., and which others hold to signify, *Frappez, entrez, rompez tout*. Since 1680, the knights wear on the left breast a star embroidered in gold. The four supreme officers of the order—the chancellor (always a bishop or archbishop), the secretary (usually the Minister of Foreign Affairs), the almoner (usually the king's first almoner), and the treasurer—wear the decoration round the neck, suspended by a sky-blue ribbon, accompanied by a star on the left breast. For details of costumes, &c., see Burke's *Book of Orders of Knighthood*, p. 250, *et seq.*

ANNUS DELIBERA'NDI, in Scotch law, was meant to signify the period of a year allowed to an heir to deliberate whether he would accept the inheritance with the burden of his predecessor's debts. The year commenced on the death of the ancestor, unless in the case of a posthumous heir, when the year ran from the birth of the heir himself. But by a recent act of parliament—the 21 and 22 Vict. c. 76, sec. 27—it is provided that all proceedings 'against an apparent heir on account of his ancestor's debt or obligation, for the purpose of attaching the ancestor's heritable estate, and actions of adjudication against such heir on account of his own debt or obligation, for the purpose of attaching such estate, may be insisted on at any time after the lapse of *six months* from the date of his becoming apparent heir (23 and 24 Vict. c. 143, s. 16; 31 and 32 Vict. c. 101, s. 61).

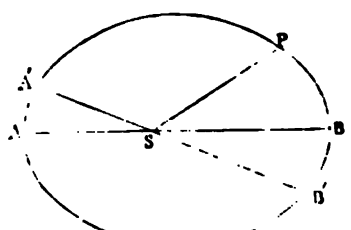
ANOBIUM. See Borer and Death-watch.

A'NODE [Gr. *ana*, upward, and (*h*)*odos*, a way], a term introduced into the science of electro-chemical decomposition (electrolysis) by Dr Faraday to designate the positive pole, or that surface by which the galvanic current enters the body undergoing decomposition (electrolyte). The negative pole, or that surface by which the current leaves the electrolyte, is called in the same nomenclature the *cathode* [*kata*, downward, and (*h*)*odos*]. *Electrode* is the general term applied to either of these. The elements of electrolytes are called *ions* (*iôn*, going). Such as go to the A. receive the name of *anions*, and those passing to the cathode, *cations*. Thus, in the decomposition of water by the passage into it of a galvanic current through two platinum plates, the water is the electrolyte; the platinum plate connected with the copper end of the battery is the A.; and the one connected with the zinc end, the cathode. The oxygen and hydrogen which are disengaged are the *ions;* the oxygen separating at the A. is the anion; and the hydrogen at the cathode, the cation. Anions and cations are more generally known under the name of electro-negative and electro-positive substances; but as these terms are considered by Dr Faraday to imply certain supposed attractions for the positive or negative pole, the other terms have been employed by him to describe simply the part the substances play in electrical decomposition.

A'NODYNE (Gr. *a*, privative, and *odynê*, pain), a medicine given to assuage pain. Properly, the term is applied to medicines, such as opium, which act on the nervous system, so as to decrease sensibility and induce sleep.

ANOINTING. See Chrism, Coronation, Extreme Unction.

ANOMALI'STIC YEAR is the interval that elapses between two successive passages of the earth through its perihelion, or point of nearest approach to the sun. If the earth's orbit had a fixed position in space, this period would correspond with that of a sidereal revolution, or the time the earth takes after leaving any point of the heavens to return to it again; but the disturbing influence of



Elliptical Orbit.

the other planets causes the perihelion to advance slowly (11″·8 annually) in the direction of the earth's motion; so that the A. Y. is longer (4 minutes 39

seconds) than the sidereal. This will be better understood from the accompanying diagram, in which A'BB' represents the elliptical orbit of the earth; S, the sun; A, the perihelion; and AB, the longer axis. When the earth, after leaving A, comes back to it again, after having completed a sidereal revolution, it finds the longer axis AB, and with it the whole ellipse, advanced to A'B', and it has still to describe an arc of 11"·8 before it reaches its second perihelion A'. The length of the A. Y. is 365 days, 6 hours, 13 minutes, 49 seconds. It receives its name from the anomaly (q. v.).

ANO'MALY (Gr. *anomalia*, irregularity), the angle measured at the sun between a planet in any point of its orbit and the last perihelion. In the figure in the preceding article, if P be a planet, A'BB' its orbit, S the sun, and A the perihelion, the angle ASP is the anomaly. It is so called because it was in it that the first irregularities of planetary motion were discovered. The anomaly was formerly measured from the aphelion, the opposite point of the ellipse; but from the fact that the aphelia of most of the comets lie beyond the range of observation, the perihelion is now taken as the point of departure for all planetary bodies.

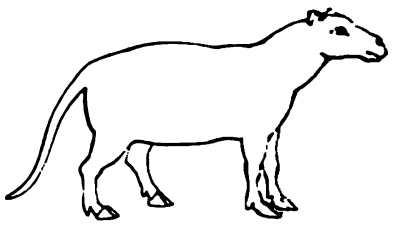
ANONA. See CUSTARD-APPLE.

ANONA'CEÆ, a natural order of Dicotyledonous or Exogenous plants, of which the type is the genus *Anona*. They are trees or shrubs, with alternate, simple, generally entire leaves, destitute of stipules; flowers usually green or brown, axillary, solitary, or two or three together; the calyx of 3—4 persistent sepals; the corolla of 6 hypogynous leathery petals, in two rows. The stamens are generally numerous; the filaments short; the anthers adherent, turned outwards, and with a large 4-cornered *connective*. See STAMEN. The carpels are usually numerous, separate or cohering; the styles short; the stigmas simple; the ovules inverted. The fruit consists of distinct or united carpels, sometimes succulent; the seeds attached to the suture; their external covering brittle; the embryo minute, in the base of the hard albumen.—There are about 300 known species, mostly natives of tropical countries. They are generally aromatic and fragrant in all their parts, and some species are employed medicinally; the dry fruit of *Xylopia aromatica* is commonly used as pepper by the African negroes, and was formerly imported into Europe as ETHIOPIAN PEPPER or GUINEA PEPPER. The flowers of some species are of exquisite fragrance; others yield delicious fruits. See CUSTARD-APPLE and CHERIMOYER.

ANO'NYMOUS (Gr. nameless), a term applied to a book the author of which does not give his name; when an assumed name is given, the term PSEUDONYMOUS is used. Works of this class constitute one of the great difficulties of bibliography. French literature possesses an excellent *Dictionnaire des Ouvrages Anonymes et Pseudonymes* (2d ed., 4 vols. Par. 1822—1825) by Barbier, embracing the titles of about 24,000 works, with the names of those who are known or assumed to be the authors. A similar work for English literature is understood to be in preparation by Mr Halkett, Keeper of the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh.

In Great Britain, political articles are always A., as is also most of the periodical criticism; but on the other side of the Channel, this practice, especially under the present *régime*, is far from being common. It is generally admitted, that anonymity secures the independence of the critic, and enables him to write with greater freedom, vigour, and power; but it is not less true that he frequently abuses his advantage, and gratifies, under the veil of the A., the worst passions of his nature. Perhaps the most intolerable abuse of anonymity is the anonymous letter. T miseries, anxieties, and terrors which this cowa method of assailing people has occasioned, m excite against it the indignation and abhorrenc all honourable-minded men.

ANOPLOTHE'RIUM (from the Greek *a*, *n* ative; *(h)oplon*, armour; and *therion*, a be genus of extinct Pachydermatous quadruped PACHYDERMATA), established by Cuvier from be occurring in great abundance in the gypsum str of the Upper Eocene (q. v.) formation, near They are found also in the same formation i Isle of Wight and elsewhere. The teeth differ fr those of all other Pachydermata, extinct or re There are six incisors, two canines, e molars, and six molars in each jaw— formula thus agreeing with that of the f *Palæotherium* (q. v.); but the teeth are a continuous series without intervening a circumstance very remarkable, as it does occur in any existing quadruped, but now appe in man alone. The molars of the upper ja quadrangular, those of the lower marked w double or triple crescent of enamel, which prominent ridges. In some respects, the resemble those of the *Ruminantia* (q. v.), or ating quadrupeds, between which and the dermata the A. has been thought to form a c ing link; but in some of the species



Anoplotherium.

included in this genus, and which are now sometim ranked along with it under the name *Anoplother* the teeth exhibit peculiarities which have led to supposition that their food may not have b exclusively vegetable. The snout is not m elongated, and it is evident that there was no p boscis. The feet are terminated by two toes. the Ruminantia; but they have always a metacarpal and metatarsal bones, not a *canon* bone. A considerable number of spe A. and of Anoplotheroids have been deter differing in size from that of a small ass to of a hare, or even of a guinea-pig; so that smallest species must have been smaller than a hoofed quadruped now existing, or any known have ever existed. They differ also considerably general appearance, some having had comparative long limbs and a light and graceful fo some were firmly built and heavy. Their be supposed to have differed accordingly. Anoplotheria were probably very similar to tapirs. The powerful and flattened tail species are supposed to indicate a peculiar for aquatic life. Some of the Anoplother smaller supplemental toes, besides the two They form the genera *Dichodon*, *Dichobune*, *don*, and *Microtherium*.

ANOPLU'RA, the name given by Leach to order of insects called *Parasita* (q. v.) by Latr Cuvier, &c.—part of the *Aptera* of Linnæus— of which the type is the genus *Pediculus* or L (q. v.).

ANQUETIL-DUPERRON, Abraham Hya- .. an oriental scholar, was born at Paris, ..er 7, 1731. He commenced the study of .. in his native city, and afterwards prose- .. at Auxerre and Amersfort. But his love .. oriental languages drew him back to Paris, where he was assisted by the Abbé Sallier, Overseer of the ..uscripts in the Royal Library. As he now .. ..ssed a tolerable knowledge of Hebrew, Arabic, .. Persian, he enlisted as a private soldier for .. in 1754, to gratify his passion for learning; but ..aerbes and the Abbé Barthélemy rescued him .. his degradation, and enabled him, through the ..nificence, to proceed independently. After .. ..eral in India, he traversed a great part .. peninsula, but finally fixed his residence at .., where there was a colony of Parsees, or ..-worshippers, with whose priests he soon be- .. so intimate, that they not only instructed .. in the doctrines of Zoroaster, but also gave .. some of their sage's books, written in Zend, ...ahlvi, and in Sanscrit. In 1762, he returned .. Europe, having collected one hundred manu- .. along with other curiosities. The Abbé .. lemy now obtained for him a situation in the .. ..que Royale, and in 1763 he was elected .. ..er of the Académie des Belles-Lettres. .. .., he published his *Zend-avesta*, in 3 vols., .. contained the results of his researches. It .. of a literal translation of the *Vendidad*, as .. other sacred books of the Parsees, pre- .. by a narrative of his travels. This work .. created a great sensation when it first appeared. Until then, our only knowledge of the doctrines of the .. ..ient Persians had been obtained from Greek and .. sources, hostile Mohammedans, and eastern .. of a later origin. But A. now presented to .. investigation of Europeans the original records .. doctrines, or, at least, records of incontest- .. authority. Unfortunately, his zeal far surpassed .. patience and sagacity. He had not a sufficient .. ..stery over the languages from which he translated. .. translations are, consequently, anything but .. ..urate. Since A. wrote, great advances have .. been made in oriental scholarship, and his labours .. now in a great measure superseded. Among his .. works we may mention his *Législation .. ..entale*, 1778; *Recherches Historiques et Géographiques sur l'Inde*, 1786; *La Dignité du Commerce l'état du Commerçant*, 1789; *L'Inde en Rapport .. l'Europe*, 1790; *Oupnek'hat* (a selection from .. theological portion of the Vedas), 1804. He .. ..d at Paris 17th January 1805.

ANSE, a name sometimes given to the handles of .. ..ion. These handles, especially in some foreign .. ..s, are cast in the forms of dolphins or .. ..s.

ANSELM of Canterbury, a scholastic philosopher, ...born at Aosta, in Piedmont, in 1033. He led at .. ..ipated life; and, like Abelard, wandered .. ..France, after the fashion of the scholars .. ..days, disputing wherever he could find an .. ..versary. Attracted by the reputation of Lanfranc, ...ent, in 1060, to study at the monastery of Bec, ...mandy. Three years after, he became prior, .. in 1078, abbot of this monastery, the most .. ..us school of the 11th c. Lanfranc, who in .. ..meantime had gone to England, and become .. ..bishop of Canterbury, died in 1089; and the .. ..remained four years without a successor, till, .. A. was appointed. He was distinguished .. as a churchman and a philosopher. His .. ..us embroilments with William Rufus and .. I., and the unbending spirit which he dis- .. ..n these, even when subjected to banishment, indicate the vigour and resoluteness of his character, as much as his writings exhibit the depth and acuteness of his intellect. In 1720, Clement XI. expressly placed him in the list of church authorities. A. was a second Augustine, superior to all his contemporaries in sagacity and dialectical skill, and equal to the most eminent in virtue and piety. Embracing, without question, the doctrines of the church, mostly as stated by Augustine, and holding that belief must precede knowledge, and must be implicit and undoubting; he yet felt the necessity of a religious philosophy, urged the duty of proceeding from belief to knowledge, and sought to reduce the truths of religion into the form of a connected series of reasonings. It was for this purpose he wrote his *Monologium sive Exemplum Meditandi de Ratione Fidei*. In his *Proslogium*, otherwise entitled *Fides quærens Intellectum* (Faith Seeking Intellect), he strove to demonstrate the existence of God from the conception of a perfect being. This ontological proof, however, has never been held satisfactory. His writings, *Cur Deus Homo*, and *De Concordiâ Præscientiæ et Prædestinationis*, made an epoch in Christian philosophy. A. may justly be reckoned the earliest of the schoolmen, although Alexander of Hales (q. v.) was the first who completely systematised in the scholastic manner the doctrines of the Catholic Church. He died 21st April 1109, and was buried at Canterbury near his predecessor, Lanfranc. The day of his death is observed in the Roman Catholic Church.

ANSER. See Anas and Goose.

ANSGAR, or **ANSCHARIUS**, styled the Apostle of the North, on account of his labours to introduce Christianity into Denmark, Sweden, and Northern Germany, was born in Picardy about the year 801 A.D. Under the patronage of Louis le Débonnaire, he went, with his colleague Audibert, to preach the doctrines of Christianity among the heathen Northmen of Schleswig, where he suffered many persecutions; but had nevertheless such success that, in 832, the pope established an archbishopric in Hamburg, and A. was appointed the first archbishop. Here he passed through many difficulties, having to save his life by flight in 845, when the Northmen and Danes under Eric I. plundered Hamburg. He afterwards made several missionary tours in Denmark and Sweden, and died February 3, 864, at Bremen, where a church was named after him. The Roman Catholic Church has canonised him.

ANSON, George, Lord, Admiral, born on 23d April 1697, at Shugborough, in Staffordshire. From an early period he manifested a predilection for a sea-life. In 1716 he served as second lieutenant under Norris; next under Byng in 1718, against the Spaniards; and was made a captain in 1723. In 1739, when war with Spain broke out, he was recalled from the Carolina station, on which he had been placed since 1724, and received the command of the fleet in the South Sea, with instructions to inflict whatever injury he could on the Spanish commerce and colonies, and sailed from England in September 1740. The preparations for this cruise had been made in the most slovenly manner. Both vessels and stores were bad, and the sailors were old Chelsea pensioners; yet A., in spite of these disadvantages, achieved a brilliant reputation by the heroism, prudence, diligence, and humanity he displayed. After his little fleet of seven vessels had been scattered by a storm, in doubling Cape Horn, he landed at Juan Fernandez, where he was soon joined by three of his ships, which arrived in a dismantled condition. While he remained on this island, he exhibited his native tenderness of character by the assiduity with which he cared for the

sick, and the pains he took to increase their comforts. Under these disadvantages, he made several prizes of Spanish vessels, and especially distinguished himself by his capture of the Spanish galleon from Acapulco, with a cargo worth £400,000. After several other bold adventures, he returned to England; and, sailing undetected through the French fleet which lay in the Channel, arrived at Spithead, June 15, 1744, having circumnavigated the globe after a cruise of three years and nine months. His perilous voyage had great importance in extending the knowledge of navigation and geography. As a reward for his services, A. was made Rear-admiral of the Blue (1744); and in 1747, after he had gained a victory over the French admiral, Jonquière, at Cape Finisterre, was made Baron of Soberton; and four years later, First Lord of the Admiralty, in which capacity he distinguished himself not less than at sea. In 1761 he was made Admiral of the Fleet. He died June 6, 1762. Few works have been so popular as Lord A.'s *Voyage Round the World*. It has numerous readers in every civilised language. It was written by Mr B. Robins, from Lord A.'s own materials, and was carefully supervised by the latter.

ANT (*Formi'ca*), a Linnæan genus of Hymenopterous insects, now divided into several genera, which form a family called *Formicidæ*. The English name is contracted from *Emmet*, still also occasionally used. Another old English name, not now in frequent use, is *Pismire*. The species are numerous, and are generally distributed over temperate and tropical regions. Their habits and instincts are extremely interesting, and have attracted attention from remote ages.

Ants are small insects, but of extraordinary muscular strength. They carry loads of ten or twelve times their own weight, and display great activity. They have a triangular head; the antennæ are geniculate; the jaws strong; the ligula or lower lip small, rounded, vaulted or spoon-like; the thorax compressed at the sides; the abdomen nearly oval, the pedicle which joins it to the thorax forming in some kinds a single, and in some, a double scale or knot. They live in societies, often very large, which consist, as in bees, of *males*, *females*, and *neuters*. The neuters are females with imperfect ovaries, transformed at an early stage of their existence, and are distinguished into two classes, *workers* and *soldiers*, the former constituting the greater portion

Atta barbara:
A, one of the larger workers; B, one of the smaller workers; C, a male; D, a female—all natural size.

of each society, the latter somewhat differing from them in larger size, and larger and more powerful head. The ordinary work of the society is performed by the workers: the principal part in warfare, defensive or offensive, is taken by the soldiers. The males and females constitute but a small portion of each community. They have delicate glistening wings; but the neuters have no wings, and the thorax is smaller and more compressed. The males are smaller than the females, and the workers are rather smaller than the males. The females and neuters of some kinds (genera *Ponera*, *Myrmica*, *Atta*, and *Cryptocerus*) are armed with stings; other kinds (*Formica* and *Polyergus*) have no have the power of ejecting a pecul Formic Acid (q.v.), from a small men; by this means effectually repe saries, to which the pungent fumes Small animals are soon killed by the vapour ant-hill; and a dog has been known to retire from the effect upon his eyes, either of the or of a discharge of the fluid itself. It is when those ants that are unprovided w make use of their mandibles to inflict a curve round their abdomen, so as to be diately to squirt this acid into the woun

The winged ants mostly appear in perish before the commencement of the a few surviving to found new colonies and per the race. The neuters pass the winter numbers in a torpid state, and resume th on the return of spring. The nests of midsummer, are usually found to cont males and females mixed with the wi which, however, restrain them, and n females, from making their escape the pairing season, when they immense swarms, those from many ant-hills times uniting their myriads, rising with incr velocity in distinct columns, and soaring to a height. 'Each column looks like a kind of net-work, and has a tremulous undul The noise emitted by myriads and my creatures does not exceed the hum of The slightest zephyr disperses them.' sionally, however, make their appearance in prodigious numbers, that the air is obscure them.—The pairing of ants is supposed to take in the air. Some of the females which destruction by their enemies, or by the found new colonies, in which at first the work usually assigned to neuters. ever, are seized by the neuters of which they fall, and there is even that these go out to search for t stripped of their wings, and forcibly con the habitation, the number of whose inhabi to be increased by their multitudinous They are fed and treated with apparent the queen-bee among bees; but a ants, unlike one of bees, often cont females, each thus treated and equally the important work of laying eggs. queen-bees, also, they are invariably de their wings; nor is this always done by the to prevent their escape, but the female ant, fecundation, has been seen to denude herself own wings, as now superfluous appendages.

The eggs of ants are so small as to be visible to the naked eye. The mother drops random in her progress through the n workers, of whom some are always in on her, immediately seize them, moisten their tongue, and lay them in heaps in apartments of the nest. They continue to them, and to remove them from one quar nest to another, apparently in order that always enjoy a suitable temperature, and order to avoid any excess of moisture. days, the young larvæ are produced: require the unremitting care of the wo feed them, disgorging into their mou purpose, a viscid substance, supposed ordinary food of the species, prepared by a sort of half digestion. They are car ful to keep the young brood clean application of their tongue and man great amount of labour is daily expended in conveying them from the inner a

wards the surface after sunrise, when the r is fine, and back again before sunset, or he weather becomes cold, or there is a pros- rain. The same care is extended to the The larvæ and pupæ are the white objects the workers are seen hastily seizing and g off to places of safety, when an ant's nest en open; and the resemblance of which, arly of the pupæ, to grains of barley, is d to have contributed to the general belief, as stores of corn for winter food. The ave no organs of locomotion. The pupæ are ed in delicate silken cocoons, and unlike other insects, require assistance to extricate ves from them when they have attained rfect state. This assistance also is afforded workers.

whole supplies of food for the inmates of the brought to it by the workers. The food of inds is exclusively or chiefly animal, that of table. The provisions carried to their ants of Britain and other countries in e winter is cold are apparently not intended ter, when the creatures are entirely torpid, for present use; and few, if any of the ed on grain or seeds. But Colonel Sykes ed at Poonah a species of ants (*Atta provi-* which not only store up provisions, but of the stores consist of the seeds of a species t; and Mr Moggridge has recently deter- by careful observation that large stores of nd seeds are laid up by some of the ants of Europe, especially *Atta barbara* and . The grain and other seeds stored up seem, in some way not yet known, to ved of the power of germination. The long been a sort of proverbial type, not industry, but of provident care for the Some ants, however, collect and carry to ests substances which are not intended for at for the construction of the nest, and for closing its apertures in cold or wet

In this way they gather together small chips of wood, bits of straw, small pebbles, &c. vegetable substance which ants seem chiefly as food is sugar; and to this, wherever it is and, they seem to be guided by a very acute l smell. *Honeydew*, the saccharine excre- the *Aphides* (see Aphis), is a favourite many species; and with this are connected their most extraordinary instincts; for not they climb the plants on which the aphides , that they may obtain this food, but they en seen to wait beside them for new drops, en to touch them with their antennæ, in o cause the drops to flow, patting the abdo- f the aphis on each side alternately and ; the ant, after the drop has been obtained, on to another aphis. The whole process has kened to the milking of cattle. Even more ful things are asserted on this subject, as that lar ants seem to regard particular aphides as wn property, and are ready to fight in defence r right to them—that, to secure them for lves, they convey them from one place to r—and that the *Aphis radicum*, which its nutriment from the roots of grass and lants, is actually kept in large numbers in the the Yellow Ant (*Formica flava*), in order that ay be always at hand a copious supply of food, phides and their eggs sharing the solicitude ants equally with the r own eggs and young. so wonderful are ascertained beyond dispute ard to the instincts of ants, that even such ents as these must not be hastily rejected as ble, and certainly they express the beliefs of and scientific observers.

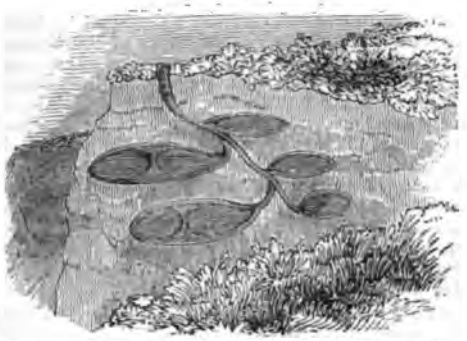
Ants which feed upon animal food render important service in clearing away every vestige of the flesh of dead animals, and so preventing corruption; and very beautiful skeletons of small animals have been obtained by burying the animal for a short time in an ant-hill. But ants also attack living animals: insects of comparatively large size fall a prey to them, and in tropical countries, birds, reptiles, and small quadrupeds are sometimes devoured by their vast swarms, which strip the bones of the animal perfectly clean with wonderful rapidity. Domestic animals, at least when sick, are not safe from them, and man himself regards them with dread. About ninety years ago, prodigious numbers of a particular kind of ant (*F. saccharivora*) appeared in the island of Grenada. This species makes its nest under the roots of plants, and the sugar-canes were so weakened and injured in consequence, that the plantations became nearly unproductive. 'They descended from the hills like torrents, and the plantations, as well as every path and road for miles, were filled with them. Rats, mice, and reptiles of every kind became an easy prey to them; and even the birds, which they attacked whenever they lighted on the ground in search of food, were so harassed, as to be at length unable to resist them. Streams of water opposed only a temporary obstacle to their progress; the foremost rushing blindly on certain death, and fresh armies instantly following, till a bank was formed of the carcasses of those which were drowned, sufficient to dam up the waters, and allow the main body to pass over in safety below. Even fire was tried without effect. When it was lighted to arrest their route, they rushed into the blaze in such myriads as to extinguish it.' A reward of £20,000 was offered in vain for an effectual means of destroying them; but in 1780 a hurricane which tore up the canes, and exposed their habitations to a deluge of rain, freed the island from this plague.

The habitations of ants are very curiously constructed, displaying great ingenuity, although with great diversity in the different species. The greater number of species form their habitations in the ground. These rise above the surface in the form

Yellow Ants (*F. Flava*) and Nest.

of a dome; hence the name *ant-hills* commonly given them. The largest ant-hills formed by any British species are those of the large red or horse ants (*Formica rufa*), which are sometimes as big as a small haycock; but travellers in South America describe ant-hills of 15 or 20 feet in height. The nest of *F. rufa* is outwardly of rude appearance—a confused heap of such portable materials as were within reach; but within, it contains numerous small apartments, of different sizes, arranged in separate stories, some deep in the earth, some above its surface, and communicating with each other by

means of galleries. Use is made of the earth excavated from below to mix with other materials in the construction of the upper parts of the fabric. Many species of ants, sometimes called Mason Ants, construct habitations by a still more elaborate masonry,



Section of Bank, shewing Nests of the Mason Ant.

making use, for this purpose, of soft clay, which they spread and mould by means of their mandibles and feet, appearing all the while to examine their work by their antennæ. The partition-walls of the galleries and apartments of the *Formica brunnea* are about half a line thick, and about half an inch high; the roofs are somewhat arched, and pillars are frequent in this marvellous architecture. M. Huber saw a working-ant of another species (*F. fusca*), without assistance, make and cover in a gallery which was two or three inches long, and of which the interior was rendered perfectly concave. There are other species, sometimes called Carpenter

Nest of Carpenter Ant.

Ants, which make their habitations in the trunks of old trees, gnawing the wood into apartments and galleries, with floors and partitions as thin as card. *Formica flava* forms its partition-walls of a sort of *papier-mâché* of saw-dust, earth, and spider's web. *F. smaragdina*, an East Indian species, forms its nest of a thin silk-like tissue. *F. bispinosa*, in Cayenne, makes a felt of the down which envelops the seeds of the *Bombax Ceiba*. An East Indian species, *Myrmica Kirbii*, forms a globular nest of a congeries of tile-like *lamiæ* of cow-dung, the interior exhibiting an assemblage of apartments and galleries. Some Australian ants form their nests of the leaves of trees glued together, after being first brought into the proper position by the united strength of multitudes.

Of the ants which form their nests in the ground, some, instead of constructing ant-hills, seek the protection of stones, roots of trees, &c. This is the case with some of the British species, and also with the sugar ant of the West Indies, already mentioned.

Many interesting anecdotes are on record illustrative of the instincts of ants, and of the [illegible] which they seem to possess. They appear to have some power of communicating with each other, in which it has been supposed the antennæ are chiefly employed. Some such [illegible] might be supposed to be necessary, if we venture to reason from analogy upon such [illegible] not only to their architectural and other operations, in which many must take part simultaneously and conjointly, but also in their predatory and warlike excursions; for these also some species have. If, during the predatory excursions of the *Atta cephalotes* (a South American species) an intervening space occurs which they cannot cross, some of the creatures link themselves together, as monkeys, in like circumstances, have been known to do—forming a bridge over which the others pass. Ants are, in general, both courageous and pugnacious. Many battles take place [illegible] both between individuals and large [illegible] after a battle, combatants may be found locked in each other's arms, as having died together in the struggle. More extraordinary than anything of this kind, however, is the fact, sufficiently ascertained, that some species of ants go on regular foraging parties to carry off the larvæ and pupæ of certain other species, which they carry to their own habitations, and employ them as slaves in the work of the nest, which may be regarded as properly belonging to the species in their own race—a fact to which no [illegible] analogous has yet presented itself in natural history. The species known thus to make and keep slaves are *Polyergus rufescens* and *Formica sanguinea*, the latter sometimes called Amazon Ants. It has been remarked as a curious circumstance that the kidnapped species are red or pale coloured ants, and the slaves are black ants. The kidnapping excursions take place at a particular period of the year, when the nests of the black ants contain the neuter brood. The army of red ants (*P. rufescens*) marches forth, the whole force which consists of eight or ten only, constantly changing; and on their arriving at the nest of the negro ants, a desperate conflict ensues, which ends in the defeat of the negroes; and thereupon the red ants, with their powerful mandibles, tear open the now undefended ant-hill, enter it, [illegible] carrying the pupæ in their mouths, with which they return in perfect order to their own nest. The pupæ are there treated with great care. [illegible] their lives among the red ants, excavating [illegible] collecting food, carrying larvæ, &c., as if they had been their original destination. The ants [illegible] are not natives of Britain, although plentiful in other parts of Europe.

Formic acid has been employed as a remedy for gout and paralysis, and is sometimes used in continental practice by means of *ant-baths*, which are prepared by boiling crushed ants or their ant-hills, and immersing the diseased limb in the steam.

Termites (q. v.), or White Ants, are very different from the true ants, and belong to the order *Neuroptera*.

ANTÆ. See Pilaster.

ANTALCIDAS, a Spartan politic[ian] [illegible] himself conspicuous in a very perilous [illegible] history of his nation by the skilful cha[racter] [illegible] policy. Some time after the Peloponn[esian war] [illegible] seemed as if Athens were destined to [illegible] supremacy she had lost. The Gre[ek]

round her; while Conon, an able and vigilant Athenian admiral, and his ally, Pharnabazus, the Persian, were everywhere victorious in their naval encounters with the Spartan fleet. It became necessary, therefore, that communications should be entered into with the Persian king, from whom the confederate Greeks drew their chief resources. A. was chosen ambassador to Tiribazus, satrap of Western Asia. On hearing this, the Athenians grew alarmed, and sent Conon to frustrate the schemes of the former; but Tiribazus took A.'s part, and the result was, that Conon was thrown into prison, and A. secretly received money to enable Sparta to continue the war. At first, Artaxerxes, the Persian h, was dissatisfied with the conduct of his , recalled him, and put Struthas, a friend of in his place; but through a complication of tances, which it is unnecessary to mention, subsequently completely successful in ning the goodwill of Artaxerxes. He was appointed admiral of the Spartan fleet, and isted by Tiribazus, Ariobarzanes, &c., swept the until Athens became desirous of peace. For reasons, so was Argos and Sparta herself. us therefore assembled deputies from the states, and, in the name of his master rxes, read the famous declaration or treaty ce, to which all the members present agreed, h is known in history under the name Peace of Antalcidas,' as being the result latter's able diplomacy. Its three great were as follow: 1. That all the Greek on the mainland of Asia Minor, together the islands Clazomenæ and Cyprus, should ain under the protection of the Persian king. & all other Greek towns, large and small, be independent; but that the islands nos, Imbros, and Scyros should belong to as. 3. That war should be declared against ver state refused to accept these points. After eace, the history of A. becomes doubtful and s. He seems to have lost favour with the as, and Plutarch even leads us to suppose , sickened by misfortune and the loss of reputa-, he voluntarily starved himself to death; but story is not credited by scholars, both on account its intrinsic improbability and its apparent ement with the statements of other writers.

ANTANANARIVA', or **TANANARIVA'**, the capital city of Madagascar, and seat of the government, has a population estimated at 80,000. It is situated on a hill, in an undulating district, at an elevation of 7000 feet above the level of the sea. It is exposed to fearful hail and thunder storms. The approach to it from Tamatave, the chief seaport, is extremely tedious and difficult, owing to the want of roads. It is, in spite of this, the seat of considerable trade and industry. The royal palace occupies the summit of the hill; adjoining are the dwellings of the chief officers of government; and below these, covering the slope of the hill, and built on terraces, are the houses of the other inhabitants, constructed almost entirely of wood. The people exhibit a considerable aptitude for civilised usages; and, thanks to missionary enterprise, considerable progress has been made towards the adoption of European habits. See *Three Visits to Madagascar*, 1853 4 5, by the Rev. W. Ellis (London, 1858); and *Madagascar Revisited*, by the same author (London, 1867). In the latter work will be found a plan of the city, shewing the missionary churches, chapels, dispensary, hospital, &c., and views of the principal houses.

4 'AR, or ANTA'RA, a celebrated Arab chief , sixth century, one of the seven poets of Arabia, whose prize-poems, embroidered in golden characters on a silken ground, were hung up on the gate of the Caaba, and thence called *Moallakat*—i. e., the Suspended. In the poem of his that has descended to our day, he paints his warlike deeds, and his love for Abla. His courage and heroism during a forty years' warfare between two Arab tribes, and his constancy in love, were long dear to the memory of his countrymen, and appear to have formed the groundwork of the voluminous romance called *Antar*, commonly ascribed to Asmai, and reduced to writing as early as the days of the Calif Haroun Alrashid, in the 8th c. This work, which has come down to us in a later and much corrupted form, gives an attractive and faithful picture of Bedouin life, and is rich in epic interest, although too monotonous to satisfy the taste of the European reader. In the East, however, it still supplies the favourite themes of the professional story-tellers who haunt the coffee-houses. A poetical translation of it into English was made by Terrie Hamilton in 1820.

ANTARCTIC OCEAN, the sea round the south pole, as the *Arctic Ocean* is the sea round the north pole. It is otherwise called the Southern Ocean, comprising all the sea to the south of the Atlantic, the Indian, and the Pacific Oceans. In this view, the A. Ocean's northern limit may be conveniently divided into three straight lines—the *first* between Cape Horn in South America and Cape Agulhas in Africa; the *second*, between Cape Agulhas and the southern extremity of the Auckland Islands as an appendage of New Zealand; and the *third*, between the southern extremity of the Auckland Islands and Cape Horn. This appears to form the true boundary of the polar regions of the southern hemisphere. The most northerly isles which it encloses are New Georgia, at the mouth of the Atlantic, and Kerguelen's Land, at the mouth of the Indian Ocean. The latter tells its own story in its other title of 'The Island of Desolation;' and the former presented to Cook, even in the middle of summer, perpendicular cliffs of ice, and valleys covered with everlasting snow.

It is usual, indeed, to define the Antarctic Ocean and the corresponding ocean to the north, as being contained each within its own polar circle. But, with regard to both oceans alike, this definition appears to be inadmissible. It is only at two points—the head of the Pacific, and the head of the Atlantic—that the Arctic Sea can possibly reach the Arctic Circle at all; while, in point of fact, it overlaps it at Behring's Strait by nearly a degree, and falls several degrees short of it between the northern half of Norway and the south-east shore of Greenland. The A. O., again, is nowhere practically limited by the definition in question: not a single voyager hesitates to use the expression long before he arrives at lat. 66° 30′ S.; nor yet is a single authority consistent in the use of the arbitrary nomenclature.

The A. O. has been explored, more or less satisfactorily, by various navigators, as far as 79° S. With a few exceptions, however, little of it is accurately known, the difficulties and dangers of its navigation rendering thorough and continuous investigation almost impracticable. The names that will recur in their proper places are New Georgia, Kerguelen's Land, Sandwich Land, New South Shetlands, New Orkneys, Enderby's Land, Graham's Land, Balleny, Sabrina, and Victoria Land.

Taken as a whole, these lands bear a very small proportion to the extent of an ocean which embraces half the latitudes and all the longitudes of the southern hemisphere, exceeding its kindred sea to the north, as a glance at the map will shew, by

nearly half of Asia and North America, and the whole of Europe. Such of these lands as are really accessible at all times, have been more or less valuable in connection with the whale and seal fisheries.

The features of the A. O. itself may be briefly stated to be constant fogs, baffling currents, innumerable icebergs, and magnificent manifestations of the Aurora Australis. On the coast of Victoria Land, beyond the parallel of 70°, two mountains have been observed to be of a height altogether unequalled in such a latitude—Mt. Terror, of 10,000 feet, and Mt. Erebus, of 12,400. The latter is a volcano, being, it is apprehended, the only phenomenon of the kind in either of the frigid zones.

Of the two circumpolar oceans, the southerly one has excited much less interest than the northerly. The open passages round the two capes respectively into the Indian Ocean and the Pacific, have, from the very beginning, rendered unnecessary any such voyages as those which, for nearly three centuries, have developed so much patience and fortitude in the heroic explorers of the Arctic shores.

ANT-BEAR. See ANT-EATER.

ANT-CATCHER and ANT-THRUSH, names given to birds of tropical and sub-tropical countries, which feed chiefly upon ants. They are closely allied to the Thrushes (see THRUSH), and are included with them in the family *Turdidæ* or *Merulidæ* of recent ornithologists. They are distinguished by a straight sub-cylindrical strong bill, hooked at the tip, slender legs, and very short tails. They form the genus *Myothe'ra* of Illiger, now subdivided into several genera, one of which, *Pitta*, contains the *Brèves* of Buffon—birds of brilliant plumage, natives of the south-eastern parts of Asia and the Malayan Archipelago. The true ant-catchers are mostly American, are of comparatively sober plumage, live among the huge ant-hills, seldom fly, and are remarkable for their sonorous voices, the power of which in some species is extraordinary. The largest species, known as the *King of the Ant-catchers* (*Grallaria Rex*), is about the size of a quail. Its legs are remarkably long.

ANT-EATER (*Myrmecophaga*), a genus of South American quadrupeds belonging to the natural order *Edentata*. The species are few. They are perfectly toothless, their food being insects, and particularly ants, which they procure in great numbers by thrusting among them a very long cylindrical tongue, covered with a viscid saliva, and then retracting it into the mouth. The head is remarkably elongated, with a slender muzzle, and a small mouth. The tongue is doubled up in the mouth when not in use for catching prey. The ears and eyes are very small. The toes differ in number in the different

Great Ant-eater (*M. jubata*).

species, but are united as far as the base of the claws, which are very large and strong, adapted to tearing up the habitations of ants. The Great A.-E. (*M. jubata*), a native of the warm parts of South America, and called in Demerara the A.-bear, is about 4½ feet in length from the snout to [illegible] of the tail, which is more than 2 feet l[illegible] covered with very long hair. The bo[illegible] covered with long hair, particularly alo[illegible] and back. There are four claws on each [illegible] feet, and five on the hind ones. The A.-[illegible] much of its time in sleep, the long snout [illegible] in the fur of the breast, the hind and [illegible] locked together, and the bushy tail thro[illegible] as if for a shade from the sun. It is [illegible] in its habits, and is regarded as a very st[illegible] It has great strength in its fore-legs and cl[illegible] is said to hug like the bear, so as to crush an [illegible] to death. The female produces one you[illegible] birth, and carries it about for some time [illegible] —Another species, the Tamandua [illegible] having the same number of claw[illegible] gated snout, comparatively shor[illegible] hensile tail, is scarcely so large as [illegible] trees in quest of its insect food.—T[illegible] L toed A.-E. (*M. didactyla*) differs from [illegible] not only in the number of its toes, but i[illegible] anatomical characters.—Closely allied to [illegible] in structure and habits is the genus *Ma*[illegible] ing the PANGOLINS of Africa and India: [illegible] of hair, the body is covered with [illegible] scales. See PANGOLIN.—The name A.-[illegible] at the Cape of Good Hope to the *O*[illegible] *Capensis*, the Aard-vark or Earth-hog of colonists, a quadruped of about the same [illegible] the great A.-E. of America, belonging to natural order, and resembling it also in its muzzle and extensile tongue, which [illegible] the same way, but provided with gri[illegible] flat claws adapted for burrowing. I[illegible] extraordinary facility, and it is in this [illegible] seeks to secure its safety when assailed. short hair, and little of it. The ears are [illegible] long. It is a nocturnal animal, and very [illegible] The *Echidnæ* of New Holland are some[illegible] Porcupine Ant-eaters, from their food similarity to the true ant-eaters in their and extensile tongue; but they differ parts of their structure. See ECHIDNA.

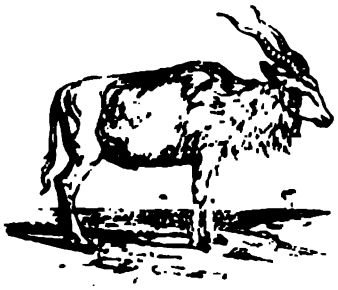
ANTECE'DENT, a term in Logic, G[illegible] and Mathematics. Thus we call a prope[illegible] Logic from which another is deduced, or a principle which serves as the base and [illegible] some particular proposition, the A. [illegible] the A. is the word which precedes the [illegible] for example, 'The *man* who dies for [illegible] should be held in honour.' Here 'man [illegible] In Mathematics, we speak of the A. of [illegible] i. e., the first of two terms which com[illegible] ratio. Thus, in the ratio of 4 to 3, 4 is the [illegible] word is also used in the plural in a peculia[illegible] 'We know very little of his *antecedents*'—i. e., previous character or conduct.

ANTEDILU'VIAN is the word used to [illegible] whatever existed before the Flood. The [illegible] are those which elapsed before the Flood, and theological language, the A. religion means religion of the patriarchs from Adam to Noah. Geology, the 'A. period' has no reference to deluge recorded in the Mosaic narrative, to the final transformation of the ea[illegible] of water.

A'NTELOPE (*Antilope*), a gen[illegible] belonging to the order of Ruminan[illegible] the hollow-horned section of that order. the horns consist of an elastic sheath surro[illegible] bony process of the skull, and are perma[illegible] annually renewed. The antelopes have [illegible] nucleus of the horns solid, not occupied, [illegible] of goats, sheep, and oxen, to a considerable

lls communicating with the frontal sinuses. e also distinguished from the allied genus of y having the chin beardless, and from them sep by the horns not being longitudinally ar ridged. The horns of antelopes are, how- ry generally annulated, or surrounded with ad ri The body is slender and deer-like, ad elegant, the tail short and tufted, y short, and the colour often lively. , however, have comparatively long a few which inhabit cold mountainous are clothed with wool intermixed with longer ner hair, particularly the CHAMOIS (q. v.) of , Caucasus, &c.; the ROCKY MOUNTAIN GOAT f North America; and the CHIRU (q. v.) of alayas. Many species have infra-orbital or *tear-pits* (q. v.) like deer. The females species, as of deer, are destitute of horns; hey alone came under observation, it would cult to say to which genus they belonged. is very various; the Guevei or Pigmy A. of *A. pygmæa*) is only 8 to 9 inches high at the whilst the largest species measure 5 or 6 st all the species of antelopes are peace- animals, and are distinguished by their nd fleetness. Most of them are gregarious. habit plains; others are found only in the ccessible mountainous regions; whilst others jungles and deep forests. North America two or three species, which depart consider- loss the chamois of Europe, from the of the genus. Europe produces mois and the Saiga (*A. Saiga*), the *Colus* bo, which inhabits the southern plains of and Russia. Asia has a greater number of but they are most numerous in Africa, and arly in South Africa. The known species to more than eighty, which are arranged in or groups according to the peculiarities of and other characters, but a satisfactory on of them is difficult. Some naturalists family of *Antilopeæ*, and subdivide it into but they are not separated by sufficiently characters. The flesh of all antelopes is used ; hence they are much objects of the chase. rnish also great part of the subsistence of of prey in Africa, where some of the species such numbers that, particularly when severe occurs in the regions which they ordi- abit, dense and multitudinous herds occa- appear in the interior of Cape Colony, to rible devastation of the crops. Even the f the Tatarian plains congregate in herds of usands in the end of autumn.

ame A. is sometimes more particularly d to a species also known as the Common or A., and as the Sasin. It is a native of India eastern parts of Asia, and is a beautiful about 2½ feet high at the shoulder, with iverging horns, bent in a spiral of two or rns. The hair is uniformly short, except in many other species of A., there are w of bristles on the knees. It inhabits ns, and the herds exercise great watchful- Its fleetness is such that greyhounds chase it and it can easily bound over an enclosure of n height, or over a distance of 10 or 12 yards. h is held in small esteem, and the animal is n many of its congeners an object of the The Saiga is a much less graceful animal; s are short, and, as in many of this genus, irst outwards and then inwards, so that the utline formed by them resembles that of a hey are used by the Russians and Chinese manufacture of many articles of domestic ; and it is chiefly for their sake and that of the skin that the saiga is hunted, the flesh having a disagreeable taste, which is ascribed to the saline and aromatic plants of the steppes.—The Dzeren (*A. gutturosa*), sometimes called the Chinese A., and known among the Chinese by a name which signifies the Yellow Goat, is an inhabitant of the arid deserts of Central Asia, the flesh of which is highly esteemed, and which is therefore a chief object of the chase in these regions. It derives its specific name from a large movable goitre-like protuberance on the throat of the old males, produced by a dilatation of the larynx.—The Addax, or Nubian A. (*A. Addax*), which was known to the ancients, and is



Addax (*A. Addax*).

mentioned by Pliny, has horns very similar to those of the Indian A., but is a larger animal, less graceful, with a slight mane on the neck, a tuft of long hair on the forehead, and large broad hoofs, adapted for treading on fine and loose sands. It inhabits the deserts of Central Africa, and, contrary to the usual habits of the genus, is said not to be gregarious, but to live in pairs. The Chikara and some other Indian species are distinguished by two additional rudimentary horns in front of the ordinary horns, and immediately over the orbits. The chikara inhabits thick forests and jungles. Like the addax, it lives in pairs; as do also the Stein-boc (q. v.) of South Africa, an extremely graceful species; and the Kleene-boc of the same country (*A. pygmæa*), a beautiful and active little creature, with very small horns. The kleene-boc is of a mild and gentle disposition, and extremely capable of domestication. The Gazelle (q. v.) of North Africa (*A. Dorcas*), one of the species known to the ancients, is very frequently domesticated; and from its gracefulness of form, its gentleness of manners, and its bright black eyes, has afforded to the Arabian poets one of their most favourite objects of comparison. The South African SPRING-BOC (q. v.) is another very beautiful species, and is frequently domesticated by the colonists at the Cape of Good Hope. Among the numerous species which that country produces may be mentioned also the Blauw-boc (*A. leucophæus*); the Riet-boc (*A. arundinaceus*); and the Caffrarian ORYX (q. v.), (*A. Oryx*), which somewhat resembles, but is quite distinct from, the Oryx of the ancients (*A. Leucoryx* or *A. Gazella*), also called the Algazel, a native of the countries on both sides of the Red Sea. Still more worthy of notice among the South African species, but in some measure departing from the strict A. type, is the ELAND (q. v.), the largest of all the antelopes—an animal which may yet pro-

Head of Antilope Chikara.

bably be found very valuable in domestication. The KUDU (q. v.) is another noble species, allied to the eland. The NYL-GHAU (q. v.) of India, and the GNU (q. v.) of South Africa, are also among the largest antelopes, but depart still further from the generic type, particularly the latter, so that a separate genus (*Catoblepas*) has been constituted for it, having better claims to be recognised than the other genera into which it has been proposed that the antelopes should be divided. Less different from the ordinary type, but still with a marked approach to a bovine appearance, are the BUBALUS (q. v.) of the ancients, a native of the north of Africa, the Arabic name of which signifies wild ox, and the KAAMA (q. v.) or Harte-beest of the Cape of Good Hope, which is nearly allied to it. The PRONG-HORN (q. v.) and the ROCKY MOUNTAIN GOAT (q. v.) are the best known North American species; and both are found only in the western parts of the continent. It has been proposed to introduce the latter, as a wool-bearing animal, into the Highlands of Scotland.

ANTE'NNÆ, in Zoology, jointed filaments with which the heads of Insects, Crustacea, and Myriapoda are furnished, and which are evidently very delicate organs of touch. They are therefore sometimes called feelers. The name A. is derived from *ante*, before. The A. are placed on the anterior or superior part of the head; the animals appear to feel their way with them, and to them is ascribed the bee's power of working in the dark. Some suppose that they are also organs of hearing, and by means of them it would appear that many insects, as bees and ants, have the power of communicating with one another. They possess great flexibility, but differ very much in the number of joints which they contain (amounting sometimes even to 100), in the relative length and thickness of their joints, and also in their form, being filiform or thread-like, clavate or club-shaped, feathered, &c., in endless variety.

ANTEQUE'RA (the *Anticaria* of the Romans), an important town in the province of Andalucia, Spain, is situated in a fertile plain, 45 miles west of Granada. Pop. 30,000. The inhabitants are engaged chiefly in agricultural operations, but also manufacture baize, silk, cotton, and paper. They are noted for their love of bright colours in dress. Although A. is clean and well built, it is rarely visited by travellers, on account of its lying considerably off the high road. As late as 1544, the place possessed, in almost perfect condition, an ancient palace and theatre; but about that time the stones were plundered to build a convent, and only a few were spared, which are now imbedded in the walls of the town. A., like all the other cities of South Spain, was for a while in the hands of the Moors; but in 1410 it was retaken by the Regent Fernando, who is hence called *El Infante de A.* When the French took the place, during the Peninsular War, they converted a curious old mosque—a relic of Moorish sway—into a storehouse, and on their departure carried off with them the magnificent Moorish armoury.

ANTHE'LIA (Gr. *anti*, opposite, and *helios*, the sun; Ger. *Gegensonnen*) are luminous rings, seen by an observer on a cloud or fog which lies opposite to the sun. They occur chiefly in alpine regions and in the polar seas, and are only seen when sunshine and cloud, or fog, occur at the same time. They appear in the following way: When, from an elevated position—as the mast of a ship, or the ridge of a hill—the shadow of an observer is projected by the sun on a cloud or fog, he sees the head encircled by a glory or luminous ring, diminishing in brightness as it leaves the head as a centre. When the sun shines brightly, and the fog is dense, as many as four concentric rings of
observer round the shado
common centre in the point
sun through the eye of the ob
When the phenomenon
are more or less colour
inner rings being generally brilliant, those o
more faint, while those of the fourth ar
perceptible. This last has an angular radius
40°, and is very seldom seen. It bea
name of the Circle of Ulloa or the
A phenomenon substantially similar to
when, the sun being near the horizon,
sees an aureola surrounding the shadow
cast upon grass or corn moistened w
occurrence of A. is generally attri
diffraction (q. v.) of light.

ANTHEM (Gr. *anti*, in return, *phone*, piece sung in alternate parts), a species of composition introduced into the service English Church after the Reformation, and
to be sung daily, at morning and evening servi
the third collect. The words of the A.
from the Psalms, or other suitable
Scriptures, and the music is either for
chorus, or a mixture of all three. As a
English music, it can only be h
cathedral service. In its o
tion, and use, it is similar
Romish Church, which name has
the Lutheran Church. See MOTET; also

ANTHEMIS. See CHAMOMILE.

ANTHER. See STAMEN.

ANTHERI'DIUM, the name given botanists to an organ in cryptogamous they suppose to be analogous in its fu stamen or male organ of fructification gamous plants. Antheridia are vario on the surface of plants or within Sometimes they are simple cells; somet composed of a number of cells, contain ginous fluid, and peculiar small bodies cal (q. v.), which at a certain period exhibit ments like those of animalcules. The finally discharge their contents through an and it is supposed by some that their con another class of organs, to which the name LIDIUM (q. v.) has been given, is essential t duction of spores, the seeds of cryptogamous But these names are to be regarded as at h provisional, and these views as far fr sufficiently established.

ANTHO'LOGY (Gr. flower-collection) i usually given to a book consisting of an unse series of choice thoughts, whether in pr
but generally in the latter. Of the c
this kind made in ancient times, which
mostly of epigrammatic poems, the best known

Greek Anthologies.—The first Greek A. w piled by Meleager of Gadara, in Sy
B.C. Besides this, there were three o
belonging to periods considerably subsec birth of Christ; but all these earlier lost. What we now possess are tw tions, one by Constantine Ceph who borrowed largely from one o logies; and another by Maximus P of Constantinople in the 14th c., less selection from the A. of Ceph than increased the already existing sto Planudes was first issued in print at F by a learned Greek, John Lascaris, time was the only one known. It w successive editions, and received ments. The latest edition (with t

a ...iece of latinity and rapid execu-
... —ed by Bosch in 1795, and finished
... Meanwhile, Claude Salmasius
... in the Heidelberg Library (1606) the
... manuscript of the older and richer A.
... Cephalas, which he compared with
... ades, copying out the poems not found
...tter. During the Thirty Years' War, the
...g manuscript was carried to Rome; but in
... the peace of Tolentino, the French con-
... secure possession of it, and brought it to
In 1816 it was returned to Heidelberg.
...e important discovery of Salmasius, the
...as often mentioned by the name of the
...te Manuscript, or the Vaticano-Palatinate.
... of it were published by Jensius, Leich,
...nd Klotz. The entire collection, augmented
...nts of the older poets, and by epigrams
... monuments and in other works, was edited
...k at Strasburg in 1776, under the title
Veterum Poetarum Graecorum (Selections
Old Greek Poets), and later by Jacob,
... title of *Anthologia Graeca, sive Poëtarum*
...*Lusus ex Recensione Brunckii* (Greek A.,
tive Pieces of the Greek Poets, from the
...d Text of Brunck), 1794–1814, at Leipsic.
...m, it has been published variously, in whole
It is impossible not to admire these gems.
... is there to be found a richer variety of
...fe, greater delicacy of sentiment, a more
...erenity, a greater abundance of wise, true,
thoughts, than sparkle in the pages of the
... To the poet, it presents the most graceful
... the most exquisite conceptions; to the
..., maxims adorned with all the graces of
... the historian, monumental inscriptions; to
...lecist, the most varied forms of an imperish-
...ge; to all, a charming revelation of anti-

Anthologies.— In 1573, Scaliger published at
in imitation of the Greek A., a Latin A.,
... title *Catalecta Veterum Poëtarum* (Gather-
...m the Old Poets), and Pithous one at
590. A larger collection was issued at
...lam (1759 and 1773) by Peter Burmann the
... under the title *Anthologia Veterum Latin-*
...grammatum et Poematum (A. of Old Latin
and Poems), a more correct and better
... edition of which was published by Meyer

...e literature is extremely rich in anthologies,
... sometimes of extracts from the best
...ged according to the subject, and some-
... 'beauties' of their best poets, with bio-
...notices, which are either placed in chrono-
...der, or according to the countries in which
...rs lived.

...bic *Anthologies.* — Abu-Temam published
...s from the old Arabic songs previous to the
Mohammed, arranged them in ten books,
...nd the entire collection after the first book,
consisted of war songs, *Hamâsa*. Another
A. is the *Diwan* of the Hudhalites (an Arabic
... edition of which was published by Kose-
Abu'l-Faraj of Ispahan (died 966) gathered
in his *Kitâb al-aghâni* (Book of Songs),
ncient Arabic songs down to the first centu-
...e Califate. It was published by Kosegarten
Abu'l-Faraj accompanied the work with a
commentary, which makes it one of the
...teresting of the old Arabic literature. But
...st and most complete A. of the later Arabic
Yatimat al-dahr (the Pearl of the World),
...hi, in which the writers are arranged accord-
... provinces in which they lived. It has
... and enlarged since the period of
the original compiler. Besides these and similar national anthologies, collections have been made in almost every province where the Arabic culture and speech prevailed. Such, for example, are the numerous Arabico-Spanish ones, though these are but little known.

2. *Persian Anthologies.*—In the Persian literature, the best known works of this sort are *Taskarat al Shuara* (Lives of the Poets), by Daulet Shah (died 1495), the contents of which are to be found almost entire in Hammer's work on Persian *belles-lettres* (Vienna, 1818), and *Atesh Kedah* (the Fire Temple), by Haje-Lutf-Ali-Beg, who lived about 1770. Both works give biographical notices of the Persian poets: the first, in chronological order; the second, in topographical order, with specimens from their works. An A. of the best Persian poetry, arranged according to the subjects, is given in the *Medshua al Shuara* (a Collection of Poets).

3. *Tatar Anthologies.*—Of the poets who have written in the Tatar—i. e., the East Turkish or Tshagatai dialect—we possess a collection comprising 441 biographies, with specimens of their poetry: *Madshalis alnasais* (Charming Company), by Mir-Alischir (died 1500), and the *Lives of the Tatar Poets*, by Sadiki, extending down to the 17th c.

4. *Turkish Anthologies.*—The number of anthologies in the West Turkish, or, as it is generally called, the Turkish language, is very numerous. The most famous are—*Heshi Behesht* (the Eight Paradises), by Schi of Adrianople (died 1548); *Taskarat al Shuara* (Lives of the Poets), by Latifi (died 1582), and, under the same title, a similar work of Ashik Tshelebi (died 1571); and the great collection, *Subdat al-ashaar* (the Blossoms of Poetry), by Kassade (died 1621). The substance of these anthologies is to be found in Hammer's *History of West Turkish Poetry* (Pesth, 1836).

5. *Indian Anthologies.*—The literature of the Mohammedan population of Hindustan, which is a mere copy of Persian literature, has also several anthologies. The most important are *Gulzari Ibrahim*, by Ali Ibrahim, containing biographical notices of 300 Hindustani poets, with specimens of their writings; the collection called *Diwani Jihan*, by Beni-Narâyan; *Guldastai Nashât* (Garland of Pleasure), by Manu Lal (Calcutta, 1836); and *Guldastai Nâzsinân*, by Kerim-ed-din (Calcutta, 1845). The substance of these works is to be found in Garcin de Tassy's *Histoire de la Littérature Hindui et Hindustani* (Paris, 1839—1847), which, under the title of *Tabakâti Shuarâi Hindi*, was translated into Hindustani by Kerim-ed-din (Delhi, 1848). In the pure Hindi, we have a rich collection of songs, the *Râgel Sâgar*, by Krishnânanda (Calcutta, 1845).

6. *Sanscrit Anthologies.*—The Sanscrit literature is not so rich in anthologies as the other oriental literatures. If we do not consider the Vedic hymns, and the collections of poems which bear the general title *Sataka* (a Century), anthological in the proper sense, there is only one work of this kind known—viz., the *Paddhati*, by Sarngadhara, towards the close of the 14th c., in which are gathered together 6000 detached strophes of the most famous epic, lyric, and dramatic poets of India, arranged under certain heads.

7. *Chinese Anthologies.*—From the earliest ages, the Chinese had the custom of sending, along with the yearly tribute to the emperor, copies of such songs as had acquired popularity. Confucius selected from a great number of these 311 of the most beautiful. These are preserved under the name *Shi-king* (Book of Songs), one of the canonical books of the Chinese. This is the oldest A. in the world. A Latin version, by Lacharme, was published at Stuttgart, 1830; a German one, by Ruckert, at Altona, 1833. Besides

this, there is *Tchao-ming-woen-siouen*, a collection of the finest poems of the time of the Liang dynasty (502—556 A. D.), and also *Thang-shi*, poems of the time of the Thang dynasty (618—914 A. D.).

ANTHON, CHARLES, LL.D., a well-known editor of classics, was born in the city of New York in 1797. At the age of 14, he entered Columbia College, where he pursued his studies with ardour and success for four years. Having been originally intended for the law, he now passed through a preliminary practical instruction in his brother's office, and in 1819 was admitted to the bar of the supreme court of the state of New York. His time, however, was chiefly devoted to classical literature, for which he soon began to acquire a high reputation; and in 1820, when only 23 years of age, he was appointed adjunct-professor of Languages in Columbia College, which office he held for fifteen years. He now commenced that series of classical publications which has done so much to make available for popular purposes the erudite researches of European scholars. His first work was a new edition of Lempriere's *Classical Dictionary*, which was almost immediately re-issued in England. In 1830 appeared his larger edition of Horace, quite a novelty in its way, on account of the superabundant English notes which accompanied the text. In 1833, he issued a smaller edition, for the use of schools and colleges. Virgil, Cæsar, and other ancient writers have been illustrated in the same attractive manner. A.'s editions of the classics have acquired an extensive popularity; but scholars are disposed to regard them with a kind of learned aversion, both because of the temptations they present to the school-boy to overlook the difficulties of a knotty passage, and of the superfluous and often unimportant matter which is dignified with the title of 'commentary' or 'notes.' It cannot be doubted, however, that these works have given a healthy stimulus to the rudimentary study of the ancient authors. In 1831, A. received the degree of LL.D. from his Alma Mater. In 1835, he succeeded Professor Moore in the chair of languages. A. likewise published large works on ancient geography, Greek and Roman antiquities, mythology, literature, &c. He died July 29, 1867.

ANTHONY, ST. See ANTONY, ST.

ANTHOXANTHUM. See VERNAL GRASS.

A'NTHRACITE (Gr. *anthrax*, a coal), a mineral substance of the nature of coal, but consisting of carbon with a minimum amount of hydrogen. It is of a black colour, conchoidal fracture, and imperfectly metallic lustre (hence called *glance*-coal). It burns slowly, and without flame, and hence is sometimes called *blind*-coal. Its vegetable origin cannot be doubted. Where strata of common coal have been broken through by trap dikes, the coal next the trap is found to be A., with a gradual transition into the ordinary state; hence geologists look upon A. as natural coke (q. v.), formed by heat or other process from ordinary coal. A. is used as fuel like coke. It is applied in many places to the burning of lime and bricks, the reduction of iron, &c. It occurs extensively in Ireland, and in some of the coal-fields of England, Scotland, and the continent of Europe; but on the largest scale in the United States.

ANTHROPO'LATRY (Gr.), a term signifying, according to its derivation, the worship of man, and always employed in reproach. Thus, the early Christians accused the heathens of A., because, in their mythology, men were represented as exalted among the gods, although an *apotheosis* (q. v.) was in these cases alleged by their worshippers; and the heathens retorted the charge because of the worship of Christ; the reply to which was the assertion of his divinity. But the term is chiefly known in ecclesiastical history in connection with the employment of it by the Apollinarians (q. v.) against the orthodox Christians of the 4th and 5th centuries, with reference to the doctrine of the perfect human nature of Christ.

ANTHROPO'LOGY (from the Gr. [illegible] man), a term signifying that branch [illegible] which has man for its subject. In its proper [illegible] it is very comprehensive, and of course in[cludes] Anatomy, Physiology, Psychology, Ethnology, Theology, *Æsthetics*, &c. The word, of late, come into very common use. There [is] Anthropological Society in London; and a[n] anthropological section has been constituted [in the] British Association.

ANTHROPOMO'RPHISM (from the *thrōpos*, man, and *morphē*, a form), the application, figurative way, to God, of terms which properly to human beings. Thus, in the Holy Scriptures read of the eye, the ear, the arm, the [hand] and of his remembering, forgetting, [repenting] appears to arise of necessity from [the] forming conceptions of things spiritual, [except] terms in which to express them, except [those] derived from things cognizable by our senses; even the language of adoration is borrowed from familiar things of this world. It must be [observed], however, that A. employed in an unguarded [manner] or too grossly understood, might lead to most [serious] error; and a tendency has manifested itself at [various] times in the history of the Christian Church, to [attribute] to the Divine Being a form and parts [like] men. Thus, the Audæans (q. v.) [a] Syrian monastic sect which sprang up [in the 4th century] were accused, and, it would seem, justly, [of holding] that God was possessed of a human shape; when the Bible said that 'God created man in his own image,' the words are to be understood [in a] shape literally. The same error was also [falsely] ascribed to the Waldenses, but there is [reason to doubt] of the justice of the accusation. A tendency [to A.] may indeed be regarded as always existing, [and] requiring to be guarded against in the study of man; but the instances have been rare and extreme, although they have from time to time occurred in which anthropomorphite views have been [openly] adopted and openly expressed among Christians. The error of the anthropomorphites has, however, found countenance from the speculations of some philosophers. Hobbes, Forster, and Priestley ascribed to the Divine Being a sort of subtile body. Kant, on the other hand, rejected the very doctrine of the personality of the Divine Being as an anthropomorphism, and represented God as the moral order of the *universe;* and Schelling, Hegel, and Schleiermacher substituted for the ordinary personality of God a subjective consciousness in the human soul.—The term A. is also sometimes employed to denote the ascription to God of human affections and passions. In the most general sense, includes the [whole] of Scripture, in the many instances in which it must be interpreted according to the same principles which are applicable in those cases which are so called, with the same discrimination of the figurative from the literal, and the same due recognition of the absolute spirituality and unknowableness of God; yet so that [truth] conveyed by means of such [language] is probable could only be conveyed in such language, in accordance with [the] tion, may not be rejected or obscured [by] must be confessed, there is greater [danger] with regard to A. strictly so called.

ANTHROPO'PHAGI. See CANNIBAL.

ANTHUS and ANTHIDÆ. See PIPIT.

ANTHYLLIS. See KIDNEY VETCH.

ANTIARIS and ANTJAR. See UPAS.

ANTIBES (anciently *Antipolis*), a fortified seaport in the department of the Alpes Maritimes, in the S.E. of Provence, France, lat. 43° 34′ N., long. 7° 8′ E. Pop. (1872) 4502. It stands on the east of a small neck of land called La-Garoupe, lying from the mouth of the Var, in a fertile district. ...arbour is only serviceable, however, for small ... It is a military station of the third rank, ... a naval school, and has considerable ... olives, dried fruits, salt-fish, oil, &c. The ... prepared at A. are held in high estima... the environs of the town are beautifully ... ed with gardens, vineyards, and orchards. ... is a very old place, having been founded by ... colony of Greeks from Massilia (Marseille), of ... it was a dependency. In the time of ... it was elevated to the rank of an Italian ... must have attained a high degree of ...rity, if we are to judge from the ruins that ... After the wreck of the old Roman ... suffered the fate of all classic cities in ...egion, becoming subject to successive tribes of ...rians from the north. In the 9th c., it was ...yed by the Saracens; in the 16th c., it was ...d by Francis I. and Henry IV.; during the ... War of Succession, it sustained a siege of ... months (1746); and in recent times, gained ... notoriety from having closed its gates against ...poleon, on his return from Elba.

ANTICHLORE is the name given to commer... sulphite of soda by paper-makers. When the ... are reduced to a pulp, they are bleached by ...ide of lime (bleaching-powder), which thoroughly ... the pulp, and is very difficult to wash out. ... traces of chlorine thus left in the pulp pass ... the manufactured paper, and tend to bleach ...rting-ink which may be traced thereon. To ... the pulp from the residue of the chlorine, some ... of soda is employed, and hence the name ..., which literally signifies 'against (*anti*) chlorine.'

ANTICHRIST (from Gr. *anti*, against, and *Christos*, Christ). The general notion of A., as a power opposing itself to the reign of the Messiah, may be traced back beyond the Christian era. Its origin is perhaps to be found in the prophecy of Ezekiel concerning the doom of Gog and Magog. In accordance with the old saying, 'When need is sorest, help is nearest,' the Jews conceived that, immediately previous to the Messiah's reign, national adversity must be experienced in an extreme degree, and that an agent of Satan would appear, who must be overcome before prosperity could be restored. This was A. The idea is adopted in the New Testament, although the term A. occurs in no place of Scripture, except in the First and Second Epistles of John. From such passages as the prophecies of the Saviour, Matt. xxiv. and Mark xiii., it has been inferred by some that probably the great truth which this conception was intended to shadow forth was similar to that illustrated in the life of 'the Man of Sorrows' that only through tribulation and strife could the reign of the Messiah be established, that Christ's kingdom, like Christ himself, could be made perfect only through suffering. And with this the language of John in his epistles, and of Paul in passages which seem to embody the same idea, is supposed to accord. Nor is it regarded as a fatal objection to this opinion, that in the Apocalypse the Antichristian power or element is associated with the great heathen capital Rome, symbolically designated Babylon.

But this opinion neither has been nor is generally prevalent. The idea of A. early became associated with that of the Millennium (q. v.), retaining a form very similar to that which it had among the Jews before the advent of the Messiah; and popular opinion has always sought to find for it some actual and definite embodiment. In the 5th c., a popular delusion prevailed, founded on the passage in the Apocalypse, xvii. 8, that Nero was not dead, and would return in the character of A. Since the 16th c., the prevalent opinion among Protestants has been that A. is the Roman Catholic Church; an idea entertained even at an earlier period, as, for instance, by Ludwig of Bavaria, regarding Pope John XXII., by Occam, Wickliffe and his pupil Cobham, and the Bohemian reformer Janow, and which seems to have prevailed to a considerable extent among the Hussites and other opponents of Rome. This opinion has of course been strenuously opposed by Roman Catholic writers, as by Bossuet, who, in his comments on the Apocalypse, ably advocates the opinion that Pagan Rome was A. The opinions of Roman Catholics, however, are much divided upon this subject, many of them maintaining that A. is yet to come and 'to raise the last persecution,' as 'no one has yet appeared to whom we can apply the character which the infallible Word of God declares shall be that of the real A.'—*Keenan's Catechism of the Christian Religion.*

The opinion prevalent among Protestants depends upon the identification of A. with the mystical Babylon of the Apocalypse, and with other symbolic representations in that book, of a power opposed to the cause of Christ, and also with the 'Wicked' one, the 'Man of Sin,' and 'Son of Perdition,' in 2d Thess. ii. Thus it is maintained that a definite embodiment of the idea of A. is to be sought in history, and that this is to be found in the Church of Rome or in the Papal power. And Protestants refer to the gradual growth and development of the errors which they regard as culminating in the Church of Rome, as accordant with the declaration of Paul in 2d Thess. ii., that 'the mystery of iniquity doth already work,' and with that of John, 'even now are there many antichrists.'

There have been, however, among Protestants eminent opponents of this opinion, among whom may be named Grotius. His own opinion was singular, that Caligula, the Roman emperor, was A. In the Greek Church, the term A. has been understood as especially applicable to Mohammed, or to the dominion of the Turks and Saracens. Almost every great or striking event—the arrival of the year 1000; the beginning of the Crusades; the 'black death' and other plagues in the 14th c.; the career of Napoleon in 1805; and even the political movements of 1848 and 1849—has suggested new interpretations of the passages of Scripture regarding A. See REVELATION OF ST JOHN.

ANTI-CORN-LAW LEAGUE, the name adopted by an association which concentrated the efforts of the free-trade party in Britain, and enabled them to carry the repeal of the corn-laws, and establish in practice the principle of free-trade. The results thus accomplished will have to be considered under other heads, as CORN-LAWS, FREE-TRADE, &c. This statement is limited to a brief account of the League itself, and its method of working. Associations to obtain the repeal of the corn-laws existed in several places before the embodiment of the League one especially was founded in London in 1834. In 1838, Mr Cobden and others took the opportunity of the periodical assemblages of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce for exposing the deleterious influence of the restrictive commercial policy on the manufactures and trade of the country. The friends of free-trade, at the same time, occasionally met in

Manchester to discuss and promulgate their views; but it was in the beginning of 1839 that the strength of the party was first drawn to a focus, by the appointment of delegates from the manufacturing districts to proceed to London, and press their principles on the legislature. Mr Charles Villiers, afterwards President of the Board of Trade, undertook the leadership of their cause in the House of Commons, of which Mr Cobden, who subsequently served it so effectively, was not then a member. On the 19th of February, Mr Villiers moved that the House resolve itself into a committee of inquiry on the corn-laws; and again, on the 12th of March, he moved that certain manufacturers be heard by council at the bar of the House against the corn-laws, as injurious to their private interest. The former motion was rejected by 342 to 195; the latter, by 361 to 172. Immediately on the return of the delegates from their unsuccessful effort, the League was formed. Its constitution dates from the 20th March 1839, when resolutions were adopted, at a meeting in Manchester, for 'the formation of a permanent union, to be called "The Anti-corn-law League," composed of all the towns and districts represented in the delegation, and as many others as might be induced to form anti-corn-law associations, and to join the League.

'Delegates from the different local associations to meet for business from time to time at the principal towns represented.

'With the view to secure unity of action, the central office of the League shall be established in Manchester, to which body shall be intrusted, among other duties, those of engaging and recommending competent lecturers, the obtaining the co-operation of the public press, and the establishing and conducting of a stamped circular, for the purpose of keeping a constant correspondence with the local associations.'

It was resolved that, in addition to the funds which local associations might provide for their own district purposes, £5000 should be put at the disposal of the central body, and that every person, or collection of persons, contributing £50, should have one vote in its deliberations. The League collected and distributed large sums of money. Just before its principles became triumphant in the free-trade legislation of 1846, it demanded a quarter of a million, which would have been supplied had it been necessary.

It is of the greatest moment that the cause of the success of the League should not be misunderstood: it triumphed not by possessing money, but by teaching a scientific truth. It was a great organisation for educating the country in political economy. The leading principles of this science were so little known when the League began, and had been so effectually promulgated before its end, that a majority of the parliament who, in 1841, had been elected for the support of protection, were converted to free-trade, the conversion including the prime-minister, Sir Robert Peel. The key-note to the literature of the League was struck by the beautiful logical exposition of free-trade in General Thompson's *Catechism of the Corn-laws*, which, with other tracts, was profusely dispersed over the country, while a large staff of lecturers aided in the task of education. Thinking to serve their cause in the same manner, the Protectionist party, at a meeting held in the Duke of Somerset's house, on 17th February 1844, founded 'The Agricultural Protection Society of Great Britain.' This body had inexhaustible wealth at command, but in reality its exertions only helped to further the cause of free-trade, by promoting discussion, and prompting people to work out the question for themselves.

ANTICO'STI, an island in the G
rence, with a light-house at its south-
which is in lat. 49° 24′ N., and lo
estimated to contain 2000 square
the settler nor to the mariner is A. of
is destitute of harbours, the
mountainous, and the south low
while, to increase the danger, the
currents are said to be capricious.
is severe; while the surface is an
rocks and swamps. The principal in
the keepers of the lighthouse. Pop. 80.
is surrounded by considerable salmon,
herring fisheries. It is a valuable
and bear hunting. The most extensive
in the Dominion are found in A. Marl
most of the small lakes and ponds along

ANTIDOTE (Gr. given against), a
poison. See POISONS.

ANTI'GONE, a character of the
Greece, daughter of Œdipus by his
Jocasta, was sister to Eteocles, Pol
Ismene. She accompanied her father
into Colonus in Attica, and after his death, re
to Thebes. Eteocles, the king, had banished
brother Polynices, who, coming back with an
engaged him in single combat. Both fell, and
who after their death had become tyrant of
issued an edict forbidding their interment. A.
dared to disobey. She buried Polynices,
consequence seized by the monster, wh
up, either in the same tomb with her br
a subterraneous cave, where she pe
sentence threw Hæmon, son of Cre
betrothed to A., into such despair that
himself. A., as the ideal of feminine d
devotion, has been immortalised by Sop
dramas of *Œdipus at Colonus* and *A*
daughter of Eurytion, and wife of
hanged herself upon hearing a false repo
husband's marriage to Sterope, daughter of
—A., daughter of Laomedon, and sister of
who, having offended Juno by compari
beauty to that of the goddess, had her
into snakes, which so tormented her, that
in compassion, changed her into a stork.

ANTI'GONUS. Of the numerous pe
bore this name, the most celebrated was
Philip of Elymiotis, and one of the
Alexander the Great. In the division o
which followed the death of his master, A.
the provinces of Phrygia-Major, Lycia, and
phylia. Being accused of disobedience by Per
who wished to gain possession of all the
by Alexander, A. entered into alliance
Antipater, and Ptolemæus, and declared
Perdiccas in 321 B.C. In the same y
was assassinated by his own soldiers;
on the war against Eumenes, to wh
had given rule over Paphlagonia and
Eumenes, and afterwards Seleucus,
Syria, were deposed by A., whose
cupidity now knew no bounds.
treasures of Alexander kept at Ecbatana
which he refused to share with his allies.
Cassander (son of Antipater), and L
the other generals now allied
him, and a long series of con
Syria, Phœnicia, Asia Minor, Gree
ended with the battle of Ipsus
when A. was slain, in his

ANTI'GONUS GONATAS
Demetrius Poliorcetes, king of
grandson of the great Antigonus.
death, B.C. 283, various cla

ed, and much confusion ensued, the result of was that the royal power fell into the hands lemæus Ceraunus, who, however, soon after d in a battle with the Gauls, when A. G. at became ruler of the country (277 B.C.), and ed precariously in that age of intrigue, dis- ion, and violence, for 33 years. He was twice d from his dominions by a hostile force nt but found refuge and assistance in the

The close of his career was com- peaceful. He died in 243 B.C.

TIGUA, a West India island, the most ant of the windward Caribbees (see ANTILLES), e residence of the governor-in-chief of the portion of the group. It lies in W. long., n 61° 44′ and 61° 58′; and in N. lat., between and 17° 13′. Its area was estimated, in 1870, 120 acres, of which about 100,000 were under ation. In 1871, the population of A. was yielding to a square mile an average of 318 inhabitants. It was first settled in having till then remained, in fact, unin- l on account of the great scarcity of fresh

It has twice suffered severely from earth- —in 1689 and 1843; while of hurricanes e other heavy scourge of the group, A. has full share. Numerous islets, rocks, and shoals the shore, so that, generally speaking, access ult and dangerous. But St John's, the chief stands at the head of a safe and capacious hich unfortunately, however, does not admit ssels. English Harbour is, on the whole, a ommodious port, and has been selected as the of the Royal Mail Steam-packets. It is said apable of receiving the larg st ships in the navy.

chiefly of tertiary formation. The south and ew grauwacke, porphyry, trap, breccia, amyg- and basaltic greenstone; the north and east calcareous marl and coarse sandstone, inter- with blocks of limestone; while the interior a argillaceous strata and irregular beds of flint.

les provisions, generally almost sufficient for consumption, A. produces large quantities of molasses, and rum. In this respect, the pation of the slaves appears to have been beneficial than otherwise. In 1871, the total e of vessels (exclusive of the coasting-trade) entered and cleared A. was 58,804; and of 3,274 were British, and the other 5530 foreign. tal value of imports (including bullion and was, in the same year, £175,741; of exports, same terms, £247,630. The sugar exported ted in value to £205,982. The value was, in 301,740; in 1863, £199,832; in 1867, £87,593. nnection generally with the emancipation of es, of whom immediately previous to the of slavery, A. had about 30,000, it seems occupied a prominently creditable position. tely after the passing of the imperial on the subject, the local legislature, reject- e intermediate and probationary state of ticeship, proclaimed unqualified freedom for gust 1834 –a bold measure, which proved to ndicious as it was humane.

TLLES, a term used to designate generally le of the West India Islands, except the . Generally speaking, they stretch east- rom the Gulf of Mexico to about the meri- f the Gulf of Paria; then southward to the f Paria itself; and lastly, westward to the f Maracaybo. Primarily, however, they are d not as three sections, but as two - the r A., to the north and west; and the Lesser, to the east and the south. This distinction, which obviously involves considerations of position as well as of magnitude, will be found to indicate also a difference of organic structure.

The Greater A., reckoning from the west, are: Cuba (Spanish), Jamaica (British), Hayti (independent), and Porto Rico (Spanish). They extend, in W. long. from 84° 58′ to 65° 40′, and in N. lat. from 23° 9′ to 17° 40′—the higher of these two parallels being only 21′ or about 25 miles within the Tropic of Cancer. On the lowest estimate, the area is said to amount to 70,000 square miles. The Greater A. appear to be of primitive formation, presenting lofty granitic mountains. In Jamaica, however, there are many hills of calcareous origin.

The Lesser A. may be divided into two chains—the eastern, trending round from the eastward of Porto Rico to the Gulf of Paria; and the southern, stretching away in a direction nearly parallel with that of the Greater A., along the coast of Venezuela as far as the Gulf of Maracaybo. With reference to the prevailing trade-wind, these two chains are respectively designated the Windward and the Leeward Islands.

The Windward Islands, reckoning from the north, come in pretty nearly the following order: Virgin Islands (Danish and British), Anegada (British), Anguilla (British), St Martin (French and Dutch), St Croix (Danish), Saba (Dutch), St Bartholomew (Swedish), St Eustatius (Dutch), Barbuda (British), St Christopher's (British), Nevis (British), Antigua (British), Montserrat (British), Deseada (French), Guadaloupe (French), Marie Galante (French), Dominica (British), Martinique (French), St Lucia (British), Barbadoes (British), St Vincent (British), Grenadines (British), Grenada (British), Tobago (British), Trinidad (British). They extend in W. long. from 65° 30′, at the west extremity of the Virgin Isles, to 59° 20′, at the east extremity of Barbadoes; and in N. lat. from 18° 48′, at the north extremity of Anegada, to 10° 31′, at the south extremity of Trinidad. The entire area perhaps scarcely equals 5000 square miles, being not materially larger than that of Jamaica alone. The Windward Islands are otherwise called the Caribbees, from the now extinct race of the Caribs (q. v.); and hence the sea, which they cut off from the open Atlantic, has taken the name of Caribbean.

The Leeward Islands, reckoning from the east, may be given as follow: Testigos (Venezuelan), Margarita (Venezuelan), Tortuga (Venezuelan), Blanquilla (Venezuelan), Buen Ayre (Dutch), Curaçoa (Dutch), Aruba (Dutch). They extend in W. long. from 63° 12′, at the east end of the Testigos, to 70° 11′ at the west end of Aruba; and in N. lat. from 11°, at the south of Margarita, to 12°, at the north of Curaçoa. Their entire area cannot exceed 1500 square miles.

The Lesser A., as a whole, appear to be chiefly of coral formation, or of volcanic origin. Many of them contain extinct craters; and, though not destitute of harbours, their coasts are rendered in a great measure inaccessible by reason of reefs.

The A. generally - but perhaps the Lesser more so than the Greater - are subject to hurricanes and earthquakes. Their principal productions are sugar, rum, cotton, coffee, &c. The individual islands will be found noticed more in detail in their respective places.

The name A. is generally supposed to have been given by mistake to the West Indian Islands. Before the discovery of America by Columbus, a tradition existed that far to the west of the Azores there lay a land called Antilla, whose position was vaguely indicated in the maps of the early cosmographers. Only eight months after Columbus's

return, we find one Peter Martyr writing that the islands which the great navigator had touched upon, must be the Antillæ; and it is certain that Cuba and Hayti were known as such before a single link in the Caribbean chain was discovered.

ANTILOPE. See ANTELOPE.

ANTIMONY (in Lat. *Stibium;* hence the chemical symbol *Sb*) is a brittle metal of a flaky, crystalline texture, and a bluish-white colour. It is readily reduced to powder by ordinary pulverisation; when heated to 840° F., it fuses, and thereafter being allowed to cool, it solidifies in rhombohedral crystals, which are isomorphous with those of arsenic. Heated in a retort, where the oxygen of the air is excluded, as in an atmosphere of hydrogen, A. volatilises as the vapour of the pure metal. When raised in temperature in contact with the air, it burns with a white light—combining with the oxygen of the atmosphere, and forming copious white fumes of the teroxide of A., or 'flowers of A.' The metal is a bad conductor of heat and electricity, but may be used, in conjunction with bismuth, in the construction of thermo-electric piles. Exposed to the air at ordinary temperatures, A. does not tarnish or rust; and this property, combined with the hardness of the metal and of its compounds, renders A. of essential service in the useful arts, in the construction of alloys, such as Britannia metal, type metal, and plate pewter. It is likewise employed in the preparation of the large concave mirrors used in astronomical observations; and in the casting of bells, to make them harder and whiter, and to give them a clearer and stronger sound.

The principal natural sources of A. are—*grey* or *crude* A. of commerce, which is the impure tersulphuret of A. (SbS_3); and *native* A., in which it occurs in the metallic state associated with silver, iron, and other metals. The extraction of A. from its ores is mainly carried on at Linz, in Germany, where the sulphide of A. is found extensively, and in Great Britain, which receives its supply of ore from Singapore and Borneo, commonly as ballast. The process consists in heating the crude ore, covered with charcoal, on the bed of a furnace, when the sulphide of A. fuses, leaving unmelted the earthy impurities; and thereafter the liquid is drawn off into iron moulds, where it solidifies into cakes or loaves. The latter are reduced to coarse powder, placed on the bed of a reverberatory furnace, and heated with access of ordinary air containing oxygen, when the sulphur passes away as gaseous sulphurous acid (SO_2), leaving behind the A. as the teroxide (Sb_2O_3). The roasted mass is now mixed with one-sixth of its weight of powdered charcoal, the whole moistened with a solution of carbonate of soda, and raised to bright redness in crucibles, when the metal A. trickles to the bottom, and the impurities are left above in the spent flux or scoria, which is known in the arts by the name of *crocus* of A.

The compounds of A. are numerous: with oxygen it forms (1) the *terasule* of A., or *white A. ore* (Sb_2O_3), which enters into the composition of tartar emetic; (2) *antimonious acid* (SbO_4), which forms one of the components of Dr James's powders; (3) *antimonic acid* (SbO_5), a very insoluble compound, obtained by acting upon the metal with concentrated nitric acid. With sulphur, A. forms the *tersulphide* (Sb_2S_3) already referred to as a natural ore of the metal, and which when roasted at a temperature sufficient to fuse it, passes into the mixed teroxide and tersulphide of A. known commercially as the *glass* of A. A native oxysulphide, of a pretty red colour, is called *red A. ore.* When the ordinary sulphide of A. is boiled with potash, or the carbonate of potash, it dissolves; and thereafter, on boiling, deposits a reddish-brown substance, known as *mineral kermes.* The liquid from which the deposit has fallen, if treated with hydrochloric acid, throws down an orange precipitate of *golden sulphide* of A.

There is also a chloride of A. ($SbCl_3$) prepared by heating sulphide of A. and hydrochloric acid together, and which has the common name of butter of A. It is generally obtained as an oily liquid, of the consistence of melted butter, and of a golden yellow colour. Mixed with olive oil, it is used by gunmakers as *bronzing salt,* to impart a yellow colour to gun-barrels. The surface of the metal is afterwards polished by a burnisher, or coated with a varnish.

The various compounds of A. are used as medicinal agents, both in human and veterinary practice, especially the *tartar emetic,* a compound of teroxide of A., potash, and tartaric acid (SbO_3,KO,T).

ANTINO'MIANISM (Gr. *anti,* against, and *nomos,* law), the doctrine or opinion that Christians are freed from obligation to keep the law of God. It is generally regarded by the advocates of the doctrine of justification by faith, as a monstrous abuse and perversion of that doctrine, upon which it usually professes to be based. From several passages of the New Testament, as Rom. vi., and 2 Pet. ii. 18, 19, it would seem that a tendency to A. had manifested itself even in the apostolic [illegible] many of the Gnostic sects were really antis. [illegible] were probably also some of the heretics [illegible] middle ages; but the term was first [illegible] time of the Reformation, when it was [illegible] Luther to the opinions advocated by [illegible] Agricola had adopted the principles of [illegible] mation; but in 1527 he found fault with [illegible] for recommending the use of the law, [illegible] larly of the ten commandments, in order to [illegible] conviction and repentance, which he declared [illegible] sistent with the gospel. Ten years after [illegible] tained in a disputation at Wittenberg, that [illegible] are justified simply by the gospel, the law [illegible] way necessary for justification or for [illegible]. The 'Antinomian Controversy' of [illegible] Luther took a very active part, to which [illegible] in a retractation by Agricola; [illegible] extreme than his were afterwards [illegible] some of the English sectaries of the [illegible] Commonwealth; and, without being formally professed by a distinct sect, A. has been from time to time reproduced with various modifications. [illegible] ought, however, to be borne in mind, that A. has no reference to the *conduct,* but only to *opinions* of men; so that men who practically regard and violate the known law of God are therefore antinomians; and it is certain that men really holding opinions [illegible] antinomian, have in many cases been [illegible] life. It is also to be observed that the term has been applied to opinions differing widely from each other. In its most extreme [illegible] the rejection of the moral law as [illegible] upon Christians; and a power or privilege [illegible] for the saints to do what they please, [illegible] judice to their sanctity; it being [illegible] them nothing is sinful; and [illegible] the perfection of Christian liberty. [illegible] extreme A., than which nothing can be [illegible] nant to Christianity, there is also sometimes [illegible] nated by this term the opinion of those who [illegible] to seek or to see in the Bible any rule [illegible] binding upon Christians, and regard [illegible] the guidance of gospel principles and [illegible] of Christian love; an opinion which, [illegible] be thought of its tendency, is certainly [illegible] deemed of the same character. [illegible] Probably, the A. that does not arise

:y, usually originates in mistaken notions
in liberty, or in confusion of views as to
en between the moral law and the Jewish
ceremonial ordinances.

'INOUS, a beautiful youth of Claudiopolis,
ia. He was page to the Emperor Hadrian,
object of his extravagant affection, accom-
him in all his travels, but was either
accidentally in the river Nile, or as some
committed suicide, from a loathing of the
ed, in 122 A. D. His memory and the grief
emperor were perpetuated by many statues
reliefs, of which several are very beautiful,
ally two now in Rome—one found in the
and the other in the villa of Hadrian. 'In
ures of A.,' says Winckelmann, 'the face
rather melancholy expression; the eyes are
with fine outlines; the profile is gently sloped
s; and the mouth and chin are especially
The city of Besa, in the Thebais, near
A. was drowned, was also rebuilt by
, and the name of Antinoöpolis conferred
, in memory of his favourite. A. was
enrolled amongst the gods, and temples
d to him in Egypt and Greece.

'IOCH, the ancient capital of the Greek
of Syria, was the most magnificent of the
cities of that name built by Seleucus Nicator.
ation was admirably chosen. The river
issuing from the mountains of Lebanon,
as far as the 36th parallel of latitude,
south-west into the Levant. On the
nk of the river, after it has taken this last
ion, and at a distance of twenty miles from
, lay the famous city, in the midst of a fertile
eautiful plain, ten miles long by five broad.
harbour, Seleucia, it had communication
the maritime cities of the West, while it
, on the other hand, an emporium for the
dise of the East; for behind it lay the
Syrian desert, across which travelled the
ns from Mesopotamia and Arabia. On the
the plain of A. is bounded by the mountain-
of Amanus, connected with the south-eastern
of Mount Taurus; and on the south, which
.ocky, by the broken declivities of Mount
from which the ancient town was distant
a two miles. In early times, a part of the
ood upon an island, which has now disap-
. The rest was built partly on the plain, and
on the rugged ascent towards Mount Casius.
lopes above the city were covered with vine-
while the banks of the river displayed, as
lo even at the present day, a gorgeous pro-
of eastern fruit-trees. The ancients called
the Beautiful,' 'the Crown of the East,' &c.
a favourite residence of the Seleucid princes
the wealthy Romans, and was famed through-
e whole world for the abundance of its con-
es and the splendour of its luxury. It received
-trabo the name of *Tetrapolis*, on account
ee new sites having been successively built
and each surrounded with a wall. Its public
s were magnificent. The principal were the
; the Senate-house; the Temple of Jupiter,
hed with gold; the Theatre, Amphitheatre,
esarium, besides an aqueduct, a public pro-
le, and innumerable baths. At the beginning
Roman empire, it was as large as Paris, and
any generations after, continued to receive
ous embellishments from the emperors. Nor
glory fade immediately after the founding of
antinople, for though it then ceased to be the
ity of the East, it rose into new dignity as
stian city. Ten councils were held in it.
Churches sprang up exhibiting a new style of architecture, which soon became prevalent; and even Constantine himself spent a considerable time here, adorning it, and strengthening its harbour, Seleucia. The Antiochenes themselves, however, brought about the ruin of their beautiful city. They were famous, above all other people in ancient times, for their biting and scurrilous wit, and for their ingenuity in devising nicknames; and when the Persians, under Chosroes, invaded Syria in 538 A. D., the Antiochenes could not refrain from jesting at them. The Persians took ample revenge by the total destruction of the city, which, however, was rebuilt by Justinian. The next important event in its history was its conquest by the Saracens in the 7th c. In the 9th c. it was recovered by the Greeks under Nicephorus Phocas, but in 1084 it again fell into the hands of the Mohammedans. The Crusaders besieged and took it on the 3d of June 1098. At the close of the 13th c., the sultan of Egypt seized it: since then, it has undergone a variety of vicissitudes, and at present forms a portion of Syria, in the eyalet of Aleppo. Its modern name is *Antakieh*. It exhibits almost no traces of its former grandeur, except the ruins of the walls built by Justinian, and of the fortress erected by the Crusaders. The houses are generally of stone, and roofed with red tiles; the streets are narrow; the manufactures few and unimportant. The population is variously reckoned at from 6000 or 7000 to 16,000 or 18,000.

ANTIOCHUS, a common Greek name, was borne by thirteen kings of Syria, four kings of Commagene (a small country between the Euphrates and Mount Taurus), and many other persons of note (see Smith's *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography*). A. Soter, the first of the Syrian dynasty, or Seleucidæ, as they were called from their founder, was the son of Seleucus, the general and one of the successors of Alexander. A. was the fruit of one of those marriages which Alexander celebrated at Susa between his generals and the princesses of Persia. His mother's name was Apama. From this fact we gather that A. was probably born in 324 B.C. For the earlier career of A., see SELEUCUS. On the murder of his father in 280 B.C., A. succeeded him in his dominions, but he afterwards permitted Antigonus Gonatas to retain possession of Macedonia on his marrying Phila, a daughter of Seleucus. A. was much occupied in wars with the Gauls, who invaded Asia Minor, and, on one occasion, is said to have gained a victory over them by the help of his elephants, from which circumstance he derived the name of Soter (Saviour). He was subsequently killed in a battle with the Gauls (261 B.C.), and was succeeded by his son A. II. This A. is mentioned in the Book of Daniel (xi. 6) as the king of the north—the king of the south being Ptolemy, whose daughter, Berenice, A. had been compelled to marry. On the death of Ptolemy, A. recalled his former wife, Laodice; but she, in revenge for the insult which she had received, caused A. to be murdered, along with Berenice and her son. A. lost the provinces of Parthia and Bactria.

But the most distinguished of the Seleucidæ was A. III., surnamed the Great, who was the son of Seleucus Callinicus, and grandson of the preceding. In his earlier wars with Ptolemy, Philopator A. was generally successful; and though he was defeated in a great battle fought near Gaza, he afterwards, by his victory over the Egyptian general, Scopas, obtained entire possession of Palestine and Cœle-Syria. In this war he was assisted by the Jews, to whom he granted many privileges. Fearing the power of the Romans, A. at length concluded a peace with Egypt, betrothed his daughter Cleopatra to the young king Ptolemy,

and gave her Cœle-Syria and Palestine as a dowry. The formidable enemy which he thus hoped to escape encountered him at a later period of his career. Having conquered Philip of Macedonia, the Romans no longer dreaded a war with A., and accordingly sent him an embassy, demanding the surrender of the Thracian Chersonese, and of the places which he had conquered from Ptolemy, whose guardian the Romans had become. In 191 B. C., he was entirely defeated by the consul Acilius Glabrio at Thermopylæ, and compelled to return to Asia. Having a second time tried the fortune of war, he was defeated by Scipio, who had crossed over into Asia, and very severe terms were imposed on him. He found so much difficulty in raising money to pay the tribute the Romans demanded, that he was led to plunder a temple in Elymais, when the people rose against him, and killed him (187 B. C.). The fate of A. was foretold in the Book of Daniel (xi. 18, 19).

A. IV., (175—164 B. C.) surnamed Epiphanes, by his tyranny and sacrilege, excited the Jews to a successful insurrection under their leaders Mattathias, Judas Maccabæus, and the other members of that heroic family. The monstrous life of A. is recorded in the books of the Maccabees. The last of the Seleucidæ, A. XIII., surnamed Asiaticus, was deprived of his kingdom by Pompey, who reduced Syria to a Roman province (65 B. C.).

ANTIPÆDOBA'PTIST, a term exactly designating one who objects to child-baptism. As such a one, however, is generally known in this country under the name Baptist, see BAPTIST.

ANTI'PAROS (anciently called Olearos or Oliaros), one of the Cyclades islands, celebrated for a stalactitic cave, is separated from Paros by a narrow strait. It contains about 400 inhabitants, and forms a part of the eparchy of Naxos. A. is 7 miles in length by about 3 in breadth; it is scantily supplied with water, but the flats in the north and west are tolerably fertile. Corn and wine are cultivated, but not to any great extent. The principal occupation of the inhabitants is fishing. From Kastron, the only village in the island, the distance to the celebrated grotto is about an hour and a half's ride. This wonderful cave is not alluded to by any Greek or Roman writer whose works are extant, but must have been visited by the curiosity-hunters of antiquity, for, in 1806, Colonel Leake deciphered a Hellenic inscription which contained the names of those who had descended into it in ancient times. It is situated in the side of a mountain on the S. coast of the island, which is described as a mass of white marble. The top or entrance of the cave has a striking appearance; but the sloping descent is rather dangerous, on account of the cord by which the traveller holds being extremely slippery from constant humidity. The bottom once reached, and the grotto entered, there is presented to the eye as dazzling a specimen of stalactitic formation as can well be conceived—the roof, floor, and walls of the various chambers, all glittering with the most gorgeous incrustation, though it is said that the smoke of the torches and the constant fingering of visitors, are sullying the primitive purity of the massive columns. It is believed that there are other caves of equal splendour in the vicinity which have not yet been discovered. The height of the known cavern is 80 feet; its length and breadth more than 300; but it seems the eye can only take in at once a length of 150 feet, and a breadth of 100. The grotto was first made known to the modern world in 1673, by the then French ambassador to the Porte, M. de Nointel.

ANTI'PATER. Of the many persons who bore this name in antiquity, the most celebrated was one of the generals and confidential friends of King Philip of Macedon. When Alexander led his troops into Asia, he left A.—who, along with Parmenio, had endeavoured to dissuade him from the expedition—as governor of Macedonia. A. discharged the duties of this office with great ability, suppressing the insurrections in Thrace and Sparta; but Olympias, the mother of Alexander, who entertained a dislike to A., prevailed on her son to appoint Craterus as regent of Macedonia. Alexander, prompted also, it is supposed, by his own jealousy of A., consented, but died before the change was carried into effect; and A. was left to share with Craterus the government of Alexander's territories in Europe. The government of Macedonia was assigned to him; and soon after, he was called upon to defend himself against an alliance of the Grecian states. With the assistance of Craterus—on whom he afterwards bestowed his daughter Phila in marriage—and to a certain extent of Leonnatus, he succeeded in reducing the allies to subjection. Democracy at Athens was abolished, a garrison admitted into Munychia, and the leaders of the popular party put to death. When Demosthenes was summoned to the presence of A., he took poison, which for some time he had been carrying on his person, and died in the temple of Poseidon (322 B.C.). This war was followed by another with Perdiccas, who was also his son-in-law, in which A. was again successful. After the murder of Perdiccas in 321 B.C., A. was appointed to the supreme regency of the kingdom, and the guardianship of Alexander's children. He died at an advanced age, in B.C. 318 or 319, leaving the regency to Polysperchon, to the exclusion of his own son Cassander.

The others of this name were: I. A., second Cassander, king of Macedonia, who lived in the B.C.—II. A., the father of Herod the Great flourished in the days of Pompey and Ju[illegible] was a firm friend of the Romans, and about 47 B.C. was appointed procurator of Ju[illegible] was poisoned in 43 B.C. by one whose [illegible] twice saved.—III. A., grandson of the [illegible] son of Herod the Great by his first wife worthless prince, who was perpetually co against the life of his brothers, until his [illegible] condemnation at Jerusalem before Quintilius V the Roman governor of Syria. He was co in prison five days before Herod died, and [illegible] same year with the massacre of the inno Bethlehem.

A. was likewise the name of various eminent men in ancient times—physicians, philosophers, historians, poets, mathematicians, and grammarians.

ANTI'PATHY is the term applied to a [illegible] of cases in which individuals are dis[illegible] affected by, or violently dislike, things [illegible] or agreeable to the majority of mankind. [illegible] peculiarities are no doubt sometimes [illegible] early life by injudiciously terrifying c[illegible] some object, the mental impression bec[illegible] ent. A large class of persons have a[illegible] food, and from childhood refuse to taste it. others, again, the aversion is limited to one kin[illegible] meat, as veal or pork; others are averse to milk. Nor is this feeling a conscious caprice[illegible] an exertion of the will might remove; generally found that contact with the objec[illegible] A. is resented by the bodily economy, and of poisoning are rapidly produced. Some with these symptoms who have no mer[illegible] to the article. We read of a count[illegible] a liking for beef-udder, but directly it [illegible] lips they became swollen. There is a boy, who, 'if at any time he ate of

would swell, in his face would rise purple and black spots, and he would froth at the mouth.' Some medicines affect particular persons dangerously, even when given in very minute doses: a single grain of mercury has been known to induce a profuse salivation, with destruction of the jaw-bones. On others, medicines have a peculiar effect—astringents may purge. Every summer, in Great Britain, persons may be seen with the most distressing irritation of the nasal and palpebral mucous membranes, produced by the exhalations arising from the fields during the inflorescence of the hay-crop. In others, an asthmatic condition is induced by the same cause. The air of some places has a similar influence on individuals: a gentleman was always attacked with asthma if he slept in the town of Kilkenny, and another only escaped a fit of that complaint, if he slept anywhere else.

Still more remarkable antipathies are those affecting the special senses. Nearly all persons have a dislike at reptiles, but some few *faint* on *seeing* a toad or lizard, others on seeing insects. 'The Duke of Anjou swooned at sight of a leveret—a hare did not produce the same effect. Tycho Brahé fainted at the sight of a fox, Henry III. of France at that of a cat, and Marshal d'Albert at a pig.'—*Millingen.* The *hearing* a wet finger drawn on glass, the grinding of knives, or a creaking wheel, is sufficient to produce fainting in some. *Smelling* musk or ambergris throws some into convulsions; and we have seen particles of food affect others—often, no doubt, from a too perverted taste. The *touch* of anything unusually smooth has the same effect sometimes. Hufeland records the case of a lady who was thus affected by the feeling of silk, satin, or the velvety surface of a peach.—This subject will be further considered under IDIOSYNCRASIES.

ANTIPHLOGISTIC (Gr. *anti*, against, and *phlogo*, I burn), a term applied to remedies, and also to regimen, that are opposed to inflammation; such as blood-letting, purgatives, low diet, &c.

ANTIPHON, the earliest of the ten Attic orators in the Alexandrine canon, was the son of Sophilus the Sophist, and born at Rhamnus in Attica 480 B.C. In his youth, the reputation of Gorgias, the most showy and insincere of all the Greek rhetoricians, was at its height. A. soon became convinced of the worthlessness of that oratory which the fashion of the time so highly valued, and resolved to introduce a new and better kind. He laboured to make his arguments clear, solid, and convincing, so that it might be impossible for the judges who listened to the speeches he wrote to refuse their assent to his propositions. His success was unmistakable. Although he never made a public appearance as a pleader in the courts of justice, but contented himself with writing speeches for others to deliver, he acquired great influence, which he did not fail to exert for the furtherance of his political principles. To him must be attributed the overthrow of the Athenian democracy (411 B.C.), and the establishment of the oligarchical government of the Four Hundred; for although Pisander figured prominently before the people in this revolution, the whole affair, according to Thucydides—one of A.'s pupils in oratory, and a man admirably fitted to judge of such a point—was secretly planned by him. The oligarchical government did not prosper. Dissensions quickly broke out among the Four Hundred, and six months after, Alcibiades, the brilliant demagogue, was recalled. A. was brought to trial for treason, in having attempted to negotiate peace with Sparta. He is said to have made a noble defence of himself. Thucydides affirms that an abler was never made by any man in a similar position. It was his first and last oration. He was condemned to death; his property was confiscated, his house razed to the ground, his remains forbidden interment in Attica, and his children for ever declared incapable of enjoying civic privileges. Of the 60 orations of A. which the ancients possessed, only 15 have come down to us. Three of these are written for others, and are greatly admired for their clearness, purity, and vigour of expression; the remaining 12 appear to have been intended as specimens of school-rhetoric for his pupils. They are not held in equal estimation with the others.

ANTI'PHONY, a name given by the ancient Greeks to a species of musical accompaniment in the octave, by instruments or voices, in opposition to that executed in unison, which they called *Homophony*. A. is also the name of a species of sacred song, sung by two parties, each responding to the other; a practice which was cultivated in the early ages of the Hebrews, Greeks, and Romans. Many of the Psalms of David shew that antiphonal singing was then in use. Its introduction into the Greek Church is ascribed to Ignatius, Bishop of Antioch, in the 2d c.; and Ambrosius, Bishop of Milan, is said to have introduced it into the Western Church, in the 4th c. The dividing of the antiphonies into verses, with rules regarding the same, is attributed to Pope Celestin in 432. Pope Gregory I., in 590, prepared the first regular *Antiphonarium* (see *Durandi Rationale Divinorum Officiorum*, Mainz, 1459). It was early a custom, which became especially common after the 13th c., to date deeds with the beginning words of the A. (*Introitus*), which in these times served for the day of the month and of the week. The Reformed Christian Churches of Germany and England have still retained a certain degree of antiphonal singing. The chanting of the Psalms in the English cathedral service is an imitation of the ancient antiphony.

ANTI'PODES, a word of Greek origin, signifying, literally, those who have their feet over against each other. As applied to geography, the term means the inhabitants of any two opposite points of the globe, or, in other words, the dwellers at the opposite extremities of any diameter of the earth. From this primary relation, there necessarily arise many secondary relations. A. must be on one and the same meridional circle, separated from each other by half the circumference. Being on one and the same meridional circle, they must differ in long. exactly 180°, with the exception of the poles themselves, as having no longitude at all; and being separated from each other by half the circumference, they must be equidistant from the equator in opposite directions. Take Edinburgh, as an example, in lat. 55° 57′ N., and long. 3° 11′ W.; its A. must be in lat. 55° 57′ S., and in long. 183° 11′ W., or rather in 176° 49′ E.—which is merely an undistinguishable spot in the Antarctic or Southern Ocean. Take, as another example, London, in lat. 51° 30′ N., and long. 0° 5′ W. Its A. must be in lat. 51° 30′ S., and in long. 180° 5′ W., or rather 179° 55′ E.—coinciding pretty nearly with a small island to the south-east of New Zealand. This small island, in honour rather of London than of itself, has appropriated the term A. as its own peculiar name.

Between A. in general there necessarily exist also other secondary relations. With reference to the earth's daily rotation, the noon of the one side must be the midnight of the other; while, with regard to its annual revolution, the summer and the autumn of the one side must be the winter and the spring of the other. With respect, however, to the former contrast, some explanation may be required. This,

for instance, being Wednesday in London, was last midnight in that city the noon of Tuesday or of Wednesday at A. Island? The answer is, that, according to circumstances, it may be held to be either the one or the other. In going eastward—that is, in meeting the sun—one, from day to day, anticipates every noon and every midnight in the proportion of 4′ of time to 1° of long., or of 12 hours of time to 180° of long.; so that, on reaching A. Island from London by the Cape of Good Hope, the middle of Tuesday night, by Greenwich reckoning, is actually regarded on the spot as the noon of Wednesday. In going westward, again—that is, in leading, as it were, the sun—one, from day to day, postpones every noon and every midnight in the same proportion as above; so that, on reaching A. Island from London by Cape Horn, the middle of Tuesday night, by Greenwich reckoning, is actually regarded on the spot as the noon of Tuesday. In fact, navigators in opposite directions, meeting at any intermediate point whatever of the earth's circumference, always differ in their computation of time by a whole day, or 24 hours. In two cases, this has been permanently exemplified: the Spaniards at the Philippines, who have come from the east, are a day behind the Portuguese in Macao, who have come from the west; while, on the north-west coast of America, the Russians from the west were a day in advance of the British from the east.

ANTIPOPE was a pontiff elected in opposition to one canonically chosen. The first antipope is reputed to be Laurentius, elected 398, in opposition to Symmachus. Several emperors of Germany set up popes against those whom the Romans had elected without consulting them. Otho the Great displaced successively two bishops of Rome; and when Sylvester III. had expelled the simoniacal and profligate pope Benedict IX., Conrad II., king of Germany, brought back this worthless pastor, who hastened to sell his dignity to Gregory VI. There were now, consequently, three popes, and their number was increased to four by the election of Clement II. in 1046. Shortly after, Alexander II. found a rival in Honorius II.; and in 1080 the same unseemly spectacle was witnessed, when Henry IV., emperor of Germany, elevated to the papal chair Guibert of Ravenna, under the title of Clement III., in opposition to his implacable adversary, Gregory VII. But after the death of Gregory, Clement was himself opposed successively by Victor III. and Urban II., and at last died at a distance from Rome, having just beheld the exaltation of Pascal II. as the successor of Urban. During the 12th c., several antipopes flourished, such as Gregory VIII. and Honorius III. On the death of the latter, France began to intermeddle in these disgraceful strifes, and upheld the cause of Innocent II. against Anacletus; while the kings of Sicily, on the other hand, more than once set up a pontiff of their own against the choice of the emperors. Between 1159 and 1378, there were four antipopes; but the most remarkable epoch is 'the great schism of the West,' produced by these disedifying rivalries in 1378—a schism which divided the Church for fifty years. It broke out after the death of Gregory XI., at the election of Urban VI., whom the voice of the Roman people, demanding an Italian pope, and not one who should fix his pontificate, like several of his predecessors, at a distance from Rome, had elevated to the papal throne. The French cardinals objected, withdrew to Provence, and elected a new pope, under the name of Clement VII., who was recognised by France, Spain, Savoy, and Scotland; whilst Italy, Germany, England, and the whole north of Europe, supported Urban VI. These two popes excommunicated each other; nor did they even fear to compromise their sacred character by the most cruel outrages and the most odious insults. The schism continued after their death, when three popes were elected by different parties, all of whom were deposed by the Council of Constance in 1415, and Cardinal Colonna elected in their room, under the title of Martin V. The last antipope was Clement VIII. With him the schism ceased. These divisions are often alleged as an argument against the doctrine of papal infallibility; but Catholics consistently affirm that the privilege of infallibility is only claimed in matters of doctrine, and has no relation to questions of fact, such as disputed succession, or canonicity of election. See Pope.

ANTIQUARIES, SOCIETY OF. Under this name, associations of learned men, established for the exclusive purpose of cultivating the study of antiquities, exist in the principal countries of Europe and in America—at London, Edinburgh, Paris, Rome, Vienna, Copenhagen, &c. The London Society of A. received its charter in 1751, but had commenced its meetings as early as 1707; minutes began to be kept in 1718. Long previous to this, in 1572, an Antiquarian Society was established by Archbishop Parker and Sir Robert Cotton. It was dissolved about 1604 by King James, who regarded the inquiries of the A. with suspicion. The present 'Society of A. of London' consists of a president, a council of 21, and several hundred Fellows. It has published a number of valuable works, among the most inte which is a series of Anglo-Saxon and literary remains. The Scottish Society founded in 1780. It has published four Transactions, nine of Proceedings, and sev laries, besides having collected a valuable which has now become national propert arranged for permanent exhibition at the of the government. The *Société des A de France* took that name in 1814, founded in 1805 as the *Académie C* the change of name, the sphere of labours was greatly enlarged. It many important works. A similar i *Société des Antiquaires de Norm* Caen in 1824. The Copenhagen body of high reputation. See ARCHÆOL

ANTIQUE. As the term ancients is co applied to the Greeks and Romans, the wo used with reference to their works of art cially their incomparable sculptures. The A in works of art is distinguished by critics fr Romantic or Medieval, and also from the The sculpture of the Greeks is characte freshness, originality, and ideality; and it underwent have their parallels in the of the literature and general culture In the earliest times, the statues ha character, and looked more like barous nations than deities in hu a came stern, Titan-like forms, corr Prometheus of Æschylus; next, Phidias, Polycletes, and Polygnotus—lik acters in the dramas of Sophocles—pres humanity in its purest and noblest ide Then, as Euripides in poetry left the old destiny, and derived motives and action nary human passions, so statuary dese the ideal to a closer resemblance to actual life; as we see in the works of Lysippus. Afterwards, when Aristo duced comedy, forms of everyday appear in sculpture; and thus a gra was made from the art of the Gre ideal, in the true sense of the wo Romans, which was real, monumen

like. The Romans were the realists of the ancient world; their indigenous philosophy was of a popular kind; their poetry, so far as it was national, was entire; and their works of art may be regarded as monuments and portraitures of real life, quite suitable for a nation of soldiers, lawyers, and politicians, but vastly inferior to the ideal beauty displayed in the best period of Grecian art.

ANTIQUITIES. See ARCHÆOLOGY.

ANTIRRHINUM. See SNAPDRAGON.

ANTISCORBUTICS. See SCURVY.

ANTISEPTICS are substances which arrest putrefactive changes that dead vegetable and animal matter is liable to undergo when exposed to warmth, and moisture. A. are therefore antiseptics; and the term itself indicates the office of the members of the class fulfil (*anti*, against, *sēptikos*, putrefactive). The theory of the action of A. is, that one or two of the three indispensable conditions of putrefaction—viz., 1, a moderate warmth, 2, access to air, and 3, moisture—are arrested or neutralised. Thus, in the preservation of fish in transit or during transport by railway, they are packed in barrels with ice, which keeps down the temperature; and though air and moisture gain access, yet the putrefactive processes cannot go on. The same preservative power of cold is employed naturally in the discovery of remains of mammoth and other animals imbedded in the ice of the polar regions, and which doubtless have been preserved up there for ages. In a less degree, the influence of cold as an antiseptic is observed in the longer preservation of meat, eggs, and other animal matters kept in winter than in summer.

Again, warmth and moisture may be present, but if the air be excluded, putrefaction does not go on. The ordinary mode of preparing *preserved meats* affords the best illustration of this point. The substance to be preserved is placed in a tin dish covered with a lid, and leaving a very small opening. When the dish and its contents is heated, the air which fills the pores of the solids, and is dissolved in the juices, is driven off, and escaping by the aperture in the cover of the dish, leaves the contents devoid of air. If the opening be now closed with solder, the air is prevented from returning; and whatever climate the preserved meat be sent to, yet so long as the tin casing remains good, and refuses to admit the air, so long will the contents continue wholesome and eatable. The common plan of preserving eggs by rubbing over the shell with tallow or oil, is based on the principle of filling up the pores of the shell, so as to deny the admission of the air. Moisture is likewise necessary for the process of putrefaction. Thus, if the contents of an egg be turned out on a plate, and thoroughly dried in an oven, the whole becomes of a hard, horny consistency, and may be kept in this state for years without exhibiting the slightest symptom of passing into a putrid or rotten condition. In the same way meat may be kept quite fresh by depriving it of moisture. Eggs dried up in this manner require to be soaked in cold water, and then boiled, will present themselves in a condition differing in flavour and taste from an ordinary egg.

The important chemical A. are—Alcohol, spirit, creasote, pitch-oil, coke-oil, sugar, tannic acid, sulphurous acid, common salt, nitre, alum, chloride of zinc, sulphate of copper (blue vitriol), chloride of copper, corrosive sublimate, arsenic.

The manner in which these A. act is very different.—1. Sulphurous acid acts by combining with the oxygen, and thereby deoxidising the substance. 2. Sirup of sugar acts by combining with the water of the substance to be preserved. 3. Creasote, tannic acid, alum, chloride of zinc, sulphate of copper, corrosive sublimate, and arsenic, are useful in forming compounds with the organic matter, which are not so liable to become putrescent as the uncombined organic substance. 4. Alcohol, wood-spirit, common salt and nitre, act in a double way, by combining with the water of the putrescible substance, and by combining with the substance itself, so as to form a more durable compound.

Some of the more important uses to which the chemical A. are applied are—1. In the preservation of anatomical specimens, where alcohol, and less often, chloride of zinc, are the agents; 2. In the curing of herring and other fish, where common salt is generally used; 3. In preparing corned or salted meat and tongues, where common salt and nitre are jointly employed; and 4. In the manufacture of size for writing-papers, where the paper-maker uses sulphite of soda or antichlore (containing sulphurous acid) to arrest the decomposition of the scraps of hides used in the manufacture of size. In the preservation of timber, A. are also taken advantage of. The wood is placed in a steam-box, and the air contained in its pores being replaced by steam, the whole casing is closed tight, and allowed to cool, when the steam condenses, and leaves a vacuum in and around the block of wood. On the introduction thereafter of one of the A., it finds its way into the innermost pores of the timber. Wood thus prepared is not nearly so liable to decay as it ordinarily is; and the A. seem to act here not only directly in withdrawing water, and forming durable compounds, but in offering a poisonous dose to minute plants and animals which tend to house themselves in the wood. The use of sulphate of copper for this purpose was suggested by Bonchardat; of corrosive sublimate, by Kyan (hence the process was called *Kyanising*); and of chloride of zinc, by Sir W. Burnett (hence the term *Burnettising*).

ANTISTHENES, founder of the Cynic school of philosophy, was the son of A., an Athenian. The date of his birth is not known, but he fought in his youth at Tanagra (426 B.C.), and he survived the battle of Leuctra (371 B.C.), and died at Athens at the age of 70. After listening to the teaching of Socrates, he gave up the profession of rhetoric, which he had followed at first as a disciple of Gorgias, in order to apply himself wholly to the study of moral philosophy. He was present at the death of Socrates, and never forgave his persecutors. A. held that virtue mainly consists in voluntary abstinence from pleasure, and in a stern contempt of riches, honours, and even learning. Opinions of still greater extravagance are ascribed to A., but it is probable that they were rather extreme views, which he put into the mouths of the interlocutors in his dialogues, than expressions of those which he himself entertained. Even in his condemnation of pleasure, he excepted such as springs from the soul, or is founded on true friendship. In consistency with his teaching, A. appeared as a beggar, clad in ragged garments—an eccentricity which Socrates is said to have reproved by saying, 'I see your pride through the holes in your cloak.' The singularity affected by A. gained many imitators, and among them Diogenes, who chose to live in a tub, and surpassed the master himself in Cynic practice. After the death of Socrates, A. taught moral and practical philosophy in the Athenian gymnasium Cynosarges, from which, it is said, his school derived its title. His writings—among them a polemical work against Plato—have mostly perished. Such fragments as remain have been collected by

Winckelmann (*A., Fragmenta*, Turici, 1842). Ritter classes A. with the 'imperfect Socraticists.'

ANTI'THESIS (*tithēmi*, to place, *anti*, against), a figure of speech in which words are placed in direct opposition to each other, to produce a strong contrast. Thus Lessing, in criticism on a book, says: 'It contains many good things, and many new; but the good are not new, and the new are not good.' A., when naturally and moderately employed, gives liveliness to style; but, like all strong figures of speech, becomes wearisome when too often repeated.

ANTITRINITA'RIAN, one who denies the doctrine of the Trinity. An A. differs from a Unitarian only in this respect, that his objection to the doctrine in question is made on philosophical, while that of the latter is made on theological grounds. A Unitarian is one who accepts the Bible as inspired, but does not find in it the doctrine of the Trinity; an A. is, or may be, a philosophical theist, who denies the inspiration of Scripture. Mohammed, from the stand-point of a new and hostile religion, also denied this great Christian dogma. He announced himself, with fierce emphasis, an A.; and his followers to the present day are characterised by the intensity of their monotheism. See UNITARIAN and SOCINIAN.

A'NTITYPE, a Greek word, literally signifying a type or figure which corresponds to some other type or figure. In its theological sense, it denotes, not a type, but the person in whom any prophetic type is fulfilled; thus, Christ is called the A. of the paschal lamb. See TYPE.

A'NTIUM, one of the most ancient cities of Latium, stood on the coast 34 miles S.S.E. from Rome. Being favourably situated for commerce and piracy, it became, under the Volscians, into whose hands it had fallen, one of the most powerful enemies of rising Rome, until finally subdued (338 B.C.). It became a favourite resort of the wealthy Romans, and some of the most famous remains of ancient art have been discovered among the ruins of their villas and palaces; such as the Apollo Belvedere, and the Borghese Gladiator. It was the birthplace of the Emperors Caligula and Nero; and the latter constructed a splendid port by means of two moles enclosing a basin two miles in circumference. Remains of the moles still exist, although the basin is mostly filled up with sand.

Antium was completely destroyed by the Saracens during the middle ages; and it was only in the 17th c., when the port was very partially restored, that the modern village of PORTO D'ANZO arose, the population of which does not exceed 500. Near the village Nettuno, in the neighbourhood, the ruins of a temple of Neptune are discernible under the sea.

ANT-LION, the larva of an insect (*Myrmeleon formicarium*) of the order Neuroptera, remarkable for its habits, which have been carefully observed by some of the ablest naturalists of Europe. It inhabits sandy districts, is not known in Britain, and is more common in the south of Europe than in the north. The perfect insect is about an inch long, and has a considerable general resemblance to a dragon-fly. The larva is rather more than half an inch long; it has a very large abdomen, and a small head, which, however, is furnished with two very large incurved mandibles. It has six legs, but is incapable of rapid locomotion, and generally moves backwards. It feeds upon the juices of insects, particularly of ants, in order to obtain which it excavates with the greatest ingenuity a funnel-shaped hole in sandy ground, and lies in wait at the bottom, all but its mandibles buried in the sand. Insects which approach too near to the edge of the hole, then become its prey, by the loose sand giving way, so that they fall down the steep slope. If they fall quite to the bottom, but begin to climb again, the A. throws sand upon them by

Ant-lion:
a, larva; *b*, perfect insect.

head, and so brings them back. It uses its head in the same way to eject their bodies from the pit, after their juices have been sucked, and throws them to a considerable distance; and by the same means throws away the sand in excavating its pit, first ploughing it up with its body, and then shovelling upon its head by means of one of its fore-legs. It always begins by working round the circumference of its future hole, and gradually deepens it; turning quite round as it works round the hole, so as to use the fore-leg of the other side. When it meets a stone which it cannot remove, it deserts the position, and begins another. The pit, when complete, is usually about thirty inches in diameter by half as much in depth.

ANTOMMARCHI, FRANCESCO, a well-known physician and native of Corsica, was born in the latter half of the 18th c. He owes his celebrity entirely to his intimacy with Napoleon. It was during the exile of the latter in St Helena that he was induced to leave Florence, where he held the office of anatomical dissector in the hospital of Santa Maria Nuova of Florence, and went out as private physician to the banished emperor. There was at first little cordiality between the two men, subsequently Bonaparte conceived a high opinion of his countryman, and at his death left him 100,000 francs. In 1821, A. returned to Europe, and published at Paris *Les Derniers Moments de Napoléon*, a work which has been very widely read. He now became involved in a dispute with the heirs of Mascagni—his old anatomical master—regarding certain anatomical plates which he announced as on the eve of publication. He affirmed that A.'s lithographed drawings were copies from the plates of Mascagni, and the controversy went on briskly for some time. The public grew tired of it, when it gradually died away and was forgotten. On the breaking out of the Polish revolution, A. departed for Warsaw, and received the appointment of general of the military hospitals. He soon returned to Florence, where he published a cast of Napoleon's head, which he affirmed to have taken when the emperor was on his death-bed. This declaration at once involved him in a hot dispute with the phrenologists, who were not satisfied with the conformation of the head, and therefore cast suspicions—some of them apparently not altogether ill founded—on the truth of A.'s statements. Harassed by the attacks of his adversaries, and sick of further controversy, he left Europe about 1836, resolved to emigrate to America. He died at San Antonio, in Cuba, on the 3d of August 1838.

[T]ON ULRICH, second son of Duke Ferdi- Albert of Braunschweig-Wolfenbüttel (till Braunschweig-Bevern, the title by which the was first known in Russia), was born in 1714. n the Russian Empress Anna was looking out for alliance for her niece, Anna Carlowna, Princess ckleuburg-Schwerin, the influence of Austria led to choose A. U. Accordingly, he came to Russia 1733, was appointed colonel of a cuirassier regi- and placed in the receipt of a considerable n. The marriage was, however, long delayed. rincess shewed a decided distaste for the icant character of the bridegroom-elect, and arried him to avoid a still more hated union the son of Biron. The birth of the Prince took place in 1740, a year after the marriage. at the same time, the empress falling dangerously appointed the infant prince her successor, and a regent. After her death, A. U. made some le attempts to reverse this appointment, which led to the punishment of those supposed to instigated them, and to his own military diation. Biron's conduct towards the parents infant prince becoming unbearably insolent, appealed in despair to General Münnich, ut a sudden end to Biron's sway, and d the grand-duchess and her husband regents. a few months, Anna ungratefully overthrew After his fall, as little unity prevailed the ministers at the helm as between her- and her husband, and the government was d upon as both a foreign and a contemptible one. ame the revolution of the 5th December 1741, in one night raised Elizabeth (q. v.) to the ne. A. U. and his consort were exiled, and lived at Cholmogory, in the government of Archangel. children were born to them in exile. Anna d in 1746. Catharine II. offered A. U. his free- but he declined it. Ultimately, he grew blind. exact year of his death is uncertain, but it is osed to have taken place about 1780. Catharine d to his children an asylum in Jutland, where all died in comfortable circumstances.

ANTONELLI, GIACOMO, a distinguished cardinal, was born on the 2d of April 1806, at Sonnino, a village situated near the Pontine Marshes. His father, a woodcutter, sent A. to be educated at the Grand Seminary of Rome, where he proved himself one of the cleverest students of his time. He gained the favour of the late Pope Gregory XVI., who named him a *prelato*, and gave him some excellent ecclesiastical appointments. In 1841, A. became Under-secretary of State to the Ministry of the Interior; in 1844, Second Treasurer; and in the following year, Finance Minister of the two Apostolic Chambers. Pope Pius IX. having mounted the papal throne in 1846, raised A., during the next year, to the dignity of Cardinal-deacon of St Agatha alla Suburra. In 1848, A. was President and Minister of Foreign Affairs in a liberal cabinet, which framed the famous *Statuto* or Constitution, proclaimed in 1848, the principal articles of which were so very soon eluded. In the Œcumenical Council, which began its sittings in 1869, A. shewed great tact and ability in restraining the zeal and impetuosity of his impulsive master.

ANTONELLO (of Messina), a painter who holds a prominent position in the history of Italian art, was born probably about 1414, in Sicily. In his day, the paintings of Johann van Eyck (of Flanders) enjoyed a wide celebrity, and several specimens were brought to Naples, where A. saw one of them. Admiring the new style of oil-painting, he travelled into Flanders, and learned the secrets of the art from Van Eyck. Afterwards, he settled in Venice, and was the first Italian who painted in oil-colours, in which he gave instruction to many artists. He died probably in 1493. His works are now rather scarce. One, in the Museum at Berlin, bears the date 1445.

ANTONINUS, MARCUS AURELIUS, the son of Annius Verus and Domitia Calvilla, was born at Rome on the 20th of April 121 A.D. His original name was Marcus Annius Verus. On the death of his father, he was adopted by his grandfather, who spared no pains to render him pre-eminent in every art and science. His fine qualities early attracted the notice of the Emperor Hadrian, who used to term him, not *Verus*, but *Verissimus*, and who conferred high honours on him, even while a child. When only seventeen years of age, he was adopted, along with Lucius C. Commodus, by Antoninus Pius, the successor of Hadrian; and Faustina, the daughter of Pius, was selected for his wife. In the year 140 A.D. he was made consul; and from this period to the death of Pius, in 161 A.D., he continued to discharge the duties of his various offices with the greatest promptitude and fidelity. The relation which subsisted between him and the emperor was of the warmest and most familiar kind. On his accession to the throne, he strikingly illustrated the magnanimity of his character, by voluntarily sharing the government (which Pius had left in his last moments, and the senate offered to him *alone*) with young Commodus, who henceforth bore the name of Lucius Aurelius Verus, and to whom he gave his daughter Lucilla in marriage. Towards the close of 161 A.D., the Parthian War broke out, and Lucius, a young man of vigorous bodily habits, was sent to the frontiers of the empire, to repel the incursions of the barbarians; but intoxicated with the enervating pleasures of the East, he obstinately refused to go beyond Antioch, and intrusted the command of the army to his lieutenant Cassius, who gained several brilliant victories. Lucius returned to Rome (166 A.D.), and enjoyed a triumph to which he had no real claim; for all the great achievements of the war were accomplished by his officers, while he was revelling in the most extravagant licentiousness. In the meantime, Marcus Aurelius had distinguished himself by the prudence and energy with which he administered affairs at home. A formidable insurrection had long been preparing in the German provinces; the Britons were on the point of revolt, and the Catti waiting for an opportunity to devastate the Rhenish provinces. Within Rome itself raged a pestilence, believed to have been brought home by the troops of Lucius; frightful inundations and earthquakes had laid large portions of the city in ruins, destroyed the granaries in which were kept the supplies of corn, and thus created almost universal distress, which stimulated to an incalculable degree the terror which the citizens entertained of their savage enemies. To allay the popular perturbation, Marcus resolved to go forth to the war himself. Hecatombs were offered to the offended gods, and the Roman legions set out for the north. Marcus and Lucius were, for the time, completely successful. The pride of the Marcomanni, and the other rebellious tribes inhabiting the country between Illyria and the sources of the Danube, was humbled, and they were compelled to sue for peace in 168 A.D.; in the year after which Lucius died. The contest was renewed in 170 A.D., and may be said to have continued with little intermission during the whole life of the emperor. Although fond of peace, both from natural disposition and philosophic culture, he displayed the sternest vigour in suppressing the revolts of the barbarians; but in order to accomplish this, he had to enrol amongst his soldiery vast numbers of gladiators and slaves, for his army had been thinned by the

ravages of the plague. His head-quarters were Pannonia, out of which he drove the Marcomanni, whom he subsequently all but annihilated in crossing the Danube. The same fate befell the Jazyges; but the most famous as well as the most extraordinary of all his victories, was the miraculous one gained over the Quadi (174 A. D.), and which gave rise to copious discussion amongst Christian historians and others. Dion Cassius's account is, that the Romans were perishing of thirst in the heat of summer, when suddenly the cloudless sky darkened, and abundant showers fell, of which the soldiers were taking advantage when the barbarians attacked, and would have cut them to pieces, if a storm of hail and fire had not descended on the former. That some extraordinary phenomenon occurred is evident, for there is a letter of Aurelius still extant in which he commemorates the event; and the emperor was a man incapable of uttering a falsehood, not to mention that there was an entire army living to disprove the statement, if untrue. The effect of this remarkable victory was instantaneously and widely felt. The Germanic tribes hurried from all quarters to make their submission, and obtain clemency; but the practical advantages that might have resulted from it were nullified by a new outbreak in the East, occasioned through the infamous treachery of his own wife, which demanded his presence; and though suffering from failing health, he was obliged to leave Pannonia. Before his departure, however, he learned that the ambitious governor, Avidius Cassius, who had rebelled against him, and seized the whole of Asia Minor, had perished by assassination. The conduct of Marcus Aurelius on hearing of his enemy's death was worthy of the sublime virtue of his character. He lamented that the Fates had not granted him his fondest wish—to have freely pardoned the man who had so basely conspired against his happiness. Like Cæsar in similar circumstances, but in a more purely humane spirit, he received the head of his murdered adversary with quite opposite feelings to what had been anticipated, rejecting the bloody gift with all the loathing of a benevolent nature, and even shrinking from the presence of the murderers. On his arrival in the East, he exhibited the same illustrious magnanimity. He burned the papers of Cassius, without reading them, so that he might not be at liberty to suspect any as traitors; treated the provinces which had rebelled with extreme gentleness; disarmed the enmity, and dispelled the fears of the nobles who had openly favoured his insurgent lieutenant. While pursuing his work of restoring tranquillity, Faustina died in an obscure village at the foot of Mount Taurus; and her husband (and this was perhaps the single frailty of his character), though undoubtedly conscious of her glaring profligacy and infidelity, paid the most lavish honours to her memory.

On his way home, he visited Lower Egypt and Greece, displaying everywhere the noblest solicitude for the welfare of his vast empire, and drawing forth from his subjects, who were astonished at his goodness, sentiments of the profoundest admiration and regard. At Athens, which this imperial pagan philosopher must have venerated as a pious Jew did the city of Jerusalem, he shewed a catholicity of intellect worthy of his great heart, by founding chairs of philosophy for each of the four chief sects—Platonic, Stoic, Peripatetic, and Epicurean. No man ever laboured more earnestly to make that heathen faith which he loved so well, and that heathen philosophy which he believed in so truly, a vital and dominant reality. Towards the close of the year 176 A. D., he reached Italy, and celebrated his merciful and bloodless triumph on the 23d of December. In the succeeding autumn, he departed for Germany, where fresh disturbances had broken out among the [illegible] less and volatile barbarians. He was again successful in several sanguinary engagements; but his originally weak constitution, shattered by [illegible] anxiety and fatigue, at length sunk, and [illegible] either at Vienna, or at Sirmium, on the [illegible] 180 A. D., after a reign of twenty years.

Marcus Aurelius A. was the flower of philosophy. It seems al[illegible]st i[illegible]xalica[illegible] harsh and crabbed a[illegible]l[illegible] duced as pure and [illegible] as the records of [illegible] Christian history, [illegible] philosophic theolo[illegible] [illegible] stoicism was the most [illegible] practical philosophic theories, and the one which earnestly opposed itself to the rapidly in[illegible] licentiousness of the time, that the chaste l[illegible] the youth was drawn towards it. At twelv[illegible] of age, he avowed himself a follower Epictetus, &c. Stoics were his teachers— Apollonius, and Junius Rusticus: [illegible] he to be considered one of the most [illegible] of the school. Oratory he st[illegible] Atticus and Cornelius Fronto. [illegible] was insatiable. Even after he had attain[illegible] highest dignity of the state, he did not di attend the school of Sextus of Chæronea. of letters were his most intimate frie received the highest honours both wh[illegible] and dead. His range of studies was embracing morals, metaphysics, math prudence, music, poetry, and pai[illegible] we forget that these were cultivat[illegible] the spring-time of his life, when strong, and experience had not sadd[illegible] and when study was his only labou[illegible], but [illegible] tumults of perpetual war, and the distracti[illegible] sarily arising from the government of an empire. The man who loved peace with his soul, died without beholding it, and yet the [illegible] ing presence of war never tempted him to a mere warrior. He maintained uncon[illegible] end of his noble life his philosophic thropic aspirations. After his decea[illegible] felt to be a national calamity, every [illegible] and many others in distant portions procured an image or statue of him, [illegible] a hundred years after was still fou[illegible] household gods. He became almost [illegible] worship, and was believed to appear in dre the saints of subsequent Christian ages.

There is one feature in his character, h which it would be dishonest to pass o hostility, namely, to Christianity. He was [illegible] cutor of the new religion, and, it is clea strated, was cognizant, to a certain ext of the atrocities perpetrated upon Numerous explanations have been [illegible] conduct in this matter. The most p[illegible] that he for once allowed himself to [illegible] by evil counsellors; but a deeper reas[illegible] found in that very earnestness with which [illegible] to the old heathen faith of his ancest believed it to be true, and to be the p[illegible] those philosophies which had sprung up [illegible] same soil: he saw that a new religion, the of which had been assiduously, th[illegible] unconsciously, misrepresented to h[illegible] immoral superstition, and a myst[illegible] conspiracy, was secretly spreading empire, and that it would hold no [illegible] the older religion, but condemned the strongest terms. It was, [illegible] tively easy, even for so humane [illegible] it his duty to extirpate this [illegible]

John Stuart Mill finds in this tragical
great emperor a most striking warning
danger of interfering with the liberty
What he says is so completely in har-
above conception of the motives of
and is in itself so eloquent, that no
required in quoting the passage: 'If ever
sed of power had grounds for thinking
est and most enlightened among his
it was the Emperor Marcus Aurelius.
rch of the whole civilised world, he
life not only the most unblemished
less to be expected from his
tenderest heart. The few fail-
ch are
the dogmatic sense of the word, than
of the ostensibly Christian sovereigns
ance reigned, persecuted Christianity.
the summit of all the previous attainments
with an open, unfettered intellect, and a
which led him, of himself, to embody in his
Christian ideal, he yet failed to see
was to be a good and not an evil to
his duties to which he was so deeply
Existing society he knew to be in a
able state. But such as it was, he saw, or
he saw, that it was held together, and pre-
from being worse, by belief and reverence of
received divinities. As a ruler of mankind, he
his duty not to suffer society to fall in
saw not how, if its existing ties were
any others could be formed which could
it together. The new religion aimed
olving these ties: unless, therefore, it
to adopt that religion, it seemed to be
we put it down. Inasmuch, then, as the
of Christianity did not appear to him true,
rine origin; inasmuch as this strange history
crucified God was not credible to him, and a
which purported to rest entirely upon a
to him so wholly unbelievable, could not
by him to be that renovating agency
all abatements, it has in fact proved to be;
and most amiable of philosophers and
a solemn sense of duty, authorised the
Christianity. To my mind, this is one
tragical facts in all history. It is a better
how different a thing the Christianity of
world might have been, if the Christian faith
been adopted as the religion of the empire, under
auspices of Marcus Aurelius, instead of those of
Antine. But it would be equally unjust to him,
false to truth, to deny, that no one plea which
is urged for punishing Anti-christian teaching,
ing to Marcus Aurelius for punishing, as he
propagation of Christianity. No Christian
believes that atheism is false, and tends
olution of society, than Marcus Aurelius
same things of Christianity; he who, of
all then living, might have been thought the
capable of appreciating it. Unless any one
approves of punishment for the promulgation of
ons, flatters himself that he is a wiser and
man than Marcus Aurelius—more deeply
in the wisdom of his time—more elevated in
collect above it—more earnest in his search for
or more single-minded in his devotion to it
—let him abstain from that assumption of
ability of himself and the multitude,
A. made with so unfortunate a result.'

TONINUS PIUS, Titus Aure'lius Fulvus,
emperor (138—161 A.D.), was born in the
reign of Domitian (86 A.D.). The family of A. was originally from Nemausus, now Nîmes, in Gaul. A. inherited great wealth, and early gave proof of excellent qualities. In 120 he was made consul; afterwards was sent by Hadrian as proconsul into Asia, where the wisdom and gentleness of his rule won for him a higher reputation than had been enjoyed by any of his predecessors. By his wife Faustina he had four children, of whom three died, leaving a daughter, Faustina, afterwards wife of Marcus Aurelius. In 138 he was adopted by the Emperor Hadrian, in consequence of merit alone, and came to the throne in the same year. The reign of A. was proverbially peaceful and happy. In his private character, he was simple, temperate, and benevolent; while in public affairs he acted as the father of his people. The persecution of Christians, which was continued during his reign, was partly stayed by his mild measures. He was little engaged in war, excepting in Britain, where he extended the power of Rome, and built a wall between the Forth and the Clyde, as a defence against invasions by the predatory inhabitants of the north; but he was frequently employed in arbitration and general counsel on the affairs of foreign states. 'Happy the nation which has no history.' The reign of A. illustrates this saying, for by the justice, wisdom, kindliness, and courtesy of the emperor, his vast empire was preserved from the crimes, conspiracies, insurrections, and bloodshed, the recording of which formed the largest part of the historian's work in the dark centuries of the Roman empire. It is said that only *one* senator was impeached during A.'s lifetime.

Copper Coin of Antoninus Pius,
commemorative of his Victories in Britain, from one in the British Museum.

Literature received great encouragement; the laws were improved; commerce extended; the means of communication were facilitated by the repair of roads, bridges, &c.; new sanitary regulations were introduced; and a taste for architecture fostered in the citizens. The epithet Pius was conferred on him on account of his conduct in defending the memory of his predecessor Hadrian against certain dishonouring measures brought forward by the senate. A. died in 161 A.D. The column raised to his memory by his adopted son and successor, Marcus Aurelius Antoninus (q. v.), was discovered in 1709, and now exists only in fragments. The so-called Pillar of Antoninus, now in the *Piazza Colonna* at Rome, is that raised by the senate in honour of Marcus Aurelius, after his victory over the Marcomanni.

ANTONINUS, Itinerary of (*Antonini Itinerarium*), a valuable geographical work, containing the names of all the places and stations on the principal and cross roads of the Roman empire, with their distances from each other in Roman miles. It has been usually attributed to the Emperor M. Aurelius Antoninus, whence its name. The testimony, however, of the Greek geographer Æ
cus, author of the *Cosmographia*, assures us

a general survey of the Roman empire was commenced 44 B.C., in the consulship of Julius Cæsar and M. Antonius, and completed in the reign of Augustus, when the results of the survey received the sanction of the state. These results, it is with some probability inferred, are embodied in this *Itinerary*, which, it is further supposed, received additions and amendments in the time of the Antonines. Subsequent improvements were made down to the reign of Diocletian. The best editions are those of Wesseling (Amst. 4to, 1735), and Parthey (Berl., 1848).

ANTONI'NUS, WALL OF (*Antonini Vallum*), a barrier erected between the Firths of Forth and Clyde by the Romans, in the reign of Antoninus Pius, to restrain the encroachments of the native tribes. A fragment of a Roman pillar, which was at one time in the university of Edinburgh, fixes the date of its execution to 140 A.D. The superintendence of the work is generally attributed to the imperial legate Lollius Urbicus. Its length was about 27 English miles—the eastern termination being, according to two different suppositions, at Carriden, or at Kinniel, on the Forth; the western, at Old Kirkpatrick, or at Dunglass Castle, on the Clyde. The work consisted of a ditch about 20 feet deep and 40 wide, a rampart of earth and stone about 20 feet high and 24 feet thick at the base, and on the inner or south side of the rampart a paved military road. It was protected by a chain of nineteen forts, with watch-towers between. The line of the wall may still be traced to a considerable extent. The most perfect fragments are at Elf Hill, on the moor of Bonnieside, about a mile and a half from Castlecary; within the park of Callander House, near Falkirk; and on the slopes at Inveravon, not far from the railway station at Polmont. It is commonly designated *Graham's Dike*—a name given also to more than one ancient ditch and rampart in England. The best accounts of the Wall of Antonine are in Roy's *Military Antiquities of the Romans in North Britain* (Lond., 1793), and in Stuart's *Caledonia Romana* (2d. ed., Edin., 1852).

ANTO'NIUS, MARCUS (MARK ANTONY), the Roman triumvir, born in 83 B.C., a descendant of one of the oldest patrician families, was the son of the Prætor M. Antonius Creticus, and, on the side of his mother Julia, was related to Julius Cæsar. His youth was wasted in dissipation, and finding himself pressed by numerous impatient creditors, he escaped to Greece in 58 B.C., where, for a short time, he listened to the teaching of Athenian philosophers and orators. His studies here were soon interrupted by the Proconsul Gabinius, who appointed him as leader of his cavalry. In the campaign against Aristobulus in Palestine, and in Egypt, A. distinguished himself by his courage and activity, and ingratiated himself with the soldiers. After assisting Cæsar in Gaul, he went to Rome in 50 B.C., to advance the interests of the former, who stood in great danger from the hostility of the oligarchical party, and was appointed an augur, and chosen one of the tribunes of the people. In the following year, on account of his adherence to the party of Cæsar, he was expelled from the curia, and fled to Cæsar, who made use of this event as a pretext for his war against Pompey. At the outbreak of this war, A. received the appointment of commander-in-chief in Italy. In the battle of Pharsalia, he commanded the left wing of Cæsar's army. In 47, he was made Master of the Horse by Cæsar, who left him to govern Italy during his absence in Africa. Antony, as usual, disgraced himself; got perpetually drunk; divorced his wife, and married an actress, with whom he paraded

offensively through the ch
sula. In 44 B.C., he m
of Clodius; was made
voured to prevail on the
Cæsar as emperor. After the
he played the part so well described
and by his funeral oration, and th
display of Cæsar's bloody robe, so wrought
passions of the people, that the conspirators
compelled to escape from Rome, lea
ful orator for a while in possession o
power. Next, we find A. occupied
reconciliations with Octavianus (
sieging Mutina, and then denounce
enemy of the state. In 43 B.C., his
defeated at the battle of Mutina, whe
beyond the Alps; visited the camp of Lepi
commanded in Gaul; and gained the favo
army, of which he took the con
Pollio joined him with their
recently had escaped as a
Italy, returned to Rome at th
legions and 10,000 cavalry. Octavia
pretended to maintain republican p
threw off the mask, and held a consultatio
and Lepidus on the island of Reno (or Lavi
Bologna, when it was determined that
viri should share the whole Ro
themselves. To secure their spo
Rome, and began their course o
throughout Italy. Among th
Cicero, the orator whose eloquen
According to Appian, not less than
2000 knights fell under the power
After making Italy safe for themselves
an enormous sum of money to carry
abroad, A. and Octavianus led
Macedonia against Brutus and Ca
the republican forces. A. nex
Athens, and then went into A
dispute with Cleopatra, qu
conduct had offended the t
herself appeared to answer his
vated A. by her beauty and addr
who had overcome Brutus and Cassi
made a prisoner, though not of war.
Cleopatra into Egypt, and lived with
and luxury, until he was aroused by
quarrel which had taken place in
own relatives and Octavianus. T
rise to a short war, which came to
arrived in Italy. A new division o
now took place between the
quietly arranged at Brundus
and Octavianus took the We
of the feeble Lepidus was appeased by
the whole of Africa for his portio
shadow of dominion was taken fr
Meanwhile A. had confirmed hi
Octavianus by a marriage w
sister. He now returned to C
his former voluptuous mode of
the wealth of Rome in gifts to
tress, and became guilty of gross acts of
Octavianus made use of these facts to ex
indignation of the Roman people
a war between the rivals becam
A., in his idleness, tried to m
strength which he saw
filled the island of
quartered) with m
Meanwhile, at Rome, he w
triumvirate, and war was pro
Cleopatra. Each party collected it
the naval engagement which took place
Actium (q.v.), A. was defeated.

finding troops still faithful to him in Libya was appointed. He returned to Egypt, where, with Cleopatra, he once more forgot political cares and pleasures, until his amusements were suddenly interrupted by the arrival of Octavianus at Alexandria. A. now roused himself, made a charge with his cavalry, and repelled the enemy; but the success was only momentary. Deserted by the fleet, as by his own army, and suspecting that Cleopatra had conspired against him, he retired to her palace, from which the queen had previously fled. Deceived by a false message informing him of the death of Cleopatra, A. committed suicide by falling upon his sword, in the year 30 B.C.

ANTONIUS or ANTONY OF PADUA, SAINT, born at Lisbon, August 15, 1195, and, on the mother's side, was related to Godfrey of Bouillon. He was first a monk of the Augustine order, and in 1221 became one of the most active propagators of the order of Franciscans. On his missionary voyage to Africa, being cast on the coast of Italy, he preached with great success at Montpelier, Toulouse, Bologna, and Padua, where he died, June 13, 1231. The legends of A. are full of absurd fables. Among others, we are told that his eloquence as a preacher was so great that even the fish in the sea were deeply affected by it! His anniversary falls on June 13. His monument, a fine work of statuary, is in the church which bears his name at Padua.

ANTONY, SAINT, surnamed THE GREAT, and also ANTONY OF THEBES, the father of monachism, was born about the year 251 A.D., at Koma, near Heracleopolis, in Upper Egypt. His parents were both wealthy and pious, and bestowed on him a religious education. Having, in obedience to what he believed to be a divine injunction, sold his possessions, and distributed the proceeds among the poor, he withdrew into the wilderness, where he disciplined himself in all those austerities which have hallowed his memory in the Catholic Church, and formed the ideal of the monastic life. When 30 years of age, however, desirous of obtaining a deeper repose than his situation afforded, he penetrated further into the desert, and took up his abode in an old ruin on the side of a hill, where he spent twenty years in the most rigorous seclusion; but, in 305, he was persuaded to leave this retreat by the prayers of numerous anchorites, who wished to live under his direction. He now founded the monastery of Fatoum, which at first was only a group of separate and scattered cells near Memphis and Arsinoë; but which, nevertheless, may be considered the origin of cenobite life. The persecution of the Christians by Maximian in 311 A.D., induced St A. to leave his cell, and proceed to Alexandria, in the hope of obtaining the crown of martyrdom; but having failed in this, he returned to his solitude in the course of a year, which, however, he soon left, and plunged yet deeper into the desert. At length he found a lodgment on a hill, about a day's journey from the Red Sea; but his disciples discovering his retreat, so pressed him with their affectionate importunities, that he ventured to accompany them back. After many pious exhortations, he once more left them, and soon became the mighty oracle of the whole valley of the Nile. In 355, the venerable hermit, then 104 years of age, made a journey to Alexandria to dispute with the Arians. He had interviews with Athanasius and other distinguished persons; but feeling his end approaching, he retired to his desert home, where he died, 356 A.D.

Athanasius states, in his Life of St A., that the hermit wore only a coarse shirt of hair, and never washed his body, which is more credible than the stories he relates of his encounters with the devil, or his miracles. His whole conduct indicates the predominance of a glowing and yet gloomy fancy, which is the proper condition of religious asceticism. Although the father of monachism, St A. is not the author of any monastic 'rules;' those which the monks of the eastern schismatic sects attribute to him are the production of St Basil. He is perhaps the most popular saint in the Catholic Church. Accounts of his life and miracles are given in the *Acta Sanctorum* of the Bollandists, under the date of the 17th January, on which day his festival was kept.

ST ANTHONY'S FIRE.—The Rev. Alban Butler, in his *Lives of the Saints*, gives the following account of the origin of this name: 'In 1089, a pestilential erysipelatous distemper, called the *sacred fire*, swept off great numbers in most provinces of France; public prayers and processions were ordered against this scourge. At length, it pleased God to grant many miraculous cures of this dreadful distemper, to those who implored His mercy through the intercession of St A., especially before his relics; the church [of La Motte St. Didier, near Vienne, in Dauphiné] in which they were deposited was resorted to by great numbers of pilgrims, and his patronage was implored over the whole kingdom against this disease.' The 'order of Canons Regular of St Anthony,' a religious fraternity, founded about 1090, for the relief of persons afflicted with the fire of St A., survived in France till 1790.

ST ANTHONY'S WELL, a small fountain near the ruined chapel of St A., on the northern slope of Arthur's Seat (q. v.), near Edinburgh. This interesting fountain, which consists only of a stone basin, into which water trickles from under an incumbent rock, is celebrated in the Scottish song—

'*O, waly, waly.*'

ANTRAIGUES, EMANUEL-LOUIS-HENRI DELAUNAY, COUNT OF, a great politician, but very ambiguous character, was born at Vivarais, in the department Ardèche, in 1765, and was educated under the Abbé Maury. His superior talents were first displayed in his *Mémoire sur les Etats-généraux, leurs Droits et la Manière de les convoquer* (1788). This book, full of daring assertions of liberty, was one of the first sparks of the fire which afterwards rose to such height in the French Revolution. In 1789, when A. was chosen as a deputy, he not only defended the privileges of the hereditary aristocracy, but also ranked himself with those who opposed the union of the three estates; while in the discussions on the constitution, he maintained that the royal *veto* was an indispensable part of good government. After leaving the Assembly in 1790, he was employed in diplomacy at St Petersburg and Vienna, where he defended the cause of the Bourbons. In 1803 he was employed under Alexander of Russia in an embassy to Dresden, where he wrote against Bonaparte a brochure, entitled *A Fragment of the 18th Book of Polybius, discovered on Mount Athos.* He afterwards came to England, and acquired great influence with Canning. Despite his attachment to the interest of the Bourbons, he could never win the confidence of Louis XVIII. In 1812 he was murdered, with his wife, at his residence near London, by an Italian servant, who, immediately after the act, committed suicide.

ANTRIM, a maritime county in the north-east of Ireland, in the province of Ulster; bounded, N., by the Atlantic; W., by the north part of the river Bann, dividing it from Londonderry, and by Lough Neagh; S., by Lagan river, separating it from the county of Down; S.E., by Belfast Lough; and E. by the Irish Channel. It stands third among the Irish counties in population, but in extent only ninth. Its greatest length is 56 miles; its greatest

breadth, 20; its extent of sea-coast, 90 miles. Area, 1164 square miles. About two-thirds of this is arable; a fourth, barren; and a seventy-fourth in woods. Pop. in 1851, 352,264; 1861, 247,564; 1871, 235,936, of whom 124,823 were Presbyterians, 55,823 Roman Catholics, 46,290 Episcopalians, and the rest of other denominations. Off the north coast lie Rathlin Isle and the Skerries; and off the east coast, the Maiden Rocks. The east coast is hilly; and from Larne to Fair Head, parallel mountain-ranges of no great height, and covering a third of the county, stretch S.W. into the interior, forming valleys opening seaward, called the Glens of Antrim. The interior slopes towards Lough Neagh. The highest eminences are—Trostan, 1810 feet; and Slievemish, or Slemish, 1782 feet. The principal streams are—the Bann, from Lough Neagh to the Atlantic; the Main, running parallel to the Bann, but in the reverse direction, into Lough Neagh; and the Bush, flowing north into the Atlantic. Many peat-bogs occur in the county. Six-sevenths of the surface consists of basaltic trap, often alternating with red ochre, and overlying hardened chalk, green-sand, new red sandstone, and mica-slate. The surface and edges of the trap-field, in some places, present basaltic columns of varied outlines. The green-sand and new red sandstone crop out on the E. and S.-E. borders, and millstone grit occurs in the N.-E. Between Ballycastle and the mouth of the Bann, the basalt assumes very picturesque forms; and the Giants' Causeway, is one of the most perfect examples of columnar basalt in the world. Fine salt mines occur at Duncrue and Carrickfergus; and small coal-fields near Ballycastle, and in the interior. Rich beds of iron ore of fine quality have been recently opened in Glenravel, and a large export has been carried on from Cushendall and Carnlough. The soil of A. is mostly light, and the chief crop is oats. In 1872, 254,851 acres were under crop, 86,322 being in oats, 51,178 in potatoes, and 8851 in wheat. The land is very much subdivided; and the rearing of flax, and the various branches of the linen, cotton, and coarse woollen manufacture, employ a great portion of the people. In 1872, A. had 520 National Schools, attended by 93,140 pupils, of whom 48,356 were boys, and 44,784 girls. The principal towns are—Belfast, Lisburn, Ballymena, Ballymoney, Carrickfergus, Larne, and Antrim. A. county returns two members to parliament; Belfast borough, two; and Carrickfergus and Lisburn boroughs, each one. The inhabitants are mostly Presbyterians, the county having been extensively colonised from England and Scotland. The original possessors were the O'Neills, who, partially dispossessed by John de Courcy, reappeared as chief, on the failure of his line, and in 1533, regained the whole country, except Carrickfergus and part of the Glens—held by the Bissets of Glenarm. The forfeiture of Shane O'Neill terminated the dominion of his race.

A'NTWERP (in French, ANVERS), formerly the chief city of a province in the Netherlands which was formed, in 1814, by a union of the old margravate of A. with the province of Mechlin, now the capital of the province which bears its name, and the chief commercial city of Belgium, is situate on the river Scheldt. Population (1869) 126,663. Its chief public institutions are—the Academy of Sciences, Academy of Painting and Sculpture, formerly known as the Academy of St Mark, a Medical and Surgical School, Naval Arsenal, Museum, and Zoological Gardens. The cathedral, one of the noblest Gothic structures in Europe, is 500 feet in length by 240 in breadth, with a roof supported by 125 pillars, and a very lofty spire. The interior is enriched by the two greatest of all the pictures of Rubens, the Elevation of, and the [illegible] Cross. The Church of St James c[illegible] ment of the Rubens family. [illegible] tions, recently erected, not only re th[illegible] entirely new aspect, but also rend[illegible] he c capital of Belgium one of the most str[illegible] places in Europe. The trade and [illegible] A. have recently greatly extended. [illegible] sists chiefly of sugar, white-lead, co[illegible] lace, linen-thread, carpets, gold an[illegible] es is still celebrated for its sewing-[illegible], h[illegible] stuffs, and printer's ink, as it was in for[illegible] for its velvets, damasks, and satins. [illegible] also to be mentioned tobacco-manufacture[illegible] ting of diamonds and other precious sto[illegible] building.

A. is mentioned as early as the 8th c.; i[illegible] 12th and 13th it gave signs of considera[illegible] perity, and, in 1550, numbered more [illegible] inhabitants. The union of Belgiu[illegible] in 1815 was very favourable t[illegible] and general prosperity of A. By [illegible] August 1830, it was linked to the de[illegible] When the revolutionary party gaine[illegible] commandant, General Chasse, retreated [illegible] and, exasperated by the breach of truce, [illegible] a bombardment, which destroyed the [illegible] about thirty houses. In 1832, a F[illegible] 50,000 men, under Marshal Gérard, [illegible] A., to demand the surrender of the [illegible] General Chasse refused. After co[illegible] and the loss of several lives a [illegible] General Chasse capitulated, Dec. [illegible] 30th of the same month, the Flemish [illegible] and the forts Burght, Zwindrecht, and [illegible] were surrendered to the Belgian troops. Dutch troops were taken to France, as [illegible] the surrender of the forts Lillo and [illegible] according to an article in the n[illegible] 1831, which stipulated that the [illegible] the Dutch troops in Belgium should [illegible]

ANU'BIS, an Egyptian deity, st[illegible] hieroglyphic monuments, was, according to mythology, the son of Osiris and Nephthys. By the Greeks, he was frequently styled Hermes or Hermanubis, combining the Egyptian with the Grecian name. He is represented on monuments as having the head of a jackal, with pointed ears and snout, which the Greeks frequently changed to those of a dog. Sometimes he is seen wearing a double crown. A white and yellow cock was sacrificed to him. His office, like that of Hermes Psychopompus among the Greeks, was to accompany the ghosts of the deceased into Hades (Amenthes), and there to assist Horus in weighi[illegible] their actions, under the inspection [illegible] Osiris. As, in the time of the R[illegible] worship had spread beyond [illegible] conceptions of A. and Hermes [illegible] and the dog's head of the former [illegible] the insignia of the latter.

ANVILLE, JEAN BAP[illegible] celebrated French geograph[illegible] died in 1782. He devoted [illegible] graphical science. Such [illegible] map-drawing, that his fi[illegible] authors induced him to publis[illegible] a map of Greece. His rare qu[illegible] friendship of the Abbé de So[illegible] received those instructions [illegible] of that profound and e[illegible]

subsequently acquired. He read the Greek and Latin historians and philosophers, as well as poets, specially noting the names and positions of cities and nations. He advanced the science of geography, not only by the vast number of maps which he executed, but also by the treatises, full of erudition and of historic and critical details, in which he discussed numerous interesting questions. The works of A. announced by M. de Maine many years ago, were to have been contained in six volumes, exclusive of the —lumes of maps. The principal portion was published in 1834 by Levrault. But the death of M. de ine in 1832 stopped the quarto edition near the l of the twelfth volume, to which the map of Africa however wanting, although the text had been ed. with notes digested from the most recent ations in that country. A. has left 211 maps ans, and 78 memoirs, the most of which are d in the *Recueil des Mémoires de l'Académie scriptions et Belles-lettres*. His best map is that Ancient Egypt. His *Orbis Veteribus Notus*, and *Romanus*, are also invaluable. The same k applies to his maps of Gaul, Italy, and both ancient and medieval. His maps of e ries contain all the knowledge attained . His valuable collection of maps was n 1779 by the French government for yal Library.

, a celebrated Persian poet, who uring the 12th c., was born in the pro- Khorassan, and educated at the college of at Tus. He emerged from obscurity in the of a night. The story goes that the Seljukide Sanjar, happened on one occasion to visit when the imagination of the youthful poet was cited by the presence of the monarch and his ring retinue, that he resolved to write a poem praise. By next morning, it was finished, and ated to Sanjar, who instantly placed the fortu- youth among his courtiers. A. now began to himself to astrology, which was his ruin; for having predicted that in 1185 or 1186 A. D. a hurricane would burst over all Asia, overthrow the most solid edifices, and shake the very mountains, and nothing of the sort really occurring, but, on the contrary, an entire year of remarkably tranquil weather, he fell into disgrace, and had to retire to Balkh, where he died in 1200—1201 A. D.

His poems consist chiefly of lengthy panegyrics, and shorter lyrical effusions. The latter (*ghazels*) are characterised by simplicity, ease, and naturalness; but the *kasidas*, or long poems, are disfigured, like many other eastern poems, by glittering imagery and historical conceits. His *Elegy on the Captivity of Sanjar taken Prisoner by the Ghurides*, has been translated into English by Captain Kirkpatrick in the 1st volume of *Asiatic Miscellanies* (Calcutta, 1785).

A'ORIST, a form of the Greek verb by which an action is expressed as taking place in an indefinite (Gr. *aoristos*) time. The Greek language is especially fertile in the past tenses of verbs, having, in addition to the tenses common to other languages - namely, the imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect - the A., which is peculiarly adapted to the narrative style of writing. The distinction of first and second A. is purely formal.

AO'RTA is the great arterial trunk which, rising from the left ventricle of the heart, sends its branches ramifying through the whole body. The A. in man is subdivided by anatomists into the Arch, the Thoracic A., and the Abdominal A. The *arch* is a loop with the convexity directed upwards, forwards, and to the right side, reaching at its highest part to a level with the second piece of the breast-bone, and then descending to the left side of the third dorsal vertebra. Five arteries arise from the arch—viz., two coronaries, for the supply of the muscular tissue of the heart itself; the innominata; and the left carotid and left subclavian arteries. At the commencement of the arch are three small swellings or

Aorta:

a, ascending arch of aorta; *aa*, coronary arteries; *b'*, innominata artery; *b*, right subclavian; *c*, right carotid; *d*, left carotid; *e*, left subclavian; *f*, thoracic aorta; *gg*, diaphragm; *hh*, phrenic arteries; *i*, coeliac axis; *k*, coronary or gastric; *l*, splenic; *m*, hepatic; *n*, superior mesenteric; *oo*, renal arteries; *p*, inferior mesenteric; *p'*, spermatic; *q*, common iliac; *r*, middle sacral.

pouches, the aortic sinuses, below which are the three semilunar valves or folds of the lining membrane, which prevent regurgitation of the blood back into the heart. The *thoracic A.* extends from the third dorsal vertebra to the diaphragm, gradually getting into the middle line of the spine. The thoracic A. gives off the bronchial arteries (two or three) to supply the tissue of the lungs; and some small branches (three or four) to the œsophagus, and intercostal arteries, to supply the walls of the chest (ten on left, and nine on right side). The *abdominal A.* passes from the diaphragm to the fourth lumbar vertebra, opposite the lower margin of which it divides into the two common iliac trunks. The abdominal A. gives off the two phrenic arteries to the diaphragm; the cœliac axis, which divides into three large branches for the stomach, liver, and spleen; the superior mesenteric for the small, and part of the large intestine; the *renals* (two); the *supra*-renals (two), one for each kidney; the spermatic; the inferior mesenteric, for the part of the large intestine not supplied by the superior mesenteric; and four or five lumbar arteries, which supply the lower part of the abdominal walls (the loins).

Where the A. bifurcates, a small artery, the *sacra-media*, or *caudal* artery, arises, and passes along in the middle line; in fish and in animals with large tails, this branch is a continuation of the A.

The above is the usual arrangement; but occasionally it varies, especially in the number of arteries springing from the arch. The structure of the A. will be given under ARTERY; and the comparative anatomy under HEART and CIRCULATION.

During fœtal life, there is a communication between the arch of the A. and the pulmonary artery called the *ductus arteriosus*, the canal of which becomes obliterated after birth. It has been calculated that the velocity of the blood in the ascending part of the arch is 2½ inches in a second. The pressure of the blood in the A. of a horse has been estimated to be 11 pounds; and in man's, 4 pounds 6 ounces.

The coats of the A. are very subject to fatty disease termed Atheronia (q. v.), and in advanced life, to calcareous degeneration or deposit of earthy particles, which destroys their elasticity. This change renders them very liable to Aneurism (q. v.), which, as may be expected, is generally situated at the curves of the A., especially at the arch. Sufferers from this disease in the arch or thoracic A., suffer from palpitation within the chest, difficulty of breathing, occurring in paroxysms and during sleep, and shoots of pain through the chest. If the aneurism is on the arch, it generally presses forward, and may completely destroy the breast-bone, forming a pulsating tumour, covered only by the skin, or it may press up into the neck. If low in the chest, the aneurism may compress the thoracic duct, and cause emaciation. In the abdomen, the symptoms are pulsation and pain; but in both situations aneurism may exist for a length of time without attracting attention.

In some cases, the A. has been found obliterated, shewing that the lower extremities can be supplied with blood by the anastomosing branches. Sir Astley Cooper and other surgeons have tied the A. for aneurism, but without success.

AOSTA, a district of the province of Turin, in North Italy, surrounded by the highest elevations of the Alps, and watered by the river Dora-baltea. It contains an area of 1233 square miles. The dense pine-woods on the hills, the alpine pastures on the slopes, the plantations of vines, almonds, olives, figs, and mulberry trees in the valleys, and the ores of silver, copper, and iron in the bosom of the mountains, supply occupation and means of subsistence to a population of about 83,000; but the land generally is not adapted to the growth of corn, though maize, barley, oats, &c., are produced in the lowest portions of the valleys. The disease styled Cretinism (q. v.) prevails to a lamentable extent, and few persons are altogether free from Goitre (q. v.). Great numbers of the poorer class emigrate during winter into the richer countries in their vicinity, and earn a livelihood as chimney-sweepers, masons, and smiths.—AOSTA, the principal town, 49 miles N.N.W. of Turin, contains 7700 inhabitants, and has a large trade in cheese, hemp, leather, &c. It was in ancient times the chief residence of the Salassi, a brave race of mountaineers, with whom Appius Claudius (134 B. C.) had to contend on his way into Gaul. They were finally destroyed by Terentius Varro in the time of Augustus. Monuments of the Roman times—a well-preserved arch, two gateways, the ruins of an amphitheatre, and a bridge—still remain. The celebrated baths and mines of St Didier are in the neighbourhood. St Bernard, the founder of the famous hospice which bears his name, was Archdeacon of A.; and Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, was born here.

APA'FI, MICHAEL I., Prince of Transylvania, was born in 1632, of an old but decayed family. He accompanied Prince George II. in an expedition against the Poles in 1656, but was taken prisoner at the irruption of the Tatar hordes under their khan, Mohammed Girai. After his release, he went and lived for a short time at his paternal estate; but in 1661 he was chosen Prince of Transylvania, at the instigation or desire of Ali Pasha, generalissimo of the Turkish forces under [illegible] IV. During the peace concluded [illegible] peaceably under the protec[illegible] acquired the towns of Clausenburg [illegible] mar. He remained faithful to the [illegible] till the siege of Vienna in [illegible] changed. The imperial troops [illegible] country; and on the 12th of A[illegible] a treaty with the emperor at L[illegible] Transylvania was declared to be fr[illegible] from Turkish suzerainty, and placed under [illegible] protection. At Fogaras, on the 1st of July the Transylvanian deputies assembled [illegible] national Diet, took the oath of fealty to burgs as legitimate monarchs of E[illegible] since the death of his wife, Anna Bor[illegible] A. had been sorely afflicted both in [illegible] and died (April 15, 1690) on the eve of a butive war, commenced by his old allies who considered themselves ill used by him of them. His son, Michael II., succeeded throne and its perils. The Turks, [illegible] Cuprigli, overthrew the imperial [illegible] several places, such as Nissa, Wi[illegible] Belgrade, &c.; but the intestine [illegible] Ottoman empire hindered them, [illegible] Tekeli, the adventurer whom they [illegible] from retaining these towns. The imperial [illegible] subsequently regained everything; and a[illegible] young Transylvanian prince was inve[illegible] and cajoled into giving up his d[illegible] in lieu of a pension of 12,000 or [illegible] died in 1713.

A'PANAGE is not an English l[illegible] a technical word in the French [illegible] system it signifies the assignment or [illegible] the crown of lands and feudal rights to of the royal family, that they may be [illegible] maintain themselves according to their rank a long article on this subject in K[illegible] *Dictionary*, which refers to R[illegible] *Staats-Lexicon*, art. by P. A. [illegible] Merlin's *Répertoire de Jurisprudence* head.) The word A., however, is sc Scotch law-books, the Scotch law[illegible] probably derived it from France, [illegible] laws was so largely imported into Sc[illegible] of Session itself having been model[illegible] of the Parliament of Paris. Mr Erskine *ciples of the Law of Scotland*, book i. [illegible] says: 'The *A.*, or patrimony of the P[illegible] land, has been long erected into a r[illegible] tion, called the principality. It is [illegible] king's eldest son, upon whose death [illegible] returns to the crown. The prince has [illegible] his own chancery, from which his writs may have his own chamberlain and oth[illegible] for receiving and managing his revenue.' late Professor Bell, in his *P[illegible]iples Law*, calls this principality "[illegible]nce A. and personal provision." [illegible] of Cornwall may be said to be [illegible] of Wales, in whose person, also, [illegible] of the two kingdoms under the [illegible] merge the rights of the Prince [illegible] royal highness, in fact, when he [illegible] strictly to be called, not Prince of [illegible] of Scotland.

In common parlance in England [illegible] loosely used to denote any extra-te[illegible] tion or sovereignty by governmen[illegible] even any dignity or right enjoy[illegible] rank.

A'PATITE is the scientific and [illegible] applied to a mineral mainly consi[illegible]

of lime (bone-earth), and which for some years past has been largely used in the preparation of manures. It is employed for the same purpose as bones or bone-ash—namely, to supply phosphoric acid to the soil. The massive radiated variety is sometimes called *phosphorite*, and when massive, earthy, and impure, it is also known as *osteolite*. Coprolites (q. v.), or phosphatic nodules, are likewise mainly composed of phosphate of lime. A. is found as a bedded rock, in compact spheroidal masses, in veins and dykes, and as an accessory constituent of rocks. It exists in nearly all geological formations, but is perhaps most abundant in the older metamorphic rocks. Extensive deposits of A. occur in various parts of the world. From Krageroe in Norway, where it occurs associated with granitic rocks, and from Estremadura in Spain, where it is found in cretaceous strata, it has been largely sent to England, the total imports of these mineral phosphates having in some years reached 50000 tons. There is a bed of A., 18 inches thick, of Silurian age at Llanfyllin in North Wales, which has been extensively worked. A remarkable deposit of a variety of A., or rather rock guano, which has been described as 'Sombrerite,' was discovered some years ago on the small island of Sombrero, situated about 60 miles to the east of St Thomas, in the West Indian group. It covers a great part of the island, which is about 1½ miles long, by ⅓ths of a mile in breadth. A. A. Julien, writing from the spot in 1864, states there 'is a natural division of the Sombrero into two varieties. One of an oolitic structure, of a great variety of colours, and containing, in addition to the bone ($3Ca_3O_2P_2O_5$) and neutral ($Ca_2P_2O_5$) phosphates of lime, the phosphates of alumina, iron, and magnesia, &c. The other variety, generally of a broad concretionary structure, is of a white or yellowish-white colour, containing a little carbonate of lime, sulphate of lime, &c., but especially abounds in bone phosphate of lime. It is almost certain that the former more nearly resembles the original deposit, and is the older of the two; while the latter is far more uniform in composition. The guano is interlaminated with ordinary coral limestone.' It is now believed that this hard or rock guano has been formed by water filtering through ordinary guano, into the coral rock adjoining, and turning it more or less completely into phosphate of lime. A similar hard guano occurs at Monk's Island, and one or two others in the Caribbean Sea. Large quantities have been introduced into this country, and still more into the United States, under the name of Sombrero Guano, and are extensively employed by the manufacturers of artificial manures, in place of ordinary bone-ash. The general treatment to which mineral phosphate is subjected, is to reduce it to powder, and act upon the pulverised matter with sulphuric acid, which renders the phosphoric acid in the A. soluble in water, and thereby facilitates its introduction into the plant. These substances require to be ground to a finer powder, and subjected to a more protracted digestion than bones. In the greater number of cases where the A. or Sombrero Guano is treated in this way, it is mixed with other manures, such as Peruvian Guano, blood, or true bones, and thus a complex substance is manufactured, which is much more acceptable to the plant than the simple A. or *mineral phosphate* itself. The great importance of mineral phosphate, in an agricultural point of view, arises from the fact that no mineral substance possesses more influence over the growth of the edible plants, such as wheat, barley, oats, turnips, &c., than phosphoric acid does; any cheap source of that substance, therefore, is a great boon. The island of Sombrero contains as much phosphatic or bony matter as is present in many millions of oxen, and represents as much manure as would be obtained by the employment of the bones of these cattle. The different varieties of A. contain a little fluoride or chloride of calcium, or both, as well as phosphate of lime. Of these varieties, besides those already mentioned, there are others, as *Moroxite*, *Francolite*, and *Asparagus Stone*. It occurs both massive and in crystals—which are generally small, and are often six-sided prisms, or six-sided tables, but some very large ones have been brought from Canada. It occurs in some of the tin mines in Cornwall, Saxony, Bohemia, &c., and in rocks of various ages, as mentioned above. It is found of various colours, more or less green, blue or red, sometimes white, and often gray. The proposal to employ it as a manure first excited much interest in 1856, and began to be enterprisingly carried into effect, with happy results—rocks once deemed most barren being thus rendered conducive to the fertility of soils. In Spain, A. is used as a building stone.

APE, a name commonly given to the tailless monkeys. (See BARBARY APE, CHIMPANZEE, GIBBON, GORILLA, ORANG-OTANG, &c.) It was originally commensurate in signification with monkey, and the terms were indiscriminately used. The origin of the word is uncertain. See MONKEY.

The worship of apes or monkeys has been common among pagan nations from a period of remote antiquity, and still prevails very extensively, being practised in Japan, in India, and by some of the African tribes. The source of it is perhaps to be found partly in the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and partly in the qualities which apes have been supposed to possess in a conspicuous degree, and of which they have been made symbolic. An A.'s tooth, kept in a temple in Ceylon, was regarded with extraordinary veneration, and immense wealth was accumulated through the continual offerings of the worshippers; but the temple was plundered, and the tooth carried away by the Portuguese in 1554.

A-PEAK, or A-PEEK, a maritime term signifying the position of an anchor when the cable has been drawn so tight as to bring the ship directly over it; the sailors then say that 'the anchor is a-peak.'

APE'LLES, the most celebrated painter in ancient times, was the son of Pythias, and was probably, in accordance with the statement of Suidas, born at Colophon, on the Ionian coast of Asia Minor; though Pliny and Ovid call him a Coan, and Strabo and Lucian an Ephesian. This, however, may simply refer to the fact that he was made a burgess of that town. He flourished in the latter part of the 4th c. B.C., received his first instruction in art in the Ionian school of Ephesus, then studied under Pamphilus of Amphipolis, and latterly at Sicyon, under Melanthius, and thus he united the fine colouring of the Ionian with the accurate drawing of the Sicyonic school. During the time of Philip, A. visited Macedon, where he became the intimate friend of Alexander the Great. It was probably at the Macedonian court that the best days of A. were spent. Pliny relates that on one occasion when Alexander visited A. in his studio, the king exhibited such ignorance of art, that A. recommended him to be silent, as the boys who were grinding the colours were laughing at him. But the same story is told of Zeuxis and Megabyzus. He afterwards visited Rhodes (where he was familiar with Protogenes), Cos, Alexandria, and Ephesus. The period of his death is not known; but as he practised his art before the death of Philip, and as his visit to Alexandria was after the assumption of the regal title by Ptolemy, he probably flourished between 352 and 306 B.C. The most celebrated paintings of

A. were his Anadyomene, or Venus Rising from the Sea, with a shower of silver drops falling round her like a vail of gauze, the Graces, and similar subjects; but he cultivated the heroic as well as the graceful style. His ideal portrait of Alexander wielding a thunderbolt was highly esteemed, and preserved in the temple of Diana at Ephesus. With reference to this painting, Alexander said: 'There are only two Alexanders—the invincible son of Philip, and the inimitable Alexander of A.' A. is said to have left an incomplete painting of Venus, to which no other painter would presume to give the finishing-touches. The disposition of A. was remarkably free from envy, and he willingly acknowledged the merits of his contemporaries. Amphion, he said, excelled him in grouping, and Asclepiodorus in perspective, but *grace* was his alone. On coming to Rhodes, and finding that the works of Protogenes were not appreciated by his countrymen, he at once offered him fifty talents for a picture, and spread the report that he intended to sell it again as his own. The industry with which he practised drawing was so great as to give rise to the proverb, *Nulla dies sine linea*. Many other anecdotes are related of A. When his pictures were exposed to public view, he used to place himself behind a picture, to listen to the criticisms of the common people. A cobbler having detected a fault in the shoe of one of his figures, it is said that A. instantly rectified it; but when the cobbler, on the following day, extended his criticism to the legs, the painter rushed from his hiding-place, and told the cobbler to stick to the shoes; or, in the Latin version, which has become proverbial, 'Ne sutor supra crepidam.'

A'PENNINES (Ital. *Appenni'ni*; anciently, Lat. *Mons Apenninus*), a mountain-chain extending uninterruptedly throughout the whole length of the Italian peninsula. It lies between 37° and 44° 30′ N. lat., and 7° 40′ and 18° 20′ E. long., and belongs to the system of the Alps, from which it branches off at the Col de Tenda, near the sources of the Tanaro. From this point, the chain, under the name of the Ligurian A., girdles the Gulf of Genoa, in the immediate vicinity of the sea, and then runs inland to a considerable extent, forming the watershed between the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, but gradually approaching the east coast, till, in the highlands of the Abruzzi, it is close upon it; after which it takes a south-western direction through Naples, dips under the sea at the Strait of Messina, and reappears on the northern coast of Sicily. Recent geographers divide the A. as follows: 1. *The North A.*, from the Col de Tenda in the Maritime Alps to the pass of Borgo San Sepolcro, in the neighbourhood of Arezzo, on the eastern border of Tuscany. 2. *The Central A.*, from Arezzo to the valley of the Pescara, which flows between the two Abruzzi. 3. *The South A.*, from the valley of the Pescara to Cape Spartivento. 4. *The Insular A.*, or the Sicilian range. The leading feature of the A., wherever they approach the coast, is their extraordinarily steep declivities; while in Middle Italy and the adjoining portions of Upper and Lower Italy, long terraced plateaus, lower ranges, and finally, extensive coast-plains, mark their gradual descent on the west. The general name for these lower ranges is *Sub-Apennine;* but they have a variety of particular designations, such as, the Mountains of Carrara and Seravezza, Pratomagno and Monte Amiata, in Tuscany; the Sabine, Alban, and Volscian mountains, in the former Papal States; Monte Gargano on the south-east coast, north of Manfredonia, &c. The main chain of the A. does not send off spurs into the Apulian peninsula, or heel of Italy, which, for the most part, is rather level, or only interspersed with detached groups of hills.

The direction of the great chain of the A. is favourable to the formation, on the west side, of important river-basins, such as those of the Arno, the Tiber, the Garigliano, and the Volturno; while, on the east side, we find nothing but small streams, in most cases, destitute of affluents, hurrying down to the sea through wild precipitous valleys. In Northern Italy, the Ligurian A., almost overhanging the Gulf of Genoa, can only develop on the south puny streams, while the north sends down, through the plains of Piedmont, large tributaries to the Po.

The average height of the entire chain of the A. is about 4000 feet, which, however, in the north, sinks down to little more than 3500 feet; and in the mountains of the Abruzzi, rises to 7000 feet. Here, in Monte Corno, the highest peak of the range, known under the name of Gran Sasso d'Italia, they reach an elevation of 10,200 feet, and in Monte Velino, of 7850 feet. The North A. attain, in Monte Cimone, situated in the south of Modena, a height of 6973 feet; the South A., in Monte Amaro, a height of 9000 feet; the Insular A., if we exclude the isolated peak of Ætna—in Pizzo di Cane, a height of 6500 feet.

The A. are crossed by thirteen principal passes: these are, proceeding from N. to S.—1. The Pass of Savona; 2, of Bocchetta; 3, of Cisa; 4, of Monte Cimone; 5, of Porretta; 6, of Pietramala; 7, of Borgo San Sepolcro; 8, of Furlo; 9, of Serravalle; 10, of Aquila; 11, of Isernia; 12, of Arpino and Troja; 13, of Potenza. The prevalent stone is a species of compact limestone, of a whitish-gray, belonging to the Jura formation. Resting on limestone is found a more recent formation of stone and marl, which is especially ... middle region of the Sub-A., contains ... nary number of petrifactions, and must be as belonging to the upper division of the limestone. Older formations, however, crop out. Thus, for instance, on the waters the North and Central A. there are found tra clay-slate, grauwacke-slate, &c. The A... ally the Roman and Neapolitan, are disti from all other mountain-chains by the rich of marbles which they contain. In s the quarries seem inexhaustible. V are numerous in the middle and s where the agency of fire has caused formations, as, for instance, the ... Albano, Nemi, Vesuvius, Solfatara.

The principal chain exhibits, for the most a dreary and barren appearance; it looks like a wall, with very few projecting peaks to break the monotony of the scene, and therefore scarcely any salient points on which the eye of can rest with pleasure. Naked, rive ... thick *débris*, the declivities seem a... the southern sun. Only in ... Sub-A., and above all, in the ... Carrara and Seravezza, do the l... forms of the Alps reapp ... general so poorly supplied ... trace of Alpine abundance of water, there is ... of rich pastures and dense forests, but ... thin grass and wild scrubby bushes cover ... slopes. The greater number of the ... brooks, in the deep rocky ravines ... summer, only a dry bed. Where ... down to the sea, as at the Riviera ... Gulf of Naples, a rich, peculiarly s... clothes the declivities. G... figs (*Cactus Opuntia*), my ... hint in these northern ... the tropics. Up to 3000 feet of elevat... fruit-bearing chestnuts, and decid... found. Beyond this, all v...

ep and stony sides of the mountains; but imes the beech or the fir appears in dense There is no region of perpetual snow; s of the Abruzzi and the lofty peaks ..., are often covered with snow from into May, and send their icy breath down into the mild valleys, that the in a few hours sinks 12°—18° F., and g afternoon is succeeded by a bitter evening.

RA'DE, a town in the Prussian province g-Holstein, situated at the bottom of a he Little Belt, has an excellent harbour, nsiderable amount of shipping. Long. 9° ; lat. 55° 2' 46" N. Pop. (1871) 5932. rons of the town are beautiful. The first mention made of A. relates to its destruc- ie Slaves in 1148; and, indeed, its position s laid it open to the casualties of northern ther on a large or small scale, as has been seen since 1848. Near the town stands of Brundlund, built by Queen Margaret in hich the bailiff of the place resides.

ALOUS, a term in Botany, applied to r to flowering plants, and signifying that destitute of petals or corolla (q. v.). When alyx and corolla are wanting, the flower is *achlamydeous* (from the Greek *chlamys*, a or naked. The absence of the whorl of s occurs in an exceptional manner es genera ordinarily characterised by its In some plants, as in certain species of f *Caryophyllaceæ*, petals are sometimes sometimes absent, a tendency apparently o the suppression of this whorl.

ION, that point in the elliptical orbit of which is most remote from the sun. The oint, or that nearest to the sun, is styled HELION. At the former point, the swiftness lanet's motion is least, and begins to at the latter, it is greatest, and begins se. This irregularity of motion is most le in comets whose orbits deviate most ircle. The motion of the comet of 1680, ihelion, was calculated as 137,000 times d than its motion in A. See APSIDES.

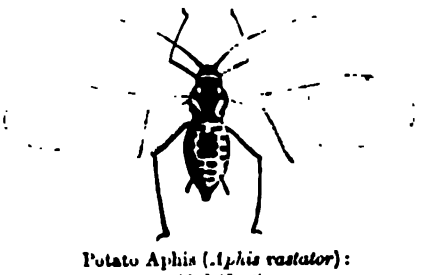
a genus of insects belonging to the order a sub-order Homoptera the type of a lled *Aphidii*. They are small insects,

Apple Aphis (*Eriosoma Mali*):
insect, magnified; *b*, wingless insect in excrescence of the tree, magnified.

sucking the juices of plants, upon which be seen congregated in immense numbers, ng a nous injury, causing the distortion of d even the blight and decay of the plant. ly Aphis, or American Blight (*A. lanigera*; *Mali* of Leach), is sometimes very injurious to apple-trees, and when once it has found its way into a garden or orchard, is very difficult of removal. It is a minute insect, 'covered with a long cotton-like wool, transpiring from the pores of its body'—

Apple Aphis:
a branch with excrescences, reduced.

'a cottony excretion'—in which it differs from the ordinary aphides, and takes its place in the chinks and rugosities of the bark, multiplying rapidly, extracting the sap, causing diseased excrescences, and, ultimately, the destruction of the tree. It was first observed in England in 1787; but it is uncertain if it was, as has been supposed, accidentally imported from America. The Hop-fly (*A. Humuli*), and the A. of the turnip and cabbage (*A. Brassicæ*), have sometimes caused the destruction of entire crops. The price of hops varies from one year to another, very much according to the numbers in which '*the fly*' has appeared. The potato A. (*A. vastator*) has been represented as the cause of the



Potato Aphis (*Aphis vastator*):
magnified fifty times.

potato disease; but this opinion has few supporters. The aphides of the rose (*A. Rosæ*) and of the bean (*A. Fabæ*) are among the most familiarly known. Every one must have observed the leaves of trees and shrubs deformed by red convexities. In the hollows of the under side of these, aphides have their habitation, and there they find their food; the exhausted leaf at last curls up. Most of the species are green; the A. of the bean is black. They are generally called Plant-lice. They have a proboscis (*haustellum*), by which they pierce and suck plants; and at the extremity of the abdomen, two horn-like processes, from which exude frequent small drops of a saccharine fluid called *Honey-dew*, a favourite food of bees and ants. It has been seen even to fall in a kind of shower from trees much covered with aphides. Mention has been made in the article ANT, of the means which ants take to obtain this food. The legs of aphides are long, and they move slowly and awkwardly by them. The greater number of them never have wings; it is in the autumn that perfect winged insects generally appear. From the pairing of these result eggs, which produce female aphides in the following spring, and successive generations of wingless aphides are produced in a

viviparous manner without impregnation throughout the summer, the rapidity of multiplication being prodigious. Their increase, however, is restrained not only by birds, but by insects which feed on them. A family of coleopterous insects, to which the genus *Coccinella* or Lady-bird (q.v.) belongs, has received upon this account the name of *Aphidiphagi*, or aphis-eaters. There are also certain minute hymenopterous insects, which destroy them in great numbers by depositing their eggs in them; the larva feeds upon the living A., out of which it at last eats its way, leaving a mere desiccated skin.

A'PHORISM, a maxim, or any short and significant saying; such as, 'Custom is a second nature.' A whole piece or work is sometimes written in the form of a series of aphorisms, arranged in due order, and leaving their connection to be traced by the reader's reflection. In certain circumstances this aphoristic style has an impressive effect; but long continued, it becomes wearisome.

APHRODI'TÉ, the Greek name of Venus, according to various traditions, is derived from *aphros* (foam), in allusion to the old poetical myth which represented the goddess as springing from the foam of the sea. See VENUS and APELLES. *Aphrodisia* were festivals celebrated in honour of A., in numerous cities of Greece, but especially in Cyprus. At Paphos, in this island, was her most ancient temple. Bloodless sacrifices alone were imagined to please A., such as flowers, incense, &c. Mysteries of an impure kind formed part of the ceremonial of the aphrodisia. Aphrodisia were no doubt held in the other places where A. was worshipped, such as Cythera, Sparta, Thebes, Elis, &c., though they are not mentioned. At Corinth and Athens, the aphrodisia were celebrated principally by prostitutes.

APIA'CEÆ. See UMBELLIFERÆ.

APIACERE. See AD LIBITUM.

A'PIARY. See BEE.

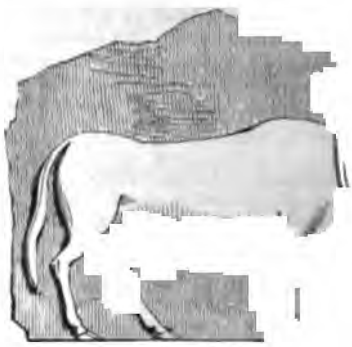
API'CIUS, a Roman epicurean—in the low and common sense of the word—lived in the times of Augustus and Tiberius, and was celebrated for his luxurious table and his acquirements in the science of cookery. When, in pursuit of his favourite study, he had consumed the greater part of his fortune, and had only some £80,000 left, he poisoned himself, in order to avoid the misery of plain diet. Two other gourmands—one in the time of Pompey, the other in the reign of Trajan—are mentioned under the name A. The Roman cookery-book, *Cælii Apicii de Obsoniis et Condimentis, sive de re Culinariâ* (libri decem), ascribed to A., obviously belongs to a much later time, inasmuch as it abounds in inaccuracies and solecisms. The unknown author has thought proper to recommend his work to gourmands by affixing to it the celebrated name of A.

A'PION, a Greek grammarian, was born at Oasis, a town in Libya, but educated in Alexandria, which he affected to consider his birthplace, from a desire of being thought a pure Greek. He studied under Apollonius, the son of Archibius, from whom he acquired an admiration of Homer, and afterwards went to Rome, where he succeeded Theon as teacher of rhetoric. He seems to have been as remarkable for his loquacious vanity as for his knowledge. He declared that himself, and every one whom he mentioned, would be held in immortal memory, that he was equal to the first philosophers of Greece, and that Alexandria should be proud of him. On account of his incessant bragging, Tiberius used to call him *Cymbalum Mundi* (the cymbal of the universe).

With the exception of one or two fragments, the whole of A.'s numerous writings are lost. He composed a work on the text of Homer, in form of a dictionary, which was freque to by subsequent authors; a work on contained the far-famed story of *A Lion*, preserved by Aulus Gell the Jews; one in praise of another on the great epicurean various countries, &c.

A'PIOS TUBERO'SA, formerly genus *Glycine*, and called *G. Apios*, to the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub *onaceæ*, having tuberous roots, a twini red flowers, leathery, 2-valvular legume leaves, with seven pair of smooth ovato-la leaflets. This plant, which is a native of has for a century been cultivated in botanic in Europe, and has recently been br ticular notice on the continent, in a through the French traveller Lamare during his travels in North Ame himself of the value of the tubers as an food, for which they are there used to som Various attempts have since been made to it like the potato; but its cultivation cult, upon account of the length and w twining shoots and the length of tubers cooked in steam are free fr bitterness, and very much resemble in the same way. They contain more nitro potatoes (4·5 per cent.), also more starch (33·55 according to an analysis by Payen).

A'PIS, the bull worshipped by the anci tians, who regarded it as a symbol of Osiris of the Nile, the husband of Isis, and the great of Egypt. A sacred court or yard w for the residence of A. in the temple Memphis, where a numerous retinue of upon him, and sacrifices of red oxen were him. His movements, choice of places, and of appetite, were religiously regarded as



Apis.—Golden

was an understood law that A. must not than twenty-five years. When he attain he was secretly put to death, and buried priests in a sacred well, the pop that he cast himself into the wa he died a natural death, his b interred in the Temple of Se bacchanalian festivals were inauguration of a new bull A. suitable animal was found ha marks—black colour w a wh brow; the figure of an on knot in the shape of a can

led hal procession to Nilopolis at of moon, where he remained forty a upon by nude women, and was after- conveyed in a splendid vessel to Memphis. ophany, or day of discovery, and his birth- were celebrated as high festivals of seven days' tion during the rise of the Nile. The worship golden calf by the Israelites in the wilder- and also the employment of golden calves as of the Deity by Jeroboam, have been very referred to the Egyptian worship of A.

APIS, APIDÆ. See BEE.

A'PIUM. See CELERY.

APO'CALYPSE. See REVELATION OF ST JOHN.

APOCALY'PTIC NUMBER is 'the mystical 666, spoken of in the book of Revelation 18). As early as the 2d c., the Church had that the name, Antichrist, was indicated by Greek characters expressive of this number; others believed it to express a date. The probable interpretation is that which was at in the days of Irenæus, and which found number in the word *Lateinos* (*Latinus*). The nation—the mightiest pagan power on earth the most terrible symbol of Antichrist, and er 666 appears in the Greek characters the name. Protestant controversialists really support their views by this interpre- applying the prophecy to papal Rome.

APOCA'RPOUS FRUITS, in Botany, are those which are the produce of a single flower, and formed of only one carpel, or of a number of els remaining free and separate from each other. term is derived from the Greek *apo*, implying tion, and *carpos*, fruit.

A POCO A POCO (Ital.), in Music, by degrees; little and little.

APOCRE'NIC ACID is one of the products of the natural decay of wood and other plant textures, and is found wherever lignine or woody fibre is decomposing in soils, &c. As A. A. is soluble in water, it follows that rain-water falling on and percolating through soils containing this substance, becomes impregnated with it; and hence, in many natural waters, A. A. is a recognised constituent. A. A. performs an important function in the growth of plants, as there is every reason to believe that it forms one of the stages through which matter travels from dead plants again into the living vegetable tissue.

APO'CRYPHA, or APOCRYPHAL WRITINGS. The word originally meant *secret* or *concealed*, and was rendered current by the Jews of Alexandria. In the earliest churches, it was applied with very different significations to a variety of writings. Sometimes it was given to those whose authorship and original form were unknown; sometimes to writings containing a hidden meaning; sometimes to those whose public use was not thought advisable. In this last signification, it has been customary, since the time of Jerome, to apply the term to a number of writings which the Septuagint had circulated amongst the Christians, and which were sometimes considered as an appendage to the Old Testament, and sometimes as a portion of it. The Greek Church, at the Council of Laodicea (360 A.D.), excluded them from the canon; the Latin Church, on the other hand, always highly favoured them; and finally the Council of Trent (1545—1563) placed them on an equality with the rest of the Old Testament. The Church of England uses them in part for edification, but not for the 'establishment of doctrine.' All other Protestant churches in England and America reject their use in public worship. But it was once customary to bind up the A. between the authorised versions of the Old and New Testaments, though this has now ceased, and, as a consequence, this curious, interesting, and instructive part of Jewish literature is now known only to scholars. The Old Testament A. consists of 14 books: 1. First Esdras (q. v.); 2. Second Esdras (q. v.); 3. Tobit (q. v.); 4. Judith (q. v.); 5. The parts of Esther not found in Hebrew or Chaldee; 6. The Wisdom of Solomon; 7. The Wisdom of Jesus, son of Sirach, or Ecclesiasticus (q. v.); 8. Baruch (q. v.); 9. The Song of the Three Holy Children; 10. The History of Susanna; 11. The History of the Destruction of Bel and the Dragon (q. v.); 12. The Prayer of Manasses, King of Judah (see MANASSEH); 13. First Maccabees (q. v.); 14. Second Maccabees (q. v.). The precise origin of all of these writings cannot be ascertained. It is enough to state here that some bear traces of a Palestinian, others of an Egypto-Alexandrine, and others, again, of a Chaldaico-Persian origin or influence. Most, if not all, bear internal evidence of having been composed in the 1st and 2d centuries B.C.

The A. of the New Testament may be arranged under three heads. 1. The writings comprising the *Apocryphal Gospels*, which consist of 22 separate documents, 10 in Greek and 12 in Latin. They concern themselves with the history of Joseph and of the Virgin Mary before the birth of Christ, with the infancy of Christ, and with the history of Pilate. The most important of the set are the *Protevangelium of James*, the *Gospel of Thomas*, and the *Acta of Pilate*, which are perhaps the *origines* of all the apocryphal traditions. That many of the stories found in these were current in the 2d century, is abundantly proved, but we have no evidence that any of the books known as Apocryphal Gospels were then in existence, or are older than the 4th century. 2. The *Apocryphal Acts of the Apostles*, consisting of 13 documents originally written in Greek, but found also in a Latin compilation probably of the 6th century. They are distinguished from the Apocryphal Gospels by having less of miracle and more of didactic discourse. The more important of the collection are *The Acts of Peter and Paul*, *The Acts of Barnabas*, *The Acts of Philip*, *The Acts of Andrew*, *The Acts of Bartholomew*, and *The Acts of John*. It is difficult to ascertain their age. Some are probably of earlier date than the Apocryphal Gospels, but the original MSS. are lost, and we only possess them in late transcripts of the middle ages. 3. The *Apocryphal Apocalypses*, consisting of seven documents, four of which are called apocalypses by their authors. There is great and perplexing variety in the MSS. That called *The Apocalypse of Moses* relates rather to the Old Testament than to the New; so does *The Apocalypse of Esdras*, which is a weak imitation of the Fourth Book of Esdras. The others are *The Apocalypse of Paul*, *The Apocalypse of John*, and *The Assumption of Mary* in three forms. These, too, only exist in late MSS. of the middle ages, and it is, of course, not quite certain that they are the same in form as the works bearing the same name referred to in the writings of the Fathers.

The New Testament A. is not without interest or instruction for us. It throws a flood of light upon the workings of the early Christian consciousness and modes of thought, and it also enables us to appreciate the vast superiority of those Scriptures which have obtained canonical authority. See Tischendorf's *Prolegomena* to the Apocryphal Literature of the New Testament (Leipsic, 1873); and Clark's *Ante-Nicene Christian Library*, vol. 16 (Edinburgh, 1870).

APOCYNA'CEÆ, or **APOCY'NEÆ**, a natural order of Dicotyledonous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, generally with milky juice, having entire leaves, and no stipules. The calyx is usually 5-partite, persistent; the corolla hypogynous, monopetalous, often with scales in its throat, regular, 5-lobed, twisted in bud. There are five stamens, which are inserted on the corolla; the anthers adhere firmly to the stigma, to which the pollen is immediately applied; the anthers are 2-celled, and open longitudinally; the pollen is granular. The ovaries are two, each 1-celled, or one, which is 2-celled; ovules usually numerous; styles 1 or 2; the stigma is contracted in the middle, and peculiarly characteristic of the order. The fruit is a follicle or capsule, or drupe or berry, double or single. The seeds have a fleshy or cartilaginous albumen, or (rarely) are ex-albuminous.—There are about 566 known species, chiefly natives of tropical countries. The PERIWINKLE (q. v.) is its only representative in the flora of Britain, a wanderer, as it were, from the tropics, yet hardly enough for the climate with which it has to contend; the OLEANDER (q. v.) and a few others are found in the south of Europe. Many species are poisonous; amongst which is the noted TANGHIN (q. v.) or TANGHENA of Madagascar. Some are used in medicine, in India and other countries. A number of species yield CAOUTCHOUC (q. v.). The milk of others is bland and wholesome, as the HYA HYA or COW-TREE (q. v.) of Demerara. Some are used in dyeing; *Wrightia tinctoria* yields indigo of good quality.—A number yield eatable fruits, as *Willughbeia edulis* and *Carissa Carandas* in India; *Carissa edulis* in Arabia, and certain species of *Carpodinus*, called PISHAMIN in Sierra Leone, and *Hancornia*.—*Apocynum cannabinum*, Canadian hemp, a herbaceous plant about 4—5 feet in height, with unbranched stem, oblong leaves, and lateral cymes of whitish bell-shaped flowers, yields a very strong fibre, which the Indians of North America employ for making twine, cloth, fishing-nets, &c.

A'PODAL FISHES are fishes destitute of ventral fins. In the Linnæan system, the *Apodes* are an order of Fishes, in which genera not otherwise nearly allied are brought together; but in the systems of Cuvier and other recent naturalists, a less important place is assigned to this distinctive character.—Eels are an example of A. fishes.

APODI'CTIC, a logical term signifying a judgment or conclusion which is necessarily true; or, in other words, a judgment of which the opposite is impossible. No A. judgment can be founded on experience, because experience does not supply the idea of an absolute necessity.

A'POGEE (Gr. *apo*, from, and *ge*, the earth), properly speaking, the greatest distance of the earth from any of the heavenly bodies. Its application, however, is restricted to the sun and moon, the sun's A. corresponding to the earth's aphelion, and the moon's A. being the point of its orbit most remote from the earth. A. is opposed to perigee.

APOLLINA'RIS, the Younger, Bishop of Laodicea in Syria (362), and one of the warmest opponents of Arianism. Both as a man and a scholar, he was held in the greatest reverence; and his writings were extensively read in his own day. His father, A. the Elder, who was presbyter of Laodicea, was born at Alexandria, and taught grammar, first at Berytus, and afterwards at Laodicea. When Julian prohibited the Christians from teaching the classics, the father and son endeavoured to supply the loss by converting the Scriptures into a body of poetry, rhetoric, and philosophy. The Old Testament was selected as the subject for poetical compositions after the manner of Homer, Pindar, and the tragedians; whilst the New Testament formed the groundwork of dialogues in imitation of Plato. It is not ascertained what share the father had in this work, but as he had a reputation for piety, he probably put the Old Testament into Greek verse. But it was chiefly as a controversial theologian, and as the founder of a sect, that A. is celebrated. He maintained the doctrine that the *logos*, or divine nature in Christ, took the place of the rational human soul or mind, and that the body of Christ was a spiritualised and glorified form of humanity. This doctrine was condemned by several synods, especially by the Council of Constantinople (381), on the ground that it denied the true human nature of Christ. The heresy styled Apollinarianism spread itself rapidly in Syria and the neighbouring countries, and, after the death of A., divided itself into two sects—the Vitalians, named after Vitalis, Bishop of Antioch; and the Polemeans, who added to the doctrine of A. the assertion that the divine and human natures were so blended as one substance in Christ that his body was a proper object of adoration. On this account, they were accused of *sarcolatria* (worship of the flesh) and *anthropolatria* (worship of man), and also were styled *synousiastoi* (*syn*, together, and *ousia*, substance), because they confused together the two distinct substances. The whole controversy, which occupied a great part of the 5th c., is an instance of human reason wandering out of its proper sphere. A. must not be confounded with Claudius A., Bishop of Hierapolis, in Phrygia (170 A. D.), and who wrote an *Apology* for the Christian faith, and several other works, all of which are lost.

APO'LLO (Gr. APOLLON). A. may be regarded as the characteristic divinity of the Greeks, much as he was the impersonation of [illegible] its most beautiful and natural forms, [illegible] representative of the Grecian nation. [illegible] worship, with its many festivals, accompanied they were by a cessation from all hostilities, various shrines at sacred places, with their oracles and the general idea of his character had a powerful, and beneficent influence on [illegible] tical life throughout the states of [illegible] and Hesiod mention that he was [illegible] and Leto, but neither states [illegible] The Ephesians believed that both [illegible] and sister, were born in a grove near their [illegible] Tegyræans of Bœotia, and the inhabitants [illegible] in Attica, also claimed the honour of his birth. the Egyptians seemed to think he proved [illegible] to them; but the most popular [illegible] which made him a native of [illegible] Cyclades, where his mother Leto, [illegible] jealous wrath of Juno over land and [illegible] found rest and shelter, and was delivered under the shadow of an olive-tree, at Mount Cynthus. To spite the Queen [illegible] who was far from being a favourite with the goddesses, these hastened to tender their aid to the weak and wearied Leto. The [illegible] much made of. Themis fed him with ambrosia, the food of the gods, which suddenly excited the conceit of [illegible] inasmuch as he surprised his nurse [illegible] feet, demanding a lyre, and announced of henceforth revealing to [illegible] The island, proud of having [illegible] the [illegible] A., adorned itself with a robe of golden [illegible]

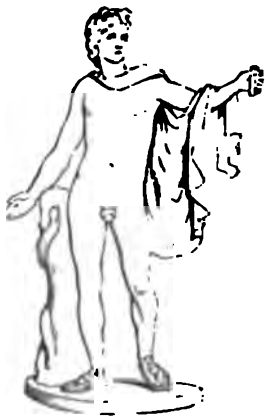
In ancient literature A. is described as [illegible] of many and various powers, all of which are seen on closer inspection to be in [illegible] to each other. He is spoken of [illegible] retributive justice, who, armed with bow [illegible] sends down his glittering [illegible] offenders. In this character [illegible]

of the *Iliad*. 2. As the instructor of bards, god of song or minstrelsy, playing upon the phorminx or seven-stringed lyre, and singing for the diversion of the other deities when engaged in feasting. 3. As the god of prophetic inspiration, especially in his oracle at Delphi. 4. As the guardian deity of herds and flocks. 5. As the god of medicine, who affords help, and wards off evil. In this sense he is represented as the father of Asclepius (*Æsculapius*), the god of the healing art. 6. As a founder of cities. According to Homer, he assisted Neptune in building the walls of Troy. Cyrene, Naxos in Sicily, and other cities, venerated A. as their founder. By the later

Apollo.

A was identified with Helios, the sun-god, mer describes the latter as a distinct deity. ..rtics, however, have regarded Helios, or the as the true original A.—an opinion which ported by many probabilities. The suppo- A. was identical with the Egyptian deity was rejected by the learned O. Müller, erally opposed all attempts to deduce from Egyptian mythology. According to 's theory, A. was a purely Doric deity, whose residence was in Tempe, and who afterwards ed to Delphi, whence the fame of his oracle was abroad, and made him to be recognised as the l divinity of Greece. The introduction of his Attica appears to have been contempo- with the immigration of the Ionians, and worship would seem to have spread over the ponnesus, immediately after it was conquered by Dorians. Much controversy has taken place, with reference to the idea which lies at not of the whole myth of the A. worship, also as to whether this myth had its origin north of Greece or in Egypt. Even on osition that the original conception was from the latter source, it was to Greek art osophy that it owed its development into the humanity. The most celebrated oracles of A. at Delphi, Abæ in Phocis, Ismenion in Thebes, Claros, near Colophon, and Patara in Lycia. mong the Romans, the worship of A. was prac- ed as early as 430 B.C., and prevailed especially der the emperors. But there can be no doubt that Romans derived their conceptions of A. entirely m the Greeks. It was in honour of A. and his ter Diana that the *ludi seculares* were cele- ted every hundred years. The attributes of A. the bow and quiver, the cithara and plectrum, snake, shepherd's crook, tripod, laurel, raven, ; less frequently, the grasshopper, cock, hawk, lf, and olive-tree. In sculpture, he is generally resented with a face beautifully oval, high fore- d, flowing hair, and slender figure.

APOLLO BELVEDERE, a celebrated statue of beauty, which has generally been regarded as bodying the highest ideal of manly beauty. It generally supposed to represent the 'lord of the erring bow' in the moment of his victory over Python. but numerous other explanations have ted. The figure (upwards of 7 feet in aked, but a cloak fastened round the gracefully over the extended left arm; n of the face is one of and h. ed with 'beaut slain.' in 1503, amid the ruins of the ancient Antium, now Capo d'Anzo, and purchased by Pope Julius II., who



Apollo Belvedere.

placed it in the Belvedere of the Vatican, whence the name it bears. The date of its execution is with probability referred to the reign of Nero, but the name of the artist is a matter of mere conjecture. The left hand and the right fore-arm, wanting in the statue as discovered, were restored by G. A. da Montorsoli, a pupil of Michael Angelo.

APOLLODO'RUS, an Athenian painter, who flourished about 408 B.C., and was the predecessor of Zeuxis. He introduced improved colouring and distribution of light and shade.—A., a celebrated architect in the time of the Emperor Trajan, by whom he was employed to construct a bridge over the Danube in Lower Hungary. His severe censure, boldly pronounced on a design for a temple of Venus, which the Emperor Hadrian had sent to him, caused A. to be sentenced to death in 129 A.D.—A., a Greek grammarian, lived about 140 B.C., studied philosophy in Athens, and grammar under Aristarchus; wrote a work on mythology, giving an arrangement of old myths from the earliest times to the historical period; also a geography, a chronicle in iambic verse, and several grammatical works. The mythology, which begins with the origin of the gods, probably went down as far as the Trojan cycle, but a portion of it has perished. It has been reckoned by some only an extract from a larger work by A., though this is a mere hypothesis, based on the fact that the legends are given with extreme simplicity and brevity. The work is one of great value to classical scholars. An edition of the *Bibliotheca* of A., in 4 vols., was published at Göttingen, 1782–1783, by C. H. G. Heyne.

APOLLO'NIUS, the name of several celebrated Greek grammarians and rhetoricians. A., surnamed Dyscolos (or ill-tempered), of Alexandria, lived in the 2d c. Some of his grammatical works were edited by Bekker. A. was the first who reduced grammar to a system. His reputation was so high, that Priscian calls him *grammaticorum princeps* (the prince of grammarians).—A., son of Archebulus, also of Alexandria, lived in the time of Augustus, and was the author of a lexicon of Homeric words.—A., surnamed Molon, was a teacher of rhetoric at Rhodes, and also gave lectures at Rome, where he was highly esteemed by Cicero and Cæsar.—A. OF PERGA, 240 B.C., is classed with Euclid, Archimedes, and Diophantus, as one of the founders of the mathematical sciences. His work on conic sections has been preserved,

partly in the original Greek, partly in an Arabic translation.—A. OF RHODES (or of Alexandria, say some authorities), born 235 B.C., wrote many works on grammar, and an epic poem, entitled the *Argonautica*, marked rather by learning and industry than by poetical genius, though it contains some truly artistic passages, such as those exhibiting the growth of Medea's love. It was greatly admired by the Romans, was translated into Latin by Publius Terentius Varro, and was imitated, not only in a wholesale manner by Valerius Flaccus, but even by Virgil in some passages. It has been edited by the German scholars Brunck and Wellauer (Leipsic, 1813—1828).

APOLLO'NIUS, OF TYANA, in Cappadocia, who lived in the time of Christ, was a zealous follower of the doctrines of Pythagoras. He soon collected a considerable number of disciples, travelled through a great part of Asia Minor, and endeavoured to find his way to India, in order to become acquainted with the doctrine of the Brahmins. On this journey he stayed for a time in Babylon, was introduced to the Magi, and at last reached the court of King Phraortes, in India, who recommended him to Jarchas, the principal Brahmin. When A. returned from this pilgrimage, his fame as a wise man was greatly increased; the people regarded him as a worker of miracles and a divine being, and princes were glad to entertain him at their courts. He himself seems to have claimed insight into futurity, rather than the power of working miracles. From Rome he was expelled on a charge of having raised a young woman from the dead. After extensive travels in Spain, Italy, Greece, and Ethiopia, he was accused of having taken part in an insurrection against Domitian; but appeared before the tribunal, and was acquitted. Ultimately, he appears to have settled in Ephesus, where he opened a Pythagorean school, and continued his teaching until he died, nearly one hundred years old. His history was written about a hundred years after his death by Philostratus (q.v.). It contains a mass of absurdities and fables, through which an outline of historical facts and the real character of the man are sufficiently discernible. Hierocles, a heathen statesman and opponent of Christianity, wrote, in the 3d c., a work on the life and doctrines of A., with a view to prove their superiority to the doctrine of Christ. In modern times, the English freethinkers Blount and Lord Herbert, and Voltaire in France, have renewed the attempt.

APOLLO'NIUS, of TYRE, the hero of a Greek romance, which enjoyed great popularity in the middle ages, and was translated into almost all the languages of Western Europe. In it are related the romantic adventures which befell A., a Syrian prince, previous to his marriage with the daughter of King Alcistrates, of Cyrene. To these are added the adventures of his wife, who was parted from him by apparent death, as well as those of his daughter, Tarsia, who was carried off by pirates, and sold in Mitylene. The poem closes with the reunion of the whole family. The original Greek work no longer exists; but there are three very early Latin versions, of which one was published by Welser (Augsburg, 1595); another is to be found in the *Gesta Romanorum;* and the third in the *Pantheon* of Gottfried of Viterbo. From this Latin source have proceeded the Spanish version of the 13th c., printed in Sanchez' *Collection de Poesias Castellanas* (2d edition, Paris, 1842), several French versions, in prose and verse, as well as several Italian. As early as the 11th c. there was an Anglo-Saxon adaptation of the work, and subsequently various English ones appeared. Shakspeare has treated the subject in his drama of *Pericles;* he sub follows in his *Confessio Amantis,* w the *Pantheon* of Gottfried of Vi lar English stories, drawn fr of this romance, appeared in L and 1607; while the Dutch, in from the German. The romance German, probably from the *Gesta Ro* certain 'Heinrich von der Neuenstadt' (i.e. about the year 1300, in the form of a l yet, unpublished poem. Later, we *des Küniges Appolonii,* translated fi Viterbo, and first published at A Simrock, in his *Sources of Sha* the story as it is given in the *Gesta* modern Greek translation of the undertaken in 1500 by Gabriel Contianus, and several times reprinted at Venice, confounded with the lost Greek original.

A'POLOGUE, a fable, parable, or al intended to serve as a pleasant vehicle of a doctrine. One of the oldest and best an parables is that by Jotham, as given in Judges (ix. 7—15). Another celebrated the 'Limbs and the Body,' related by Menenius Agrippa. Æsop's fab world-wide reputation. Luther h of the value of the A. as a vehicle that he edited a revised Æsop, for which he characteristic preface. He says: 'In d have especially cared for young people may receive instruction in a style su age, which is naturally fond of all and I have wished to gratify this na out indulging anything that is bad.'

APO'LOGY. The term is now co stood as synonymous with an excu an engagement, &c., but was origin title of any work written in def doctrines, as in the *A. of Socrates,* Plato and Xenophon; the *A. for the* by Tertullian, and in many Christians, written by Justin Tatian, Theophilus, Origen. Arnobius, Lactantius, Au The attacks parried or ret in these works are such as charges of philosophical knowledge, anti-so Both the charges and the refutati ward serve to give us an insight in of the times when these works were w in the A. by Tertullian, it is curious to argument employed to refute the asse spread of Christianity was the cause of and other natural phenomena which some parts of the Roman empire. century, when the church was made the Roman emperors, apologetical wr called for; but Bartholus Edessenus Martinus wrote against the Jews medans. In the 15th c., when the placed Christianity in apparent opp Platonic philosophy, Marsilius Fic defence of revelation; and some time Reformation, the spread of freethinki cism in England was opposed by a va getical works, chiefly maintaini Christianity is a divine revelati messenger, and his church a The defence of Christianity on came now to be treated as a theology, under the name of *Ap* the numerous apologetic works by P be mentioned those by Gr (*De* Butler (*Analogy of Religi*

r (*Credibility of the Gospel History*), Leland, ..., Soame Jenyns (*Internal Evidences of the ...tian Religion*), Hugh Farmer, Bishop Watson ...r Christianity), Paley (*Evidences of Christianity, Horæ Paulinæ*), &c. Among Roman Catholic writers, the most eminent are Pascal, ..., Guenée, Bergier, Mayr, and Chateau-

...ently, a great number of apologetic works by ...er, Tholuck, and others have appeared, in ...to Strauss's *Life of Jesus*, and the *Vie de* by Joseph Ernest Renan.

ONEURO'SIS is an anatomical term for an ...sion of strong fibrous tissue, of which there are examples in the human body. For the sake of ...science, it is generally confined to expansions ...the tendons of muscles, as the lumbar A. If a ... is very broad and expanded, as that of the ... oblique muscle of the abdomen, it is said ...aponeurotic. Some muscles, as those on the ...blade, are partially covered with a ten- ...expansion, to which some of their fibres ...d; this is termed the aponeurotic *origin* ...scle; it gives the muscle a more extensive ...ment, without adding materially to weight. ...ruses stretch in some localities as protec- ...over large arteries; thus, in bleeding from ... nearest the inside of the bend of the elbow, ... structure between it, the lancet, and the artery, is an aponeurotic expansion from the ...tion into the muscles of the fore-arm. See ...

...PHEGM (Gr., an utterance), a term used ... ... any truth or maxim sententiously ... The oracles of the heathen gods often ...this form, as also the proverbs, memorable ... &c., of the sages of antiquity. In modern ..., Lord Bacon has made a charming collection ...pophthegms.

APOPLEXY is a term applied to an engorge- ...of blood, with or without extravasation, in or ...any organ, as the brain (*cerebral* A.), the *spinal* ... (*pulmonary* A.). As popularly used, the ... vaguely a condition arising from some ...ce within the head. A. occurs in *fits*, which ... ...den or come on by degrees. They are char- ...ised by loss of sense and motion, speechlessness ...heavy sleep, with stertorous respiration and a ...pulse. The fit may last from a few hours to ...r three days, and passes off, leaving generally ... or less paralysis, and recurs at intervals of ... or years. The *age* at which A. occurs most ...ally is from fifty to seventy, and is compara- ... before and after these ages. Cerebral A. ... from mere congestion of the blood-vessels ...rain, caused by impeded return of the venous ..., as from the military stock pressing on the ...ar veins, keeping the head long in one position, ...ining it quickly. Stout persons, with short ..., are more liable to this form of A.; though ... persons are also frequently its victims. But ...ddition to congestion, there may be an escape ...e watery portion of the blood from the con- ...d vessels, and this collecting, produces *serous* ..., owing to a diseased condition of the arterial ... the v...s may burst, and A. from cerebral ... the result; the latter is the most ..., ...d is usually preceded by some softening ...e brain substance itself. If this bleeding be ...y great extent, death results; if only a small ...tity escapes, it coagulates, and forms a clot, ...h is absorbed in time. Persons with diseased ... ...l lungs, and pregnant females, are liable to ... fits. The attack is generally preceded ...idache, partial or temporary loss of memory, and occasionally double vision. When these warnings occur, medical advice should be sought to correct the digestive functions; and by relieving the oppressed brain, ward off the fit. When the latter occurs, the patient's head should be raised, cold applied, and in some cases blood should be withdrawn from the temporal artery or external jugular vein. As soon as possible, purgative medicines should be administered. For the results of A., see PARALYSIS. Tumours within the skull produce symptoms of A.

APO'STATE literally designates any one who changes his religion, whatever may be his motive; but, by custom, the word is always used in an injurious sense, as equivalent to renegade, or one who, in changing his creed, is actuated by unworthy motives. In early Christian times, the word was applied to those who abandoned their faith in order to escape from persecution; but it was also applied to such as rejected Christianity on speculative grounds (the Emperor Julian, for instance). After the 5th c., when heathenism was declining, many who had no sincere belief in Christianity, yet made profession of it, and were baptised: these also were styled apostates. The apostates in times of persecution were styled variously Sacrificati, Thurificati, &c., according to the modes in which they publicly made known their return to heathenism, by offering sacrifices or incense to the gods of Rome. The Roman Catholic Church at one period imposed severe penalties on apostasy. The apostate was of course excommunicated; but sometimes also his property was confiscated, and he himself banished, or even put to death. It has often been of great moment to the fortunes of a nation that a prince has apostatised. The most renowned instance in modern history, is that of Henry IV. of France. In 1833 there was published, at Erlangen, *A Gallery of Important Persons who in the 16th, 17th, and 18th Centuries went over from the Protestant to the Roman Catholic Church.*— The term APOSTASY is now employed commonly, and often abusively, as a reproach for great or sudden changes in political opinions.

APO'STLE (Gr. *apostolos*, sent forth, sent on a mission), any messenger whatever, but especially used to denote the twelve disciples whom Jesus sent forth to preach the gospel. Their names were Simon Peter, Andrew, John (the son of Zebedee), James (his brother), Philip, Bartholomew (called also Nathaniel), Thomas, Matthew (surnamed Levi), James (the son of Alphæus), Thaddeus, Simon, and Judas Iscariot. Subsequently, Matthias was chosen in the room of Judas; and at a still later period, the number of the apostles was further increased by the calling of Paul to the apostleship. The term is sometimes used in the New Testament in its more general signification. Barnabas is styled an A. (Acts xiv.). It is a point of controversy between the supporters and opponents of episcopacy, whether or not the term A., as indicating an office, is applied to any except the original twelve, Matthias, and Paul; it being maintained, on the one hand, that the office is perpetuated in bishops; on the other, that it was temporary and belonged exclusively to those who were witnesses of the resurrection of Christ, and were employed by him to found the Christian Church. The apostles were twice commissioned by their Master to go forth on their work of evangelisation. First, during the third year of his public ministry. On this occasion, their labours were to be restricted to the Jews, properly so called. Not even the Samaritans, though natives of Palestine, were to be the objects of their religious solicitude. They were earnestly to seek out the lost sheep of the house of Israel. The second time was shortly before the Lord's ascension, when

their sphere of labour was indefinitely extended. 'Go, and teach all nations, baptising them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost.' On the day of Pentecost, the apostles received miraculous gifts fitting them for their arduous work. And after evangelising for some years in Palestine, they all departed, with the exception of St James, into various quarters of the globe; but the region of their ministry seems to have principally comprised the civilised provinces and cities of the eastern part of the Roman empire—viz., Syria, Asia Minor, and Greece; though probably Peter, and after him Paul, visited Rome. There is no historical foundation for the tradition that the first apostles divided the then known world into twelve parts, each taking one of these for his special sphere of labour. This figment was very likely originated by two circumstances: 1. That the disciples were commanded to go into all the world and preach the gospel; and 2. That the disciples in point of fact had little personal intercourse with each other. Their zeal for the propagation of Christianity left them no time to gratify their social inclinations. As a consequence, we have very imperfect accounts of their lives or manner of death.

The several apostles are usually represented in medieval pictures with special badges or attributes: St Peter, with the keys; St Paul, with a sword; St Andrew, with a cross; St James the Less, with a fuller's pole; St John, with a cup and a winged serpent flying out of it; St Bartholomew, with a knife; St Philip, with a long staff, whose upper end is formed into a cross; St Thomas, with a lance; St Matthew, with a hatchet; St Matthias, with a battle-axe; St James the Greater, with a pilgrim's staff and a gourd-bottle; St Simon, with a saw; and St Jude, with a club.

APO'STLES' CREED. See CREED.

APOSTO'LIC, or APOSTO'LICAL, the general term applied to everything derived directly from, or bearing the character of the apostles. Either case constitutes apostolicity. The Roman Catholic Church declares itself the A. Church; the papal chair the A. chair, on the ground of an unbroken series of Roman bishops, from the chief apostle, Peter. The Church of England, in virtue of regular episcopal ordination from the pre-reformation church, claims to be A.; so likewise do the Protestant Episcopal churches in Scotland and the United States. Apostolic Tradition (see TRADITION) claims to have been handed down from the apostles. In the same special sense, the name of A. Council belongs to that conclave of the apostles at Jerusalem (Acts, xv.), about the year 51 or 52 A.D., occasioned by the disputes raised at Antioch by Judaising Christians as to the admission of uncircumcised Gentiles into the church. Certain congregations or churches, also, which were the special scenes of the labours of the apostles, bore for centuries the title of A. Churches, more especially those of Jerusalem, Antioch, Ephesus, Corinth, and Rome. But with the ever-increasing spiritual power of the Romish hierarchy, the name A. came to be more and more exclusively applied to Rome, and is retained by her, despite the energetic protests of the Protestant Churches. Hence the term Apostolic See, i.e., the see of Rome; Apostolic Blessing, the blessing of the pope as the successor of St Peter; Apostolic Vicar, the cardinal who represents the pope in extraordinary missions; Apostolic Chamber, a council intrusted with the care of the revenues of the see of Rome; Apostolic Months—January, March, May, July, September, November—the months in which the pope, according to the Vienna Concordat of 1448, took possession of the vacant benefices in Germany, &c. A papal brief or letter is styled A. in same sense.

APOSTO'LIC BRETHREN, or AP
the name given in Italy, towards the end
c., to one of those sects which, anim
spirit of an Arnold of Brescia, felt co
oppose the worldly tendencies of the
founder was Gerhard Segarelli, a weaver in
Rejected, from some cause or other, by the
order, his long-continued and e
tions led him to the profound con
above all things necessary to
forms of apostolic life. Accordi
(1260) in the garb of the apostl
repentance, and by his practical discours
many adherents into a kind of free soci
by no oaths. At first he managed to av
collision with the dogmas of the ch
twenty years of undisturbed activit
influence, Segarelli was arrested by
Parma; and in 1286, upon the occasio
Pope Honorius IV. renewed a decree of P
X. against all religious communities
sanctioned by the papal chair. In
IV. setting himself expressly to opp
they, on their side, began avowedly
the papacy, and its corrupt and worl
the Babylon of the Apocalypse. In
both men and women, and among them
having, after abjuration, relapsed
perished at the stake. But his cause
Dolcino, a more energetic and cultiva
brought up as a priest, who had previo
active part in the Tyrol against the c
the church, now headed the orphan sect
taught the duty of a complete re
worldly ties, of property and fa
Having retreated into Dalmatia, he
thence the dawning of a new era,
reappeared in Upper Italy, with the
adherents, as the enemy of the papac
time humbled and impoverished by
1305, a crusade was preached
fortified the mountain Zebello,
Vercelli, but was, after a gallant de
by famine to submit. After horrible
he bore with the utmost fortitude.
In Lombardy and the south of
of the A. B. lingered on till 1368.
Dolcino und die Patarener. (Leipsic,

APOSTO'LIC CATHOLIC CHU
IRVINGITES.

APOSTO'LIC FATHERS, the name
the immediate disciples and fellow-labou
apostles, and, in a more restricted s
among them who have left writi
A. F., specially so called, are E
Rome, Ignatius of Antioch, and
It is uncertain whether Papias of H
author of the *Shepherd*, who gave h
Hermas spoken of in Rom. xvi.
disciples of the apostles. The writings o
as to their form and subject, may be look
a continuation of the apostolic epistl
inferior to them in spirit. Their
to exhort to faith and holiness
coming again. The writings of
brought within the reach of
the translations of Arch
Chevallier.

APOSTO'LIC MAJ **TY.** a
kings of Hungary, was c
II., in 1000 A.D., upon
who had not only much en
of Christianity in Hungary, b

lf. on of the apostles. In 1758, the ... by Pope Clement XIII., in favour ... rem as Queen of Hungary, and con... be used by the emperor of Austria as king ...ngary.

APOSTOLIC CANONS AND CONSTITUTIONS, both ascribed by tradition to Clemens ...nus, are notes of ecclesiastical customs held to ...postolical, written in the form of apostolic ...cta. The *Constitutiones Apostolicæ*, consisting ... t books, were probably composed in Syria, ...ntain, in the first six books, a comprehensive ... for the whole of Christian life. These were ...bably written about the end of the 3d c.; while ...seventh book, which is essentially an abridg... of them, may have belonged to the beginning ... 4th c. The eighth book was put together in ...dle of the 4th c., for the use of the priests, ...y relates to the sacred offices. Interpolations, ...ver, were afterwards introduced. The *Canones ...stolici*, which were also recognised by the church, ... composed at a later period. The first fifty, ...uded in the middle of the 5th c., and translated ... Greek into Latin by Dionysius the Younger, ...acknowledged by the Latin Church alone. The ... Church, on the other hand, accepted the ...-five canons put forth in the beginning of the ...; and this became a point of discord between ...hurches. Both collections were probably looked ... at first as apostolic traditions merely. Later, it ... to be believed that they were written down by ...apostles themselves, it being thought probable ... they should have expressed themselves posi... about the constitution as well as the dogmas ... church.

APOSTOLIC PARTY, the name given to a party ... acted a conspicuous part in the modern history ...ain. They were composed of fanatical Catholics, ... were also absolutists so far as the king con... to be their instrument. They formed them... (soon after the revolution of 1819) into an ...., whose leaders were fugitive priests, and whose troops were smugglers and robbers. After taking an active part in all the subsequent agitations, they finally merged (1830) in the Carlist party.

APOSTOLICAL SUCCESSION is a phrase used to denote one or both of *two* things – the derivation of holy orders by an unbroken chain of transmission from the apostles, and the succession of a ministry so ordained to the powers and privileges of the apostles. The former is necessarily a matter of fact, to be ascertained by history; the latter is rather a matter of opinion – the Roman and Protestant Churches, and again individuals and parties in either, differing widely from each other in their views. See BISHOP and ORDINATION.

APOSTROPHE (Gr. *apostrophē*, a turning away, or breaking off) is a rhetorical figure by which a speaker changes the course of his speech, and addresses, with greater or lesser emotional emphasis, persons present or absent, the dead, or inanimate objects, either to invoke them as witnesses, or to pity, praise, or blame them. When the figure is well managed, it has a thrilling effect, both in oratory and poetry; but when extravagantly introduced, it becomes ludicrous. Examples of it abound in the writings and speeches of the great poets and statesmen both of ancient and modern times. – A. in grammar, is the omission of a letter or letters in a word, the omission being marked by a comma, as *'tis* for *it is*; the comma so employed is also called an *A.*

APOTHECARY, the name formerly given in England and Ireland to members of an inferior branch of the medical profession. The A. was in England a licentiate of the Apothecaries' Society of London; in Ireland, a licentiate of the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland. Up to a comparatively recent period, however, no inconsiderable proportion of those who practised as apothecaries, at anyrate in England, were persons practising without any licence. The A. frequently kept a shop in which he sold drugs and made up medical prescriptions, in this respect competing with the chemist and druggist. But he was entitled to attend sick persons, and prescribe for them; and though it was the almost universal practice of apothecaries to charge their patients only for medicines supplied, they had the choice between doing this and charging for their attendances. They could not charge for both. This was held by Chief-justice Best, in an action by an A., who sought to recover on both grounds (see Wilcock, *On the Medical Profession*).

In having this choice as to their mode of charging, they had the advantage of the chemists and druggists; but the chief advantage they had over these lay in the recognition, by the law, of their right to practise, and their consequent immunity from punishment for the results of malpractice, except where they had shewn gross ignorance. The Medical Act of 1858, which greatly altered the conditions of medical practice throughout the United Kingdom, has much improved the status of licentiates of the Apothecaries' Societies; and though such licentiates are still entitled to keep shops for the sale of drugs, and to make up their own prescriptions, the passing of the Pharmacy Act (1868) has made broader the distinction between them and the class of chemists and druggists (see CHEMISTS AND DRUGGISTS). The term A. has been long in disuse, though, no doubt, it is still a legal description for licentiates of the Apothecaries' Society of London, or of the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland; and such licentiates are now, as licentiates in medicine before the law, in all respects, including eligibility for public appointments, on a par with the graduates of universities. Under the Medical Act of 1858, they are entitled to be registered as licentiates in medicine, and, when registered, they have the right of practising medicine in all parts of the Queen's dominions, charging both for their visits and professional advice, and for medicines or medical appliances supplied by them. It is possible, indeed, that they have one advantage over medical men practising on other qualifications; for it has been repeatedly held by county court judges in England that they are the only medical practitioners entitled to recover the price of medicines supplied to patients. But this question has never been brought before the superior courts in England, and the decisions referred to seem not to be supported by the language of the Medical Act. The conditions of getting the licences of the Apothecaries' Society and of the Apothecaries' Hall in Ireland are nearly the same as those imposed by other corporations which grant medical qualifications, the only difference worth mentioning being, that an apprenticeship to a licentiate for five years in England, for three years in Ireland, is indispensable for the apothecaries' license. The requirement of an apprenticeship puts the Apothecaries' Society and the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland at a disadvantage compared with the Colleges of Physicians which grant licenses to practise medicine; it also makes it impossible for them to combine with surgical corporations in giving the double qualification in medicine and surgery on the result of a conjoint examination. Accordingly, a bill is now (1874) being promoted in parliament to make the requirement of apprenticeship unnecessary. The Apothecaries' Society of London and the Apothe-

caries' Hall of Ireland each appoint a member of the General Council of Medical Education and Registration. The former is the only licensing corporation in the United Kingdom which has ever granted a license to a woman to practise medicine; but by an alteration in the by-laws of the society, the licensing of women has been made practically impossible.

In England, the business or profession of an A., although not regulated, nor, indeed, fully recognised, till modern times, was the subject of several ancient statutes, and is traceable to a remote period. Richard Fitznigel, who died Bishop of London, is stated to have been A. to Henry II.; and it is an accredited tradition, that in 1345 King Edward III. gave a pension of sixpence a day to Coursus de Gangland, an A. in London, for taking care of, and attending his majesty during his illness in Scotland. It is, however, improbable that apothecaries were then common; indeed, it may be doubted whether at that time they existed as a publicly known body at all, for, in 1511, there was passed an act of parliament, the 3 Henry VIII. c. 11, for regulating the admission of persons practising physic or surgery, which makes no mention of the class now known as apothecaries. In 1543, however, the parliament passed a very curious act, the 34 and 35 Henry VIII. c. 8, the preamble of which deals severely with the ignorance and cupidity of the London surgeons; and which, as a remedy, provides for the toleration and protection of the irregular practitioners, who afterwards, as a body, acquired the distinctive name of apothecaries. This act, strange though it be in its language, may perhaps be regarded as the real foundation of the office of the A. It certainly shews on its face sufficient cause for its recognition of the persons to benefit whom it was passed, for it complains that the surgeons of London were not only unskilful and grasping, but that they 'have sued, troubled, and vexed divers honest persons, as well men as women, whom God had endued with the knowledge of the nature, kind, and operation of certain herbs, roots, and waters, and the using and ministering of them to such as had been pained with customable diseases, as women's breasts being sore, a pin and the web in the eye, uncomes of hands, burnings, scaldings, sore mouths, the stone, strangury, saucelim, and morphew, and such other like diseases; and yet the said persons have not taken anything for their pains or cunning, but have ministered the same to poor people only for neighbourhood and God's sake, and of pity and charity.' The act, therefore, proceeds to ordain, 'That at all time from henceforth it shall be lawful to every person being the king's subject, having knowledge and experience of the nature of herbs, roots, and waters, or of the operation of the same, by speculation or practice, within any part of the realm of England, or within any other the king's dominions, to practise, use, and minister in and to any outward sore, uncome, wound, apostemation, outward swelling or disease, any herb or herbs, ointments, baths, pultess, and emplaisters, according to their cunning, experience, and knowledge in any of the diseases, sores, and maladies beforesaid, and all other like to the same, or drinks for the stone, strangury, or agues, without suit, vexation, trouble, penalty, or loss of their goods, the foresaid statute in the foresaid third year of the king's most gracious reign, or any other act, ordinance, or statute to the contrary heretofore made in anywise notwithstanding.'

Anciently, the apothecaries were not distinguishable from the grocers (the surgeons being, in like manner, undistinguishable from the barbers); indeed, it rather appears that apothecaries and grocers were synonymous terms; and it was not 13th year of James I., that these b into two distinct corporations by king, which, reciting a previous grant in 1606, by which the two bodies united, declares that the apothecaries forward, be separate from, and constitute distinct from the grocers. The privil by this charter upon the apothecari wards considerably enlarged by an act ment, 55 Geo. III. c. 194, to which w refer. But even after the charter London apothecaries appear to merely as a trading company, ing the medicines which they sold, as it was thought, on the province until their right to do so was judgment of the House of Lords, i College of Physicians against Ro previous decision of the Court of Kin Rose, who was an A. and freeman had attended one Scale, a butcher. up and administered what was not proper medicine to him. This, it w on behalf of the physicians, was as their exclusive privileges, and th being of the same opinion, una ment for the plaintiffs; but reversed by the House of Lords. established had this branch of the pro sion become, that, in 1815, the act 55 Geo. III. c. 194, to which w referred, was passed to provide for th their education; thus, for the first ti be said, placing the apothecaries, as a footing of a liberal profession. This a completely regulates the position, privi sponsibilities of the apothecaries, after for the most part confirming) the charte I., by which the apothecaries of London b distinctively incorporated as a comp to enact that no person shall practise act as an assistant to an A., in any part or Wales, unless he shall have been e court of examiners (to be chosen by th wardens of the said company, in s act directs), and have received the of his being duly qualified to prac with respect to what constitutes such an A., it has been judicially determi of law will look to section 5 of t defines certain of the duties and lia office, but which in noway deprives a any of their previously acquired pri certificate—for which a sum is to be benefit of the company's funds— granted to any person below the one, or who has not served an five years to an A., and can pro of sufficient medical education and conduct; and any person practisi certificate, is disabled from recove and for every such offence is, more a penalty of £20, which can be rec county court. It is also provided as it is the duty of every A. to ness, such medicines that may the sick by any physician lawfully A. refusing to compound or sell, or pounding or selling any medicines any prescription or order, signed by lawfully licensed, with his initials, al penalties and forfeitures as therein further, that the master, wardens, apothecaries for the time be or them appointed, and being

may at all reasonable times in the shops of any A. throughout and search and examine whether rugs be wholesome, and meet for bjects of the realm, and destroy be otherwise; and report to the of the society the names of the made liable to a fine of £5 for te second, and £20 for the third ontains, however, a proviso that ll affect the business of a chemist buying, preparing, compounding, ling drugs, medicines, and medi- holesale and retail; nor interfere he universities of Cambridge or of Physicians or of Surgeons, pothecaries, respectively, except ct.

was passed on the 12th of July he exemption from its operation s as might have been in practice st day of August of that year - f whom it may be reasonably re very few now surviving.

in Ireland are an exclusive privileges, equally with those of Company of London, are ex- he medical act of 1858 (the 21

Although occupying a position any respects to that of the same previous to 1858, the Irish ap- ppear to have established their actitioners to the extent to which caries have succeeded in carrying

to apothecaries in Ireland is con- the Irish parliament, the 31 Geo. 1791, and entituled 'An Act for y Preserving the Health of his , for erecting an Apothecaries' of Dublin, and regulating the pothecary throughout the King- he act incorporated the apothe- '; the officers of the corporation deputy governor, and thirteen om among the members. Any rem, of whom the governor or ould be one, was to be called a for inspecting and directing all pound preparations and experi- d that no person, after the 24th be taken as an apprentice, for- o any A. in Ireland, until after company; and that from and e, no person should open shop or ystery of an A. within the king- til such person should have been s qualifications and knowledge by such persons and in such fore mentioned and required for f persons applying to become keepers. This provision appears caries' Hall in Ireland a com- he vending and compounding of this respect its operation has the acts relating to chemists and

re never was a class of prac- ing to the English apothecaries.

See LICHENS.

, deification, or the raising of a of a god (Gr. *theo*). From the f view there is nothing monstrous he contrary, it is quite natural, t of the system. Among heathens generally, and especially among the Romans, every departed spirit became a deity (see MANES); 'and as it was common for children to worship (privately) the manes of their fathers, so was it natural for divine honours to be *publicly* paid to a deceased emperor, who was regarded as the parent of his country.' (See SMITH'S *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities.*) At the *Consecratio*, as it was called, of a Roman emperor, the body was burnt on a funeral pile, and as the fire ascended, an eagle was let loose to mount into the sky, carrying, as was believed, the soul of the emperor from earth to heaven. Many medals are found with the word *consecratio* surrounding an altar, with fire on it, and an eagle rising into the air.

APPALA'CHIANS, the general appellation of the great mountain-system—called also the Alleghanies – which stretches from the interior of Maine to the borders of Alabama, its distance from the sea gradually ranging between about 100 miles in the north, and about 300 in the south. Speaking generally, this chain may be regarded as the parent of the Atlantic rivers of the United States on the one side, and on the other of the southern tributaries of the St Lawrence, and of the eastern feeders of the Mississippi: it is not, however, the actual water-shed during its entire length, for it is crossed by the Connecticut, the Hudson, and the Delaware, just as the Himalayas are pierced by the Ganges, and the Andes by the Amazon. The chain, in fact, consists of several ranges generally parallel to each other, which, along with the intermediate valleys that occupy two-thirds of the breadth, form a belt 100 miles wide—its multiform character, however, developing itself only to the west and south of the Hudson. To take the chief ridges by name, and to begin from the north: the White Hills of New Hampshire present the loftiest elevations, Mooshillock and Washington being respectively 4636 and 6634 feet above the sea. Next in order, the Green Mountains, which, true to the name, almost cover Vermont, attain, in Killington Peak, a height of 3924 feet; then come the Highlands, on the east of the Hudson, so striking an object to the voyagers on its waters; immediately beyond that river, again, we find the Catskill Mountains, which, though of inconsiderable length, contain two eminences—Round Top and High Peak respectively of 3804 and 3718 feet; while, on a terrace of another member of the group, Mountain House, a favourite refuge from the heats of summer, is perched 2500 feet above the level of the Hudson. Proceeding onwards, the Kittatinnies extend from the north of New Jersey as far as Virginia; while nearer to the sea, the Blue Ridge, stretching from about the same parallel down to North Carolina, or rather to low it, is crowned, within the limits of Virginia, by the Peaks of Otter, at an altitude somewhat greater than that of any point between themselves and New Hampshire. Lastly, there lie, more to the westward, the Alleghanies proper in Pennsylvania and Virginia, and the Cumberland Mountains on the east border of Kentucky and Tennessee.

Of all these elevations not one at all approaches the limit of perpetual snow. Yet France, while struggling with England in North America, regarded the A. as a wall that was physically to exclude her rival from the basins of the St Lawrence and the Mississippi. Anglo-Saxon energy, however, has virtually levelled the supposed barrier from end to end. Through Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont runs a railway from Portland to Canada; by canal or by railway, or even by both abreast, New York has reached the waters of the St Lawrence on at least four principal points between Montreal in the east, and Buffalo in the west; Pennsylvania has carried to

Pittsburg a railway of 248 miles from Harrisburg, and a canal of 312 miles from Columbia; while, with the necessary exception of little Delaware alone, the remaining states along the coast have each its iron-way through the A.

The chain abounds in coal and iron, those gifts of nature to industrious man, which in all ages have done so much for civilisation, and which, in our own age, have, with the aid of steam, more than doubled all that they had done before; and it is a curious instance of the adaptation of the two worlds to each other, that, while the Spaniard met, in the south, the gigantic counterparts of the central plateau of his own romantic land, the Englishman, in the north, stumbled, as it were, on those same elements of almost creative energy which, within two centuries, were to be so instrumental in placing the daughter next to the mother among the nations of the earth. As an evidence of the actual value of the coal and iron of the A., Pennsylvania—where, hitherto, they have been chiefly found—has since 1840 made more rapid strides in growth of population than any other state in the Union, till between 1860 and 1870, when Illinois increased somewhat more rapidly. Nor are iron and coal the only valuable products of the A. To say nothing of the valleys—many of them as fertile as they are lovely—which separate the parallel ranges from each other, the mountains themselves yield limestone, marble, slate, building-stone, copper, zinc, chrome, &c.

Geology.—During the Azoic and Palæozoic periods of the earth's geological history, the district now occupied by the A. was a level plain. These mountains date their origin from a period subsequent to the Carboniferous epoch. The Coal measures are the newest upturned beds associated with the Appalachian range; and as the stratified rocks, with few exceptions, are laid down horizontally, these strata must owe their inclined position to the dislocating agency which elevated the mountains; they, consequently, supply a date anterior to its activity. At the base of the A., on their eastern side, there are a series of red sandstone beds, unconformable to the upturned strata, and occupying the valleys in their original horizontality, thus evidently unaffected by the disrupting agency which must have been active prior to their deposition. These beds have been referred by geologists to different ages. That they are Old Red Sandstone, as conjectured by Maclure and others, is now universally denied. Hitchcock's supposition that they were Permian, is also considered as referring them to too remote a geological age. W. B. Rogers considered them first as members of the Triassic period; but has since, from evidence adduced from the contained organic remains, shewn reason for relating them to the beginning of the Jurassic period. We thus obtain two grand limiting dates—the Carboniferous and Jurassic periods—within which the A. must have been formed. There are grounds for being even more specific, and referring the period of the dislocating agency to that immediately subsequent to the Carboniferous, represented in the stratified rocks of other districts by the Permian series; for the older upturned rocks had not only been ruptured and plicated, but also denuded into the various shapes they now present, before the horizontal rocks were deposited.

The late Professor H. D. Rogers, after years of persevering and devoted study, enunciated a theory of mountain formation based on his examination of the A., which not only explains their structure, but admits of a more or less complete application to the mountain systems of the world. The many proposed theories of mountain elevation are based upon assumptions which, unfortunately, are not true; but that is an unimpos[illegible] t[illegible] of our speculating geo[illegible], [illegible] by the inventors of the [illegible] selves to be led captive by a p[illegible] instead of building their inductions [illegible] tions. Thus, to suppose that mountain[illegible] by a wedge-like intrusion of melted [illegible] to a fluid functions incompatible w[illegible] properties. So also the supposition [illegible] rocks were intruded as solid wed[illegible], [illegible] lifting the crust, is opposed to [illegible] fi[illegible] apparent abrasion, but gene[illegible]w [illegible]ces exists at the line of contact [illegible] fied rocks. Equally fatal obje[illegible] against the other theories. Pro[illegible] ing that the A. were formed of a[illegible] waves, and comparing this appe[illegible] elevated districts, especially in Be[illegible] enunciated a theory of their stru[illegible] following is a condensed view.

Disturbed strata have a wave-[illegible] their dip being in curved, and never [illegible] and in extensive areas the varying a[illegible] one or more wide regular curves. [illegible] are in the form of long parallel waves, [illegible]elism being in the line of the general [illegible] part of the mountain system to wh[illegible] th[illegible] When different grades of [illegible] length, height, and amplitud[illegible], [illegible] the same grade are parallel, w[illegible] grades are not necessarily so. [illegible] three different forms, which

Appalachian Range.

Symmetrical flexures (*a*), equally [illegible] slopes; *normal flexures* (*b*), hav[illegible] incurvation on the one side com[illegible] other; and *folded flexures* (*c*), a[illegible] doubling under of their more inc[illegible] among which the steepest slopes are g[illegible] to the same quarters. These three for[illegible] different gradations in the flexure. [illegible] their succession in disturbed r[illegible] the same as in the diagram— [illegible] from the most disturbed side, [illegible] waves to the normal ones, and [illegible] symmetrical; and in the [illegible] they recede from the folde[illegible] wider apart and flatter. [illegible] Professor Rogers advanced hi[illegible] of elevated regions in the fol[illegible] wave-like structure of undulate[illegible] crust, is attributed to an actual p[illegible] matter beneath the crust, prop[illegible] of great waves of translation fr[illegible] occasioned by the tension of el[illegible] forms of the waves, the close plic[illegible] and the permanent tracing of [illegible] ascribed to the combination of [illegible] tangential movement, acc[illegible] of igneous veins and dikes [illegible] by the bendings. This on[illegible] ducing an actual floating f[illegible] has been, it is conceived, of [illegible] sation which attends all g[illegible] present day.'

This theory having [illegible] of the phenomena of the [illegible] these mountains. They are

having a general direction similar to
of the Atlantic Ocean. The line of
urbance is on their eastern limits;
he folded flexures, with the inversion
sides, are chiefly confined to the great
ew, and the Atlantic slopes south of it.
s type impart a prevailing south-
e whole outcrop; their number, and
difficulty of detecting and continuously
frustrates every attempt at mapping
lly. The flexures of the second type,
ore rapidly on the one side than on
il wherever the forces that disturbed
neither excessively intense nor very
characteristic form everywhere
st Appalachian valley and the
ntains. It distinguishes not only
aves which separate the coal—con-
east of the Susquehanna into special
minor undulations which throw the
of these basins into groups of lesser
oughs. Undulations of the first or
ype occur beyond the Alleghany
ere two groups of them may be
the one subdividing the bituminous
its five very broad waves, into six
ns; the other, composed of four
very straight undulations, traversing
ria, Indiana, Somerset, and Fayette

hus elevated, and forming the A.,
to the oldest or Palæozoic division of
rocks. Metamorphic rocks, consist-
e, hornblendic, and micaceous gneiss,
exist on the eastern base of these
have not been noticed as forming
ated strata of the A. Extensive for-
ose and micaceous slates, indurated
chloritic and steatitic slates, exist
sturbed districts. These are highly
members of the older fossiliferous,
be confounded with, though they so
the azoic metamorphic rocks.
ic rocks constitute a vast succession
strata, commencing with the lowest
on the Metamorphic rocks, and ter-
ne highest of the Coal strata. Their
ness, as measured in Pennsylvania,
eet. While exhibiting a remark-
mineral character, they may be classed
great divisions of sedimentary rocks—
, slates, and limestones. Intercalated
ubordinate layers, there occur deposits
and iron ore. They are all more or
a
es.—The character of the rocks of the
strict of North America indicates that
oniferous epoch an immense continent
present site of the Atlantic, which
ials for the sandstone and slate. It
had an extensive shallow marshy
a character as to be able to support
which has become, in the course of
into coal. The coal-fields to the far
, in Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and
been connected with the Appalachian
, which includes all the detached
thracitic and semi bituminous, of the
n of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and
lso the vast bituminous trough lying
est in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia,
nessee, and Alabama.
rn slope of the A., the coal, from its
e region of greatest disturbance, has
its volatile constituents, and is con-
uing anthracite (q. v.). In the troughs to the westward of the great Appalachian valley, where the forces that disturbed the crust were not so intense, the coal has not parted with such a large proportion of volatile matter, but still is so much altered as to be characterised as semi-anthracite. Both the anthracite and semi-anthracite are extensively mined for economical purposes, but their extent as well as their value is of little importance compared with the enormous Appalachian bituminous coal-field. From Northern Pennsylvania to middle Alabama, its length is about 875 miles, and its greatest breadth between Southern Pennsylvania and Northern Ohio is about 180 miles; it covers an area of about 56,000 square miles, and is almost the largest expanse of coal measures in the world. A single coal-seam in this field has been traced over an extent of country 225 miles long by 100 broad, shewing a superficial area of 14,000 square miles. The actual depth of workable seams in the deepest part of this basin is estimated at 40 feet; but when the amount of denudation of the upper measures over large districts is taken into account, the average depth of the entire field cannot be more than 25 feet. Taking this as the thickness, the amount of coal in this great coal-field would be 1,387,500,000,000 tons. When this is compared with the estimated quantity of coal in the British coal-fields, viz., 190,000,000,000 tons, some conception may be formed of the enormous extent of coal existing in this district of North America.

Metals.—Extensive beds of magnetic, hematitic, and fossiliferous iron ores occur in many of the formations of the A., from the lowest metamorphic gneiss to the highest coal-measures. Iron ore is extensively wrought in Pennsylvania and Ohio, large quantities of the anthracite being used in the smelting furnaces. Veins of lead occur in the Metamorphic rocks, rarely stretching up into the red slate. In the Palæozoic beds, veins of copper and nickel occur in sufficient quantity to be wrought.

APPALACHICO'LA, a river of the United States, rising in Georgia, and flowing through Florida into the Gulf of Mexico, or rather into a bay that bears its own name. Reckoning from its remotest sources, the head waters of the Chatahoochee, the A. is about 400 miles long, being navigable for boats throughout nearly its entire course. It is, however, only at the junction of the Chatahoochee with the Flint that the name of A. is applied to the stream; and up to this point, a stretch of about 70 miles, there is a sufficient depth of water for steam-navigation; while the tides also ascend for about two-thirds of the distance.—A. is also a seaport at the mouth of the stream above mentioned. Here is shipped the produce of the river-basin, consisting chiefly of large quantities of cotton.

APPA'RENT. This term is used to express a number of important distinctions, especially in astronomy. The *A. magnitude* of a heavenly body is the angle formed by two lines drawn from the ends of its diameter to the spectator's eye; this obviously depends upon the distance of the body, as well as upon its real magnitude. A planet seen from the surface of the earth seems lower than if seen from the centre of the earth—the former is its *A. altitude*, the latter its real. *A. noon* is when the sun is on the meridian; true or mean noon is the time when the sun would be on the meridian if his motion in the heavens were uniform and parallel to the equator. See EQUATION OF TIME. The daily and annual motions of the sun in the heavens are both *A. motions*, caused by two real motions of the earth.

APPARITIONS. The belief that the spirits of the departed are occasionally presented to the sight of the living, has existed in all ages and countries, and usually declines only when a people have

advanced considerably in the knowledge of physical conditions and laws. Not that A. then cease to be reported—for this is far from being the case—but that the more intelligent part of the community are then usually able to explain away the alleged occurrence in some way satisfactory to themselves, not involving the admission of a possible projection of a spirit upon the living sense.

Nothing is more certain than that there are conditions of the body when spectral appearances, such as occur to us in uneasy dreams, become sensible to the waking vision. One of these conditions is that of the patient under the disease of *delirium tremens*, who not only hears ideal enemies plotting against his life in adjacent rooms or behind hedges, but thinks he sees them preparing to do him mischief, and has been known to jump overboard of a vessel into the sea, in order to escape the apprehended danger. In such excitements it is, though arising from different causes, that an intending murderer thinks he hears the prince of fallen angels tempting him on to crime, or sees before him a 'dagger of the mind' wherewith to end the life of his victim. There are also instances of spectral illusions traceable to a simply disordered state of the digestive organs. M. Nicolai, an eminent bookseller in Berlin, fell, in the early part of the year 1791, into a depression of spirits, and in that condition neglected a course of periodical bleeding which he had been accustomed to observe. The consequence was his becoming liable for some months to seeing trains of phantasmata or spectral figures, which moved and acted before him, nay, even spoke to, and addressed him. He was fortunately able, not merely to coolly observe the phenomena, but to describe them in an ample paper which he presented to the Philosophical Society of Berlin. This case may be said to have formed the basis of a theory of A., advanced by Dr Ferrier, Dr Hibbert, and others, amounting merely to this, that they are all to be accounted for by peculiar conditions of the organism of the individual sensible of them.

There is certainly a large class of cases which fall readily under this explanation; but, if we are to accept the whole that have been, on more or less good authority, reported, it must be admitted that a theory of a more comprehensive nature is still required in order to satisfy the duly cautious inquirer.

Let us take, for instance, an apparition story which Dr Hibbert owns to be one of the best authenticated on record. It was thus written down in 1662 by the Bishop of Gloucester, from the recital of the young lady's father: 'Sir Charles Lee, by his first lady, had only one daughter, of which she died in childbirth; and when she was dead, her sister, the Lady Everard, desired to have the education of the child; and she was by her very well educated, till she was marriageable, and a match was concluded for her with Sir William Perkins, but was then prevented in an extraordinary manner. Upon a Thursday night, she thinking she saw a light in her chamber after she was in bed, knocked for her maid, who presently came to her, and she asked why she left a candle burning in her chamber. The maid said she left none, and there was none but what she had brought with her at that time. Then she said it was the fire; but that, her maid told her, was quite out; and she said she believed it was only a dream; whereupon she said it might be so, and composed herself again to sleep. But about two of the clock she was awakened again, and saw the apparition of a little woman between her curtain and her pillow, who told her she was her mother, that she was happy, and that by twelve of the clock that day she should be with her. Whereupon she knocked again for her maid, called for her clothes, and was dressed, went into her closet, and again till nine, and then brought out a letter, sealed, to her father: brought it to the Lady Everard, told her what had been desired that as soon as she was d sent to him. The lady thought fallen mad, and thereupon sent Chelmsford for a physician and came immediately; but the ph no indication of what the lady gi indisposition of her body; notwi would needs have her let blood, w accordingly. And when the young patiently let them do what they would she desired that the chaplain might be called prayers; and when prayers were ended, guitar and psalm-book, and sat down without arms, and played and and admirably, that her there, admired at it. A she rose and sate herself dow arms, and presently fetching a two, immediately expired, and as was much wondered at by the surgeon. She died at Waltham miles from Chelmsford, and the lett Sir Charles at his house in Warwic was so afflicted with the death of his he came not till she was buried; but wh he caused her to be taken up, and to b her mother at Edmonton, as she d letter.'

Dr Hibbert, in treating of this case, co the young lady was consumptive and and in this diseased frame of body b of an illusion; but these are a contrary to what the record bears, all, the singular circumstance to be a that the young lady's death occurred time predicted. To a similar purport the wife of Dr Donne, related by Donne left his wife pregn with Sir Robert Drury to arriving there, he stated to L the vision of his wife walking her hair hanging over her sh in her arms. So impressed w that they immediately sent to inquire regarding Mrs intelligence brought by the man been brought to bed of a dead chil husband thought he had seen her in case, too, if the requisite disordered Donne were granted, the coincidence event in its particulars, and in point remain unaccounted for by Dr Hibb

That there is an abundance of will not be disputed. In what regarding them is to move, if t Hibbert's theory be acknowled depend on the general tendency of science. If psychological repute, and the phenomena of were diligently examined, there a satisfactory theory of what are world was many years older.

APPEA'L, in the civil proc justice, signifies the removal of a or judge to another and l order that the latter may the former's judgment, either altering or varying the j is not a technical term English and Irish common l years past, a reconstitution of the

as been impending, but we may
t divisions hitherto observed in
al, for whatever the changes may
hiefly nominal, and the subject
r the new names.

of *Equity* (or of Chancery), where
m the judgment of the Master
m the Vice-chancellors, or rather,
m part of the Chancery Division
of Justice, the A. lies from such
Court of A., which is supreme;
of the House of Lords being
so far as regards all appeals from
and divisions of the High Court
construction of this court is
article COMMON LAW, COURTS

s of *Bankruptcy*, the judgments
ppealed from now directly to the
, and no longer to the House of
in restrictions.

Division, there is an A. to the
leave of the court. In the pro-
inal there is also an A. from the
e such court has jurisdiction, to
bate itself, whose judgment is

t of *Divorce* and *Matrimonial*
a of the Judge Ordinary, sitting
ealed to the Court of A., which
he case of a decree dissolving a
y be an A. to the Court of A.

alty Courts there is an A. to the
jurisdiction in Admiralty causes
division of the High Court of
Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty
ch stands on the same footing
ne court as the other divisions.

an A. to the Privy-council (now
urt of A.), from the courts of
colonial courts generally; and
ne sentences, not only of courts
ion, but also of Courts of A. in
the dependencies of the crown,* to
prolong the term of patents for
nd in making orders in certain
opyright, pursuant to the provi-
ht acts.

ver, as we are told by Mr Stephen
es, all judicial authority of the
ong exercised by a *committee* of
alled the Judicial Committee of
who heard the allegations and
their report to her Majesty in
ne judgment in the final instance

of the common law courts of
he Court of Queen's Bench, the
leas, and the Court of Exchequer,
ord Coke, any court whose pro-
ated by the common law—the
of A. is, as we stated at the
rticle, technically not so called,
error, the party complaining

es, we are informed by Blackstone that
Privy-council was both original and
question arises between two provinces
ncerning the extent of their charters
his council exercises *original* jurisdic-
rinciples of feudal sovereignty. And so
wn claims an island or a province, in
principality, by grant from the king
termination of that right belongs to the
uncil, as was the case of the Earl of
the Isle of Man, in the reign of Queen
of Cardigan and others, as representa-
ntague, with relation to the island of St

of the judgment being called the plaintiff in error, instead of appellant, and his opponent, the defendant in error, instead of respondent. Formerly, the proceedings commenced by suing out a writ of error first to a court of intermediate A., once the Court of Exchequer Chamber, and afterwards by a further writ of error to the House of Lords. But by the common-law procedure act of 1852 (15 and 16 Vict. c. 76, s. 148), writs of error are abolished, and the mode of review regulated by legal forms which need not be here explained.

Error also lies to the Queen's Bench in criminal cases, when, *after judgment*, it is considered that the indictment is bad in substance, or that the judgment is erroneous, or in respect of any other substantial defect appearing on the face of the record. A court called the Court for Crown Cases Reserved, consisting of five judges, disposes of cases where the judge or court had some doubt at the trial as to a point of law. And there is also practically an appeal to a superior court from all magistrates' decisions on points of law.

As to redress by way of A. and error against the judgments in the courts of Ireland, the procedure is so similar to that hitherto employed with respect to the English courts, that we need not here enter into particulars on the subject. We may simply remark, generally, that the Irish Chancellor, sitting alone, does not appear to exercise any appellate control over courts inferior to his own, such as that possessed by the Chancellor in England; for, according to the Irish practice, the A., for instance, from the Master of the Rolls, and in the case of proceedings in bankruptcy, is not to the Chancellor himself alone, but to the Court of A. in Chancery, in which the Chancellor and a Lord Justice of A. are the appointed judges; and which Court of A. likewise reviews the Chancellor's own individual judgments. The judgments of this Court of A. itself, however, may afterwards be reviewed on A. by the House of Lords. In criminal procedure, the same act (11 and 12 Vict. c. 78) applies to Ireland as well as to England.

In the procedure of the Scotch courts, there are various appeals in the practice of the sheriff or county courts, and in the proceedings in bankruptcy; and the House of Lords reviews the judgments of the Court of Session, the supreme civil court of the country, and which tribunal, indeed, it may be said, supplies the House with a large portion of its judicial business. This circumstance has frequently been remarked on as proving a litigious disposition on the part of the Scotch; but perhaps the greater number of Scotch appeals over English and Irish may be more fairly said to be occasioned by a natural feeling on the part of litigants and lawyers in Scotland, that there is a better chance of a nice and critical examination of the judgments appealed against by such judges as preside in the House of Lords, whose legal and judicial minds have been formed under a different and larger system of jurisprudence than prevails in Scotland, than there would be to a tribunal composed entirely of Scotch lawyers. Indeed, although the judicial staff of the House of Lords are chiefly English lawyers, the system of A. to their lordships from the Scotch courts works extremely well, and gives entire satisfaction to the Scotch people. Some of the most valuable elucidations of the peculiar principles of Scotch law are to be found in the judgments in Scotch appeals by the chancellors and other law lords who, since the union with Scotland, have administered the jurisdiction of the House in the last resort, but who were never in a Scotch court, and, until called upon to discharge such responsible functions, had probably never opened a Scotch law-book. (The Scotch and Irish appeal cases are, like

the English, about to be transferred from the House of Lords to the new Court of Appeal.)

There is no A. to the House of Lords from Scotland in criminal cases, nor does the above-mentioned act—11 and 12 Vict. c. 78, creating a court of criminal A. for England and Ireland—extend to Scotland. But the High Court of Justiciary there, which is the supreme criminal tribunal, and is composed of seven judges of the Court of Session, presided over by the Lord Justice General, or Lord President, as he is otherwise called, reviews the procedure of all the criminal courts of the country (excepting where such jurisdiction is expressly excluded by statute); and it is believed that no inconvenience is experienced in consequence of there being no other or further A. from the sentences of these courts.

APPENZELL (from *Abbatis Cella*), a canton in the north-east of Switzerland. Area, 152 square miles. Pop. (1870) 60,635. It is divided into two districts—Innerrhoden and Ausserrhoden, the former of which is peopled by Protestants, the latter by Roman Catholics, and noted for its dense population. The surface is mountainous, especially in the south, where Mont Sentis attains an elevation of 8232 feet. The chief river is the Sittern, which flows through the centre of the canton. A. holds the 13th place in the Swiss confederacy, and furnishes 972 soldiers to the national army. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, cattle-keeping, cotton manufactures, and embroidery. They are fond of dancing, music, and athletic exercises, and have the reputation of being first-rate marksmen.

Appenzell, the capital of the canton of the same name, is situated on the left bank of the Sittern, in lat. 47° 29′ N., and long. 9° 24′ E. Pop. 3686. The town is ill built, and has only a small trade in linens. The other towns are Trogen (with a pop. of 2912, and manufactures of linen and muslin), Herisau, &c.

APPERLEY, CHARLES JAMES, the 'Nimrod' of the *Quarterly Review*, is a writer who deserves mention, if not from the intrinsic importance of the subjects on which he exercised his pen, at least from the perfection he attained in the department to which he confined himself. He was the son of a Welsh country gentleman, and was born in Denbighshire in 1777. His education at Rugby stimulated his love of field-sports more than his love of the classics. At the age of 24, he married, and went to reside at Bilton Hall, in Warwickshire, where he devoted his energies as exclusively to the chase as the great Nimrod himself could have done. He hunted everywhere in Great Britain. In 1821, he began to contribute to the *Sporting Magazine*. His clever, gossiping articles were so much relished, that in two years that periodical doubled its circulation. The proprietor, Mr Pittman, was of course highly gratified. He remunerated Mr A. handsomely, kept a stud of hunters for him, and paid the expenses of his sporting tours; but 'Nimrod' seems to have been of rather expensive habits, and to have occasionally required an advance of money from his employer. When Mr Pittman died, his relatives entered into a lawsuit with the 'mighty hunter,' for the recovery of this money. Nimrod, however, prudently transferred himself to France, where he chiefly resided during the rest of his life. He died on the 19th of May 1843. His best writings are *The Chase, the Turf, and the Road*, which appeared in the *Quarterly Review* (1827).

APPERT, BENJAMIN NICOLAS MARIE, a French philanthropist, was born in Paris, September 10, 1797. He began his course in 1816 by introducing into several schools a system of mutual instruction, and, in 1820, founded and conducted gratuitously a school for the prisoners at [illegible] pected of having aided the [illegible] he was himself confined in the [illegible] where he made good use of [illegible] becoming acquainted with the moral [illegible] circumstances of prisoners. After prosecuted his benevolent plans [illegible] and undertook a journey thro[illegible] France, in 1825, to inspect school[illegible] &c. The results were given [illegible] the July revolution, he [illegible] Philippe to superintend [illegible] relief of the [illegible] visited Be[illegible] Bavaria, and gave [illegible] the management [illegible] hospitals, [illegible] in several works. He also wrote [illegible] *Dix Ans à la Cour du Roi Louis* [illegible] his *Conférences contre le Système C*[illegible] opposed the system of solitary c[illegible] one-sided in some of his view[illegible] warm-hearted, and practical [illegible]

APPERT, FRANÇOIS, a [illegible] inventor of a method of preserv[illegible] and other articles of food with[illegible] or other chemical application. T[illegible] described in his work *L'Art de* [illegible] *Substances Animales et Végétales* 1831). See ANTISEPTICS.

A'PPETITE. See H[illegible]

APPIA'NI, ANDREA, styl[illegible] Painter of the Graces,' was bo[illegible] 1754. His poverty compelled [illegible] ence by decorative painting; [illegible] travels, he studied the works [illegible] formed for himself an original st[illegible] that of Correggio. At Rome, he de[illegible] to the frescoes of Raphael, and made such that he soon excelled all living artists painting. The best evidences of found in the cupola of the church of *S. Celso* at Milan; and in the fresc[illegible] he decorated the villa of the Ar[illegible] in 1795. Napoleon I. appointed In return, he executed portra[illegible] emperor and several of his beautiful frescoes are the pair[illegible] the palace of Milan, whi[illegible] illustrations of Napoleon's [illegible] the Muses in the Villa Bor[illegible] palaces in Italy contain [illegible] oil-painting is Rinaldo [illegible] The fall of his patron, [illegible] L[illegible] indigent circumstances. He [illegible]

APPIA'NUS, a native of A[illegible] flourished during the reigns of Traja[illegible] Antoninus Pius. He was author of a l[illegible] in twenty-four books, of which only eleve[illegible] It was not remarkable for anything ex[illegible] on which it was written. Instead of exhibit chronologically the growth from its rude beginning on the P[illegible] period when its power held the [illegible] which is at once the popular an[illegible] method, he divided his wo[illegible] sections, recording separat[illegible] nation up to the time of its [illegible] First in order were the bo[illegible] Italian tribes, and afterwa[illegible] Sicily, Spain, Hannibal's [illegible] Numidia, Macedonia, Gree[illegible] pe[illegible] Syria, Parthia, the Mithrid[illegible] war[illegible] and the imperial wars in Ill[illegible] historian, A. is a mere c[illegible] rate in his compilation. [illegible]

ur, is singularly deficient, considering
... which he lived. One specimen of his
will suffice: in his section on Spain, he
it takes only half a day to sail from Spain

... on of A. is that of Schweighäuser,
... 3 vols.

PIAN WAY (Lat. *Via Appia*), well named
... writer *Regina Viarum* (the queen of
formed, in part at least, by Appius
... cus, while he was censor (313 B.C.).
oldest and most celebrated of all the
da. It led from the *Porta Capena* at Rome
... direction to Capua, passing through
... Appii Forum, Terracina, &c. Subsidiarily, it was carried on to Beneventum, Tarentum and thence to Brundusium. It had an admirable substructure or foundation, from which all the soil had been carefully removed. Above this various strata cemented with lime; and, lastly, a pavement, consisting of large hard hexagonal blocks of stone, composed principally of lava and jointed together with great nicety, so as to form one smooth mass. The remains of it are visible, especially at Terracina. The cost must have been enormous, for the natural obstructions are great. Rocks had to be cut through, valleys filled up, ravines bridged, and swamps embanked.

PIUS CLAUDIUS CRASSUS, a Roman ... (451—449 B.C.). While the other decemviri were engaged in repelling an incursion made by the Sabines, A. C. and his colleague Oppius remained in Rome, with two legions to maintain their authority. While, A. C. had been smitten by the beauty of Virginia, daughter of a respected plebeian named Virginius, who was abroad with the army. By force and stratagem, representing that she was the daughter of a slave of Marcus Claudius, one of his clients, he obtained possession of the maid. His design was to give her to Icilius, who was betrothed to Virginia, ... and by Numitorius, her uncle, threatened ... insurrection against the decemviri. ... was finally recalled from the army by his ... appeared and claimed his daughter; but, ... another mock-trial, she was again adjudged to be the property of Marcus Claudius. To save his daughter from dishonour, the unhappy father seized a knife and slew her. The popular indignation ... by the case was headed by the senators Valerius and Horatius, who hated the decemvirate. Virginius returned to Rome with Virginius, who ... carried the news to them, and the decemviri were deposed. A. C. died in prison by his own ... (in ivy states), or was strangled by order of the tribunes; his colleague, Oppius, committed ...; and Marcus Claudius was banished. The ... *Gens* (see GENS) was one of the most ... and important of the patrician tribes or ... of Rome; and besides the sons and grandsons ... decemvir, there were numerous persons of ... who bore the name of Appius.

PLE (*Pyrus malus*. For the generic character, ...). This well-known fruit has been very ... ated, and by that means it has been very ... oved. It was extensively cultivated ..., by whom, probably, it was introduced ... Britain. The wild A., or CRAB-tree, ... of Britain, and very generally found in ... ate climates of the northern hemisphere, is a small and often somewhat stunted-looking tree, ... stere, uneatable fruit, yet it is the parent of almost all the varieties of apple so much prized ... dessert. The A.-tree, even in a cultivated ... seldom more than 30—40 feet high. It has a large round head; the leaves are broadly ovate, much longer than the petioles, woolly beneath, acute, crenate, and provided with glands; its flowers are always produced, 3—6 together, in sessile umbels, and are large, white, rose-coloured externally, and fragrant. The fruit is roundish, or narrowest towards the apex, with a depression at each end, generally green, but also frequently yellow, light red, dark red, streaked, sometimes even almost black, with the rind sometimes downy, sometimes glabrous, sometimes thickish, and sometimes very thin and transparent, varying in size from that of a walnut to that of a small child's head—the taste more or less aromatic, sweet, or subacid. It is produced on spurs, which spring from branchlets of two or more years growth, and continue to bear for a series of years. The fruit of the A. is, with regard to its structure, styled by botanists a *pome* (q. v.). The eatable part is what is botanically termed the *mesocarp* (see FRUIT), which, in its first development, enlarges with the calyx, the summit of the fruit being crowned at last by the dried 5-parted limb of the calyx; the *endocarp* being, when ripe, cartilaginous, and containing in its cells seeds which do not correspond with them in size, but are so free as often to rattle when it is shaken.

The A. is now one of the most widely diffused of fruit-trees, and in the estimation of many, is the most valuable of all. It succeeds best in the colder parts of the temperate zone. It is, however, to be met with on the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea, in Arabia, Persia, the West Indies, &c., but there its fruit is as small and worthless as in high northern latitudes. The varieties in cultivation are extremely numerous. They have been classified with great care by recent German writers, by whom the classification and description of apples, pears, and similar fruits, has been treated as a sort of science, and dignified by the name of Pomology. Metzger, in his description of the pomaceous fruits of Southern Germany, describes 89 different kinds of A., all of which are constant, besides sub-varieties. New varieties are continually produced; and as they are chiefly preserved and propagated by grafting—although

Apple-blossom.

some of them also grow by layers and cuttings—the old ones gradually die out. The *costard*, from which dealers in apples received the name of costard-mongers, is no longer known. Many varieties are designated by the general names of *Pippins*, *Rennets*, *Codlins*, and *Calvilles*. Some kinds, not approved for the dessert, are in high esteem as baking-apples, and others still more acid or austere are preferred for the manufacture of CIDER (q. v.).

The A. is grown in Britain either as a standard,

an espalier, or a wall-tree, and is variously trained. It is usually grafted on A. or crab-stocks, but succeeds also on hawthorn-stocks, and is in this way sometimes introduced into hedges. A very dwarf variety, called the *Paradise A.*, is often used as a stock on which to graft in order to produce dwarf-trees; and trees thus dwarfed are often very productive when little larger than currant or gooseberry bushes. Some of the varieties of A. are more hardy than others, and are therefore to be preferred for cold or exposed situations. Some of the finest kinds succeed well only when the soil and climate are good. Some kinds are much earlier than others, both in flowering and ripening.

The wood of the A.-tree is hard, durable, and fine-grained. The crab is often planted both as an ornamental tree and for the sake of its wood. The bark contains a yellow dye.—As a fruit-tree, the A. requires a fertile soil and sheltered situation. The various uses of the fruit—for the dessert, for baking, preserving, making jelly, &c., as well as for making the fermented liquor called cider—are sufficiently well known. Vinegar is also made from it; and sometimes a kind of spirit, especially in Switzerland and Swabia. It contains *Malic Acid*, which is extracted for medicinal purposes.—The fermented juice of the Crab A. is called *Verjuice*. It is used in cookery, and sometimes medicinally; also for the purifying of wax. Apples are an important article of commerce. Great quantities are imported into Britain, chiefly from France, Canada, and the northern parts of the United States. The A. *keeps* better than most kinds of fruit.

Beaufins or *Biffins* are apples slowly dried in bakers' ovens, and occasionally pressed till they become soft and flat. They are prepared in great quantities in Norfolk.

The SIBERIAN CRAB is perhaps the parent, by hybridisation or otherwise, of some of the varieties of A. now in cultivation. Two species partake this designation, both natives of Siberia, and frequent in gardens in Britain, *Pyrus baccata* of Linnæus, and *Pyrus prunifolia* of Willdenow, which, however, scarcely differ, except that in the former the sepals (leaves of the calyx) are deciduous, in the latter they are persistent—a circumstance of very doubtful importance as a specific distinction. The fruit is sub-globose, yellowish, and rather austere, but is good for baking and for preserves.

The AMERICAN CRAB or SWEET-SCENTED CRAB (*P. coronaria*) is a native of North America, especially of the southern part of the Alleghanies. It is a small tree with broad leaves and white flowers, becoming purple before they drop off, and which have a powerful smell, resembling that of violets. The fruit is flatly orbicular, of a deep green colour, and sweet scented. It is very acid, but is made into cider, and also into preserves. *P. angustifolia*, a native of Carolina, much resembles this, but has much narrower leaves and smaller fruit.

The CHINESE CRAB (*P. spectabilis*) is a small tree, a native of China. It is very ornamental when in flower; the flowers being in sessile, many-flowered umbels, and of a bright rose-colour. The fruit is irregularly round, about the size of a cherry, yellow, and fit to be eaten, like the medlar, only when in a state of incipient decay.

A'PPLE OF SODOM. See SOLANUM.

A'PPLEBERRY. See BILLARDIERA.

A'PPLEBY, the county town of Westmoreland, lies in lat. 54° 35' N., long. 2° 28' W. It is in the north of the county, on the river Eden, which flows past Carlisle into the Solway Firth. A. has two parishes, one on each side of the river, which is here crossed by an old stone bridge of two arches. There is a castle in the town, the keep of which, Cæsar's Tower, is still in tolerable [illegible] Lent and summer assizes are held [illegible] passing of the Reform Bill, it returned [illegible] parliament. It was then disfranchised possesses a municipal corporation. P[illegible]

A'PPLETON, a town of Wisconsin States, worthy of notice chiefly fr[illegible] situation on the Grande Chute o[illegible] The Grande Chute, from which the [illegible] times takes its name, affords immense [illegible] and at the same time a series of dams stream navigable for steam-boats thro[illegible] course—a navigation which, with the a[illegible] between the Fox on the north, and the to the south, is carried all the way [illegible] Michigan to the Mississippi.

APPOGIATU'RA, an Italian musica designating a form of embellishment by notes of passage in a melody. The [illegible] printed in a smaller character than the of the melody, and should always be considerable expression. When they ised by a performer or singer, they indication of good or of bad taste. The is taken from the essential note to which as in the following example:

Written.

Played.

For APPOGIA'TO, see PORTAMENTO.

APPOI'NTMENT. In the law of [illegible] are frequently reserved in common law [illegible] granted on a consideration, and in ments, certain *powers*, as they powers of jointuring, selling, c[illegible] payment of money; and the [illegible] the power is called an *A.* This A.—[illegible] made either by deed or by will—is not an independent conveyance, but is mer to the deed or instrument in which the is reserved, and from which the party favour the A. is made for most purposes title. The Courts of Equity give relief defective A., or defective execution of a po there is what is called a 'meritorious cons in the person applying for such relief. A amounts to such meritorious c[illegible] St Leonards, in his work on Powe[illegible] Equity will relieve the following purchaser, including in such term a lessee; 2. A creditor; 3. A wife; [illegible] child; and 5. A charity. But in the defective A. by a wife in favour of there is no relief in Equity; nor is extended to a natural child; nor to a nor to a father or mother, or brother of the whole blood, much less of the h to a nephew or cousin. Against the quences of an A., the Courts of Equity

In the Scotch law, the expressions and *faculty to burden* correspond to phrase 'power of A.;' and the deed subsequently executed in virtue of power, is simply described accordi[illegible] and quality of the conveyance [illegible] term *A.* is not a technical word

)INTMENTS. The 'A.' of a ship are, ɔly, all her various articles of equipment and . In like manner, the 'A.' of a soldier, ɣ a trooper, comprise many miscellaneous ɔs which can come collectively under no but which, in part, will be found noticed headings. See EQUIPMENT, KIT, KNAP-

ʏRTIONMENT is a legal term derived ɔ 4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 22, called the ɯment Act, which has given rise to much ı in England and Scotland, and the prin- which may be stated to be this—that in the the termination of a life-interest by death, re limited interest at a fixed period, the ɾent or income shall be apportioned or paid such a way as to give the personal repre- ɑ of the party, or the party himself, as the ' be, a sum corresponding to the period that ɔ elapsed between the last date of payment death or other determination of the interest . But the act has no application to annual ɾable by any policy of assurance, nor to any hich a stipulation has been made that no take place.

ıct was not understood to apply to Scot- the year 1844, when it was decided by of Session that it did so apply, and the afterwards affirmed by the House of in consequence of the act being ex- ɾnuvely in the technical phraseology of ʊs England, it has given much trouble. ıter act of 33 and 34 Vict. c. 35, extends the to all rents, annuities, salaries, pensions, ɔ, and other periodical payments, in the f income, so that all these now, like interest y lent, are considered as accruing from day When a person therefore dies, the income d up to the day of death, and is payable at ɔ time as the next quarterly or other pay- uld be if no death had happened.

glish law, A. also takes place where the under a lease, has been deprived of part nd out of which the rent issues, by a person ı better title than that of the lessor, or ɯ, or where part of the rent has been red by the tenant to the lessor, or where r has disposed of the reversion as to part. ro the tenant has been wrongfully deprived ɔt of the landlord himself, even of a part of ɯs, there can be no A., but the whole rent ended so long as such a state of things

ɔ obtains in the case of a conveyance of ı ch the common of pasture is an appurte- party getting the land being entitled to ɯonate use of the common.

)SITION, a term in Grammar signifying the ɔf one substantive to another, in the same ɯation, in order to explain or limit the first; *brother, the physician; Thomas the Rhymer.* ɯntences or clauses admit of A.: thus, ɔn sought the way to India through Russia, of genius.' Sometimes a connecting word where logical propriety would require A.; *ty of London, for the city London.*

ıI'NERS AND APPRAISEMENT. An r ɯs a person employed to value property, ɯt be licensed for the office. Formerly, ɯ 55 Geo. III. c. 184, this annual license ɣ 10s.; but by the 8 and 9 Vict. c. 76, s. 1, resemble that it is expedient to increase this ɔ provision of the 55 Geo. III. is repealed, uty of £2 substituted for the 10s. Such a must now be taken out yearly by every person, except a licensed auctioneer, who shall exercise the occupation of an appraiser, or who, for any gain, fee, or reward, shall make any appraise- ment or valuation chargeable by law with any stamp-duty (see Tilsley on the Stamp-laws, 2d ed., p. 65).

By an old English statute, passed in the reign of Edward I., appraisers are enjoined to put a reason- able price upon goods; and if they appraise them too high, they are obliged to take them at their own valuation, and to be answerable accordingly to the creditor for his debt.

Appraisement, generally, is the act of valuation made by the appraiser; but in legal application in England, this term is used to signify a valuation of goods taken under a distress for rent by two appraisers, who are sworn by the sheriff, under- sheriff, or constable, to value the goods truly, accord- ing to the best of their skill; and after such appraisement, the goods may be sold at the best price that can be procured.

The duties chargeable on appraisements are as follow: Where the amount of such appraisement or valuation shall not exceed £50, the duty to be 2s. 6d.; and where it shall exceed

£50,	and not exceed	£100,	£0	5	0
100,	.	200,	0	10	0
200,	.	500,	0	15	0
500,			1	0	0

The exemptions from such duties are appraisements or valuations made in pursuance of the order of any Court of Admiralty or Vice-admiralty, or of any Court of Appeal from any sentence, adjudication, or judg- ment of any Court of Admiralty or Vice-admiralty; and appraisements or valuations of any property made for the purpose of ascertaining the legacy- duty payable in respect thereof.

The correspondingproceeding in Scotland is known under the term *appreciation*, which has been defined as the valuing of *poindel* or distrained goods. And by the old Scotch law, these goods were valued twice by different valuators—once in the house or on the ground where the poinding took place, and a second time at the market-cross of the local jurisdiction or chief county town. But by the 54 Geo. III. c. 137, s. 4, one valuation in the place where the goods are, is declared in every case to be sufficient.

APPREHE'ND. To A., in criminal law, means to arrest or seize, in virtue of a warrant or other legal authority, an offender taken in the act, or who is suspected. Arrest or apprehension by officers *without warrant* may be executed by the following persons: 1. By a justice of the peace, who may himself A., or cause to be apprehended, by word only, any person committing a felony or breach of the peace in his presence; 2. The sheriff; 3. The coroner; 4. The constable; 5. By the Larceny Act (24 and 25 Vict. c. 96), and by the 24 and 25 Vict. c. 97, called the Malicious Injuries Act, a person committing any offence under the same, except that of angling in the daytime, may immediately be apprehended without written warrant. Watchmen —either those appointed by the statute of Win- chester (13 Edw. I. c. 4), to keep watch and ward on all towns from sunsetting to sunrising, or such as were mere assistants to the constable, might, in virtue of their office, arrest all offenders, and par- ticularly night-walkers, and commit them to custody till the morning; but not so now.

Any private person, and, *a fortiori*, a peace-officer, that is present when any felony is committed, is bound by the law to arrest the felon, on pain of fine and imprisonment, if he is negligently permitted to escape; and by 24 and 25 Vict. c. 95, they may apprehend any person found committing any offence

against the provisions of that statute, or any indictable offence by night; that is, between nine in the evening and six in the morning of the next day. They may also, in the case of a person committing a felony in their presence, justify breaking open doors in pursuit of him. Upon probable suspicion, however, no one, being a private person, may arrest the felon or other person so suspected. And there is this distinction between the case of a peace-officer and that of a private person—that the former is protected, though it should turn out that no such crime as supposed has been in fact committed by any one, providing he had reasonable ground for suspecting the party arrested; but the latter acts more at his peril, and is not protected unless he can prove an actual commission of the crime by *some one*, as well as a reasonable ground for arresting the particular person. It is also to be observed that a private person cannot, on mere suspicion, justify, breaking open doors, which a constable, though acting without a warrant, sometimes may do. Within the metropolitan police district, a constable may take into custody, without warrant, all persons whom he may find, between sunset and the hour of eight in the morning, loitering or lying about, and unable to give a satisfactory account of themselves; or persons charged with aggravated assaults; or persons offending against the metropolitan police acts, whose address cannot be ascertained. See 2 and 3 Vict. c. 47, ss. 36, 64, 65.

The Scotch law, with regard to the apprehension of criminals, is substantially the same as the English.

By the statutes passed in 45 Geo. III. c. 92, and the 11 and 12 Vict. c. 42, facilities are afforded for the apprehension of criminals in England, Ireland, or Scotland, under warrants issuing from the respective authorities of the three countries, no further formality being necessary in the case of English and Irish warrants to be executed in Scotland, and *vice versâ*, than that they should be endorsed by a judge of the territory where they are to be enforced. And by the 6 and 7 Vict. c. 34, provisions are made for the apprehension, in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, of persons committing treason and felony in Her Majesty's dominions out of the United Kingdom, and *vice versâ*, for the apprehension in such dominions of persons offending in England, Ireland, or Scotland. By section 3, offenders may be committed to gaol until they can be sent back to the place where the offence was committed; and information of the committal, in writing, under the hand of the committing magistrate, accompanied by a copy of the warrant, is directed to be given, in Great Britain, to one of Her Majesty's principal secretaries of state, and in Ireland, to the chief secretary of the lord-lieutenant; and in any other part of Her Majesty's dominions, to the governor or acting governor. By section 10, the important enactment is made, that it shall not be lawful to endorse any warrant for the apprehension of an offender under the act, unless it shall appear upon the face of such warrant itself, that the offence is such, that if committed within that part of Her Majesty's dominions where the warrant is endorsed, it would have amounted in law to treason, or some felony such as the justices of the peace in general or quarter sessions in England have not authority to try, under the existing acts—by which the jurisdiction of general and quarter sessions is defined—or unless the depositions taken appear sufficient to warrant committal for trial. The effect of this enactment is, that the offences for which criminals may be apprehended, under the 6 and 7 Vict. c. 34, are as follow: Any treason, murder, or capital felony; or any felony which, when committed by a person not previously convicted of felony, is [illegible] transportation for life, or for any of offences:

1. Misprision of treason. 2. Offences [illegible] Queen's title, prerogative, person, or go[illegible] against either house of parliament. 3. [illegible] ject to the penalties of præmunire. 4. [illegible] and offences against religion. 5. Adm[illegible] taking unlawful oaths. 6. Perjury [illegible] of perjury. 7. Making or suborn[illegible] son to make a false oath, affir[illegible] punishable as perjury or as [illegible] Forgery. 9. Unlawfully and [illegible] fire to crops of corn, grain, or p[illegible] of a wood, coppice, or plantation of [illegible] heath, gorse, furze, or fern. 10. E[illegible] against the laws relating to ma[illegible] tion of women and girls. 12. Er[illegible] ceal the birth of a child. 13. O[illegible] provision of the laws relati[illegible] insolvents. 14. Composing, [illegible] blasphemous, seditious, or d[illegible] Bribery. 16. Unlawful c[illegible] cies, except conspiracies [illegible] any offence which justices o[illegible] have or has jurisdiction to try when [illegible] one person. 17. Stealing, or fraudulen[illegible] injuring or destroying records or docum[illegible] ing to any court of law or equity, or relat[illegible] proceeding therein. 18. Stealing or fr[illegible] destroying or concealing wills or tes[illegible] papers, or any document or written i[illegible] being or containing evidence of the titl[illegible] real estate, or any interest in lands, [illegible] hereditaments.

In 1843, and next, in 1870, a [illegible] Vict. c. 52, was passed, by which [illegible] for carrying into effect a conventi[illegible] between the British and foreign gov[illegible] minable at pleasure), for the apprehe[illegible] ders in the two countries respectivel[illegible] *murder, forgery, robbery, rape, larc[illegible] obtaining money by false pretenc[illegible] bankruptcy crimes; frauds by bankers[illegible] tees, directors; abduction, child-steal[illegible] sinking and destroying vessels at se[illegible]* gets rid of the former practice of [illegible] rate act to regulate the extradition [illegible] between Great Britain and each co[illegible] all civilised countries have now en[illegible] kind of confederacy. There is an [illegible] in favour of fugitive criminals whos[illegible] demanded on the ground of offences [illegible] character; and the condition of [illegible] is, that, when taken back to [illegible] shall not be tried for political o[illegible]

The law encourages the apprehe[illegible] by parties who simply act from a [illegible] assist justice. By the 7 Geo. IV. [illegible] (amended and extended by the 14 [illegible] 55), it is provided that when [illegible] appear to any court of oyer [illegible] delivery, superior criminal c[illegible] tine, or any courts of s[illegible] been active in or towar[illegible] person charged with the vari[illegible] by these statutes, every such [illegible] order the sheriff of the cou[illegible] or persons who shall appe[illegible] been active in or towards the [illegible] person charged with any of [illegible] sum of money as to the [illegible] able and sufficient to co[illegible] persons for his, her, or th[illegible] loss of time, in or tow[illegible] this power is to be [illegible]

rate of allowance, as shall be made
by a principal secretary of state.
de by the above statutes for
lies of those who lose their
to A. persons charged with
; but by the latter of these (14 and
s. 7), this is not to interfere with the
criminal court to order payment to
so shall have shewn extraordinary
ce, or exertion, in the apprehension.
ains to be added, that any wilful
a lawful arrest or apprehension is
ffence of a very aggravated nature.
enactments on this subject will be
tatute passed in 1861 to amend the
d and Ireland as to offences against
and 25 Vict. c. 100, by which
rovided that where any person shall
f any assault upon any peace-officer,
er, in the due execution of his duty,
erson acting in aid of such officer,
ault upon any person, with intent
revent the lawful apprehension or
person so assaulting, or of any other
y offence for which he or they may
aw to be apprehended or detained;
hall be a misdemeanour, punishable
f imprisonment, with or without hard
term not exceeding two years. By
tioned statute it is enacted that who-
lawfully and maliciously shoot at any
ll, by drawing a trigger, or in any
attempt to discharge any kind of
t any person, or shall stab, cut, or
son; with intent, in any of such cases,
revent the lawful apprehension or
person; shall be guilty of felony, and
with penal servitude for life, or not
years, or with imprisonment, with
rd labour and solitary confinement,
than two years. And by the 14 and
, s. 12, passed for the prevention of
ght, any one assaulting a person
or detain him, shall be guilty of a
and on conviction, imprisoned, with
l labour, for any term not exceeding

subject is treated in Scotch law-
the head of *Deforcement*, which Sir
on, in his work on the Criminal Law
ol. i. p. 491), says, 'consists in the
officers of justice in the execution
It is essential to such deforcement
be such as to defeat the warrant or
which authorises the apprehension.
sful attempts with this view are
the name of *resisting and obstructing
the law in the execution of their duty.*
OF APPREHENSION.

'ICE is a person described in law-
ecies of servant, and called A. from
rb *apprendre*, to learn, because he is
ature to serve a master for a certain
in return for his services instruction
his master's profession, art, or trade;
on the other hand, contracting to
, and according to the nature of the
provide food and clothing for the A.,
small wages. Sometimes a premium
A., or on his behalf, to the master.
of the 5 Eliz. c. 4, which remained in
cent period, it was in general required,
rson exercising a trade in England
reviously served as A. to it for seven
by later statutes, that provision
, with a saving of the customs and
by-laws in London and other corporations; and the term of apprenticeship is now determined by the mutual convenience of the contracting parties. By the municipal act, 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 76, s. 14 (which does not, however, extend to London), all such customs and by-laws as had the effect of prohibiting trades and occupations to persons who had not served as apprentices, were also done away. Apprentices, in general, are bound out by their friends, though with their own consent, testified by their executing the indentures, without which the transaction is not binding. To the same effect it is the rule of the Scotch law that although a pupil—that is, a boy under 14, or a girl under 12 years of age—may be a party to an indenture as an A., yet he must have the concurrence of a parent or guardian, who alone can be liable to the master for the A.'s non-performance of the engagement. An A., on the other hand, who has passed the years of pupilarity, may effectually enter into an indenture by which he will be personally bound. It has been decided in England that the express assent of an infant A. to the indentures is essential to the contract; and therefore indentures of apprenticeship which had been executed by a father and master, but not by the A. himself, were held invalid. But an infant may bind himself A., because it is for his benefit; for the same reason, however, he cannot himself dissolve the contract. When an A. is bound to two partners, on the death of one of them the apprenticeship is at an end.

There is a class who are bound out by the guardians of the poor, and are called *parish apprentices*, whose binding takes place under different circumstances. For the children of poor persons might formerly, even without becoming parties to the indentures, be apprenticed out by the overseers with the consent of two justices (and may now by the guardians, without such consent), till twenty-one years of age, to such persons as are thought fitting; and these persons were formerly also compellable to take them. But by 7 and 8 Vict. c. 101, s. 13, the reception of any poor child as an A. is no longer compulsory. A variety of statutes regulate the manner in which parish apprentices are to be bound, assigned, registered, and maintained; a subject which is besides now placed under the paramount control of the Local Government Board, who make new rules, from time to time, as they may think fit; and provisions are made by which the justices of the peace are empowered to settle disputes between such apprentices and their masters, and to discharge the former from their indentures, upon reasonable cause shewn. Similar powers belong also to the justices, in the case of apprentices in general. (Stephen's *Commentaries*, vol. ii. p. 240, fourth edition.) It has been decided in England that a corporation cannot make a by-law limiting the number of apprentices which each member shall take, because such a regulation is deemed contrary to the laws of the land.

A mere agreement does not constitute an apprenticeship; there must be regular indentures formally executed. By statute 33 and 34 Vict. c. 97, indentures of apprenticeship in which the full sum or sums of money received, given, paid, secured, or contracted for, are not truly inserted, are void. But the act does not apply to cases where the sum is inserted in the indentures, though it is a less sum than that which was originally agreed for, and the reduction made to diminish the amount of the stamp-duty.

In the performance of the contract, a reasonable and equitable view is taken of the relative position of the parties. The master is not bound to the literal and uniform instruction of the A. by himself personally, but under his own superintendence, and by his own directions, he may avail himself of the

assistance of journeymen, or other persons serving in his place of business, and even of other apprentices —the object of the agreement being that the A. shall have the full benefit of all the master's arrangements in practising his art, craft, or trade. The A., on the other hand, although in the position of a servant to some extent, is not bound to serve as such, but may rather be said to be placed under the parental control of the master; and perhaps the master may correct the A.'s faults and disobedience by moderate chastisement, if the A. is still under age; nor can he discharge the A. To that end, the master, under an unrepealed enactment of the 5 Eliz. c. 4, must complain to the justices, who decide whether the A. has merited his dismissal or not; the A., however, having a corresponding privilege in the case of his complaint against his master. But, by the Scotch law, a master can dismiss his apprentice in the case of his proving 'incorrigible.' By the custom of the city of London, a freeman may turn away his apprentice for *gaming*.

It was decided by the House of Lords, on an appeal from Scotland in 1837, and reversing the decision of the Court of Session, that a barber's A., whose indentures bound him 'not to absent himself from his master's business, holiday or week-day, late hours or early, without leave first asked and obtained,' could not be lawfully required to attend his master's shop on Sunday mornings for the purpose of shaving customers, because such employment was a violation of the old Scotch statutes still in operation, and which were enacted for enforcing the observance of the Sunday, particularly one passed in 1559, by which it is provided 'that na handy lauboring or wirking be used on the Sonday.' The Lord Chancellor (Lord Cottenham) observed in his judgment that the English law on this subject was very similar, referring in particular to the 29 Charles II. c. 7, by which it is enacted 'that no tradesman, artificer, workman, labourer, or other person whatsoever shall do or exercise any worldly labour, business, or work, of their ordinary callings, upon the Lord's Day, or any part thereof, works of necessity and charity only excepted.'

An A.'s indenture is determinable by the consent of all the parties to it; and also by the death of the master. But the executor of the latter may bind the A. to another master if the contract so provide; and he must also discharge any covenant or agreement for the A.'s maintenance, so far as he has assets. By the custom of London, if the master of an A. die, the service must be continued with the widow, if she continue to carry on the trade. In other cases, it is incumbent on the executor to put the A. to another master of the same trade. The bankruptcy of the master operates as a discharge of the indenture of the A., who, if he has paid an A. fee to the bankrupt, is entitled to be paid by the court a reasonable sum out of the estate.

By the Mutiny Act, apprentices enlisting in the army, and concealing their apprenticeship when brought before a magistrate to be attested, may be indicted for obtaining money under *false pretences;* and if, after the expiration of their apprenticeship, they do not surrender to a recruiting officer, they may be apprehended as deserters.

There is some curious historical matter on this subject, relating for the most part to a state of the law now obsolete or repealed, for which see Knight's *Political Dictionary*, under this head.

APPRISING is the old technical term in the Scotch law, and now obsolete, for the process of adjudication. See ADJUDICATION.

APPROACHES, in military language, are the sunken trenches or excavated roads which are constructed by besiegers. The si
at a considerable distance fr
attacked, the soldiers would be expos
danger while hastening across a belt of ope
to enter any breaches made by the large
were it not that concealed roads are first
along which they may approach. In some
A. are not actual trench
by a piled-up wall of
woolpacks, or cotton-ba
combination of A. e
military enterprise, wh
1854—5; it comprised the
70 miles of sunken trench,
of 60,000 fascines, 80,000 gabions,
sand-bags, to protect the men
trenches and at batteries. See SAP, §

APPROBATE AND REPROBATE. A technical expression in the law
signifies one of those rules of justice
themselves by their reasonable logic,
to be found in all enlightened sy
prudence. It simply means, that
permitted to A. and R.—that is,
reject the same deed or instrument
or settlement, purporting to dispose
sonal property, all of which it
verted into money, and in
equally divided or apportio
children, consisting of a
should, owing to some flaw or
invalid for the conveyance of the
accordingly, by the operation of
becomes the exclusive property
his father's heir—the law does not p
to enjoy such estate, and at the
benefit under the will in other
would be simultaneously to accept
same instrument: he must elect
alternatives, and either avail h
rights at law, as heir, or el
whole estate according to
intention—he cannot do bo
might be given, shewing distinc
haps for popular information.
trine in the law of England is calle
In one case decided by the House of
the Lord Chancellor Eldon treated
Scotch and English legal systems
observing that it was equally settled
in England that no person can accept
same instrument; and he
giving his estate to A, but
which A would otherwise have b
in that case his lordship stated th
hold it to be against conscience
the estate bequeathed to him, a
refuse to effectuate the implied con
in the will of the testator. The
permit him to take that which
by virtue of the disposition of
same time to keep what, by
or intended to be given, to
contrary to the established p
he should enjoy the benefit
condition of the gift.

It is chiefly in the case of wills
mentary dispositions that this
frequently arises in practice, a
no question that both in the
systems of law it extends to all
and instruments.

APPROPRIATION CLAU
was the name by which, while
tinued, reference was u

ccupied a large share of the atten-
ture and of the public between the
1838. The expectation that the
would improve after the passing of
ancipation and Reform Acts had
e fallacious. Among other grave
nt left untouched by these measures,
ion of tithes by the Established
that cause proceeded very many of
ich Ireland was then afflicted. To
as the antipathy to tithes carried,
n who ventured to exact payment
s in the exclusively Catholic coun-
e risk of his life. Several clergy-
ly been assassinated, and others
lar, that the utility of the Irish
e-fourths of Ireland was almost
was a state of matters which could
l to last. Coercive measures had
had failed to produce any amelio-
edies which then suggested them-
: First, the commutation of tithes
e upon land; second, the reduction
of sinecures in the Irish Protestant
rd, the appropriation of the surplus
church to the advancement of the
n of the people.

ese measures the liberal cabinet of
but—from leaving the commutation
the option of the landlord carried
manner so unsatisfactory, that no
resulted. The second was carried
uccess. The Irish Church Tempo-
ruck off two archbishoprics, ten
various sinecures, and applied the
equired chiefly to supply the place
alled 'vestry cess' (analogous to
nich was abolished. This act, how-
church with an income greatly dis-
the number of her adherents. The
led in regard to the third measure,
in favour of the principle of appro-
minority, consisting of the Irish
Stanley (now Earl of Derby), Sir
Lord Ripon, and another, being
The minority had influence enough
ernment from espousing the prin-
o procure the abandonment of the
f the Church Temporalities Bill,
osition asserted, though incorrectly,
embodied the principle. This was
ppropriation Clauses.

ng year, 1834, it had become fully
he tithe act of 1833 had failed, and
nd rendered it more imperative than
tithe question. Mr Ward, through-
porter of the principle of appropri-
the House of Commons, on 27th
it was right that the state should
ribution of church property in such
arliament might determine.' This
le question of appropriation, and
the annoyance of ministers. The
inct was well known not to have
d while Mr Ward was speaking,
ord Althorp that the minority had
stopped the debate for the night.
left in office found themselves
rtain of their difficulties, but as
that the King was strongly opposed
ion principle, and that there was no
louse of Lords assenting to it, they
as to find some means to delay com-
ces in the matter. A commission
appointed to collect information;
Lord Althorp met the Commons,
impressed on them how useless it was to discuss a mere abstract principle, and on Mr Ward's refusing to withdraw his motion, moved and carried the previous question by a large majority.

The short-lived ministry of 1835, under Sir Robert Peel, was in office when the appropriation question next came before parliament. The Liberals were in opposition; and Lord John Russell, who had succeeded to the Whig leadership in the Commons, on Lord Althorp's removal to the House of Lords, was now prepared to commit his party to the appropriation principle. When Sir Robert Peel brought forward a tithe commutation bill to supplement the bungled measure of 1833, Lord John Russell proposed two resolutions, which gave rise to one of the longest and most important of the numerous debates which have taken place on the question. On the one side, the chief speakers were Ward, Lord Howick, Sheil, and O'Connell; and on the other, Peel, Stanley, Sir James Graham, and Gladstone. Much of the interest which attended the discussion was caused by its involving the whole question of church establishments, and by a fear, on the part of the English Conservatives, that the doctrines of utility and expediency, so freely referred to in connection with the Church of Ireland, might one day be turned against the Church of England. On 2d April 1835, the House of Commons pronounced, by a majority of 33, 'that any surplus which might remain, after fully providing for the spiritual instruction of the members of the Established Church of Ireland, ought to be applied to the moral and religious education of all classes, without distinction of religious persuasion;' and a few days afterwards, a subsequent resolution was passed, 'That no settlement of the tithe question would be satisfactory unless it embodied the preceding principle.' In consequence of these resolutions, the Conservatives resigned, and the Liberals returned to power.

There was now in office a ministry pledged to the appropriation principle. In 1836, ministers brought forward a tithe commutation bill, containing clauses carrying out the principle fully and explicitly. The bill passed the Commons, but the A. C. were struck out by the Lords. The bill was thereupon abandoned. In 1837, a government tithe commutation bill again passed the Commons with A. C., and again these clauses were struck out by the Lords. On the motion of the ministers, the Commons rejected the amended bill. After the general election of 1837, the Melbourne ministry found themselves with a very narrow majority in the Commons. The liberal members had made the appropriation question a prominent topic at the election; but it was too apparent that England and Scotland were becoming weary of the interminable discussions upon Irish affairs. In the meantime, the state of Ireland was little better, and with an increasing party in the House of Commons to back them, there was no prospect of the Lords giving way upon the appropriation question. Still, it was necessary that something should be done, and the choice of the ministry lay between carrying a commutation bill without A. C., and resignation. The former course was chosen. The tithe measure was introduced, and ministers solaced themselves for their desertion of principle by the reflection, that after all there might be no surplus to appropriate, and that it would therefore be useless to prolong a collision with the Upper House on a matter of no practical importance. This conduct emboldened the opposition, and Sir Thomas Acland, on 14th May 1838, moved the recall of the celebrated resolutions of 1835. The discussion which followed was most damaging to the credit of the ministers, but they were saved, by a majority of 19, from the humilia-

tion of having the resolutions recalled. A last effort in support of the principle was made in July 1838, by Mr Ward, who then moved the insertion of A. C. into the government tithe bill. He was opposed by the whole ministerial force, and more strangely still, by the Irish members. O'Connell, who in 1835 had spoken of the one magical word 'appropriation,' which was to bring peace to Ireland, declared now that nothing would satisfy the Irish people except the total abolition of tithes. Thus deserted and opposed, Mr Ward's motion was lost by a large majority. The government tithe measure passed in August 1838, and tithes were commuted into a rent-charge of three-fourths of their amount. After that, they were collected with comparative facility, and the appropriation question, once the topic of discussion over the whole country, fell into oblivion, until the disendowment of the Episcopal Church in Ireland, in 1869, revived it in a new shape.

APPROVER, or **PROVER**, in the law of England, is a person who had been an accomplice in the perpetration of a crime, but who is admitted to give evidence against the prisoner. It had not so simple and intelligible a meaning in the ancient practice of the criminal law, in which *approvement* was a kind of confession of a complicated nature. Where a person in a prosecution for treason or felony confessed the fact before pleading to the indictment, and, at the same time, accused others, his accomplices, of the same crime, in order to obtain his pardon, he was called an *A.* or *P.* But, as the condition of the pardon he thus expected was the conviction of the accomplice he accused, if that failed, the A. received judgment of death upon his own confession. If, on the other hand, the accused accomplice was found guilty, the A. was entitled to his pardon *ex debito justitiæ*. But 'this course of admitting approvements,' says Blackstone, writing about a century ago, 'hath long been disused; for the truth was, as Sir Matthew Hale observes, that more mischief arose to good men by these kinds of approvements, upon false and malicious accusations of desperate villains, than benefit to the public by the discovery and conviction of real offenders; and, therefore, in the times when such appeals were most frequently admitted, great strictness and nicety were held therein; though, since their discontinuance, the doctrine of approvements is become a matter of more curiosity than use.'

The modern practice is to admit accomplices to give evidence for the prosecution, or, as it is said, to become *Queen's evidence*, upon an implied promise of pardon, on condition of their making a full and fair confession of the whole truth. The admission, however, of an accomplice to give evidence against his fellows, requires the previous sanction of the judges of jail delivery, and a motion is usually made at the trial to the judge for leave to admit the accomplice for that purpose. The testimony of an accomplice is in all cases, however, regarded with just suspicion; and unless his statement is corroborated in some material part by unimpeachable evidence, the jury are usually advised by the judge to acquit the prisoner; and if the accomplice, after having confessed the crime, and being admitted as Queen's evidence, does not satisfy the condition on which he was so received by failing to give full information without equivocation, reservation, or fraud, he then forfeits all claim to protection, and may be tried, convicted, and punished on his own confession. Accordingly, upon a trial at York, towards the commencement of the present century, before the late Mr Justice Buller, the accomplice denied in his evidence all that he had before confessed, upon which the prisoner was acquitted. But the judge ordered an indictment to be preferred against the accomplice for the same his previous confession, and other was convicted and executed.

The term in the law of Sco of A. is *socius criminis*, and such socius is admitted. is left to the jury, are ' the criminal courts in ing and assuring safet English practice does. *Practice of the Crimin Law* p. 453, says: 'It has long been a principle in our law, that by the very a the *socius*, and putting him in the ba cutor debars himself from all title to m the future with relation to the matte is always explained to the witn judge as soon as he appears quently he gives his test absolute security as to upon himself. If, then the witness should be account of any of t on which he was be at once quashed by the supreme privilege is absolute, and altogether i the prevarication or unwillingness wh witness may give his testimony. Jus may often be defeated by a witness previous disclosures, or refu sion after he is put into much more put in hazard i that his future safety de which he spoke out a The only remedy, the mittal of the witness fo or indicting him for perjury, grounds for any of these p respect the security of the *socius*, a against the contamination of is much stronger in this c where it is held that the been adduced by the crown only the foundation for a crown for mercy, and witnesses making a fu Sir Archibald mentions a case was adduced as an A. or *socius*, confinement as a military delinqu offence, was nevertheless allowed t and upon its being suggested as a soldier's being admitted as a witnes still be open to be tried by a co court declared that they had him from such an ordeal, and fail to interfere on his beh endangered in consequence

It was chiefly on the evi named William Hare, that criminal was convicted befo Justiciary in 1828. See this ca in ANATOMY.

APPROXIMATION, a term c mathematical science to designate as are not rigorously correct, but ap near enough for a given purpose. mic and trigonometrical tables numbers are mere appr calculations of astron nature. Even in pure in which approaches t interminable series, are all solution of equations bey be got only by approxi

APPUI (French), a

nts d'A. are such parts of the field of
ed to give support or shelter. As
a army (like the extreme sides of a
e the weakest points of resistance to
cially require support or protection,
when it is possible, in localities which
ruct the attacking forces. Lakes,
s, streams, and steep declivities may
ints d'A.

78, or, less properly, APULEIUS, a
of the 2d c., was born at Madaura, in
is father was a magistrate, and a man
. A. first studied at Carthage, which
ajoyed a high reputation as a school
Afterwards he went to Athens, where
enly upon the study of philosophy,
pecial predilection for the Platonic
fortune bequeathed to him at his
enabled A. to travel extensively.
ly, Asia, &c., and was initiated into
ous mysteries. The knowledge which
d of the priestly fraternities, he made
f afterwards in his *Golden Ass*. His
e in literature arose from a law-
married a middle-aged lady, named
r wealthy, but not particularly hand-
lown upon his head the malice of her
lemired to inherit her riches, and who
ith of having employed magic to gain
His defence (*Apologia*, still extant),
laudius Maximus, proconsul of Africa,
nt and successful vindication of his
his event, his life appears to have been
ly to literature and public oratory, in
ne attained great eminence. He was
opular, that the senate of Carthage,
s, erected statues in his honour.
lss, the work by which his reputation
a romance or novel, whose principal
e *Lucian*, supposed by some, though
evidence, to be the author himself.
nderstood to have been intended as
vices of the age, especially those of
and of quacks or jugglers affecting
wers, though Bishop Warburton, and
ncy they can detect in it an indirect
nism. Its merits are both great and
are also its faults. Wit, humour, satire,
, and even poetic eloquence abound,
disfigured by excessive archaisms, and
ent affectation in the metaphors, &c.
.. to have been somewhat artificial in
The most exquisite thing in the whole
isode of Cupid and Psyche (imitated
ne). It is supposed to be an alle-
progress of the soul to perfection.
pologia and *Golden Ass*, we have
of A. an Anthology in four books,
e Demon of Socrates, one on the
fato, one on *The Universe*, &c. A
umber of his works also are lost.
at and careful edition of the whole
that published at Leipsic in 1842, by
ld. The *Golden Ass* was translated
by T. Taylor (1822), and again by
(1851). An English version of the
s published in London, 1853.

, Theodor Matvayevich, a distin-
n admiral, was born in 1671. When
rears of age, he entered the service of
t, who conceived a great attachment
lasted during the whole life of the
1699, he took part in the first
the Russian
naf. After the y

the most powerful and influential person at the court of the czar, who made him chief-admiral of the Russian navy, of which, in fact, A. may be considered the creator. While Peter was fighting the Swedes in the north, A. was building war-vessels, fortresses, and wharfs in the south. In 1707, he was appointed president of the Admiralty; in 1708, he defeated the Swedish general, Lübecker, in Ingermanland, and saved the newly-built city of Petersburg from destruction; in 1710, he captured the important town of Viborg, in Finland; and in 1711, commanded in the Black Sea during the Turkish war. The following year he returned to the north; and in 1713, with a fleet of 200 vessels, he sailed along the coast of Finland, took Helsingfors and Borgo, and defeated the Swedish fleet. The result of his great successes was, that at the peace of Nystadt, in 1721, Russia obtained some most valuable advantages, being confirmed in her possession of Finland, just conquered, and of Esthonia. In spite of his brilliant reputation, however, he twice suffered an apparent eclipse of imperial favour. In 1714—15 he was charged with embezzlement, tried, and condemned to pay a fine; and a few years later, was denounced by Peter himself as 'an oppressor of the people,' and again condemned to pay a fine; but his services were too useful to be dispensed with, and in both instances the czar neutralised the effect of the condemnation, by conferring upon him additional riches and dignities. In 1722, he accompanied Peter in his Persian war, and was present at the siege of Derbend. His last naval expedition was in 1726, when he repaired with the Russian fleet to Revel, to defend that place against an expected attack by the English. He died at Moscow, 10th November 1728, in the 57th year of his age.

A'PRICOT (*Prunus Armeniaca*), a species of the same genus with the Plum (q. v.), is a native of Armenia, and of the countries eastward to China and Japan; a middle-sized tree of 15–20, or even 30 feet high, with ovate, acuminate, and cordate, smooth, doubly-toothed leaves on long stalks; solitary, sessile, white flowers which appear before the leaves, and fruit resembling the peach, roundish, downy, yellow, and ruddy on the side next the sun, with yellow flesh. The A. was brought into Europe in the time of Alexander the Great, and since the days of the Romans has been diffused over all its western countries. It has been cultivated in England since the middle of the 16th c. It is only in the south of England that it is ever trained as a standard, nor is it grown in the more northern parts, even as an espalier, but almost always as a wall-tree. More than twenty kinds are distinguished, amongst which some excel very much in size, fine colour, sweetness, and abundance of juice. The *Moorpark* is generally esteemed the finest variety, and the *Breda* as best suited for standards in the south of England, and in Scotland even for the wall, except in the most favourable situations.—The A. is generally budded on plum or wild cherry stocks. The fruit keeps only for a very short time, and is either eaten fresh, or made into a preserve or jelly. Apricots split up, having the stone taken out, and dried, are brought from Italy as an article of commerce, in particular from Trieste, Genoa, and Leghorn: in the south of France, also, they are an article of export in a preserved and candied state. Dried apricots from Bokhara are sold in the towns of Russia, the kernels of which are perfectly sweet, like those of the sweet almond. The kernels are sweet in some kinds, and bitter in others—the bitterness being probably re natural, and the sweetness, as in the almond, result of cultivation. Generally speaking, may be used for the same purposes as

almonds. From the bitter kernels, which contain Prussic acid, the *Eau de noyaux* is distilled in France. The charred stones yield a black pigment similar to Indian ink. The wood of the tree is good only for the purposes of the turner.

The BRIANÇON A. (*Prunus Brigantiaca*) very much resembles the common A. The fruit is glabrous. It is found in Dauphiné and Piedmont. At Briançon, an oil, called *Huile de marmotte*, is expressed from the seeds.

The SIBERIAN A. (*P. Sibirica*) is also very like the common A., but smaller in all its parts. The fruit is small. It is a native of Siberia, especially of the southern slopes of the mountains of Dahuria.

The A. PLUM is an excellent kind of plum, much cultivated in some parts of France, and which, preserved in sugar, dried, and packed in shallow boxes, forms a considerable article of trade.

A'PRIL. The Romans gave this month the name of *Aprilis*, from *aperire*, to open, because it was the season when the buds began to open; by the Anglo-Saxons it was called Ooster, or Easter-month; and by the Dutch Grass-month. The custom of sending one upon a bootless errand on the first day of this month, is perhaps a travesty of the sending hither and thither of the Saviour from Annas to Caiaphas, and from Pilate to Herod, because during the middle ages this scene in Christ's life was made the subject of a miracle-play (q. v.) at Easter, which occurs in the month of A. It is possible, however, that it may be a relic of some old heathen festival. The custom, whatever be its origin, of playing off little tricks on this day, whereby ridicule may be fixed upon unguarded individuals, appears to be universal throughout Europe. In France, one thus imposed upon is called *un poisson d'Avril* (an A. fish). In England, such a person is called an A. fool; in Scotland, a gowk. Gowk is the Scotch for the cuckoo, and also signifies a foolish person. The favourite jest in Britain is to send one upon an errand for something grossly nonsensical—as for pigeon's milk, or the History of Adam's Grandfather; or to make appointments which are not to be kept; or to call to a passer-by that his latchet is unloosed, or that there is a spot of mud upon his face. When he falls into the snare, the term A. fool or gowk is applied with a shout of laughter. It is curious that the Hindus practise precisely similar tricks on the 31st of March, when they hold what is called the Huli Festival.

A-PRIO'RI reasoning or demonstration is that which rests on general notions or ideas, and is independent of experience. Reasoning from experience is called *a-posteriori* reasoning. A predilection for one or the other of these forms of reasoning forms one of the most important distinctions among schools of philosophy. Plato may be taken as typical of the A-P. school, Locke and Bacon of the other. A-P. speculation is more in accordance with the genius of the Germans than with that of the practical British. A-P. philosophy claims for its conclusions the character of necessary truths, and denies that there can be a-posteriori proof of anything, that kind of reasoning furnishing only a confirmation or verification. The opposite school maintain that the general notions or principles on which A-P. reasoning rests, are themselves the results of experience, and that, therefore, all truth rests really on *a-posteriori* grounds.

A'PRON. This word is employed both in military and in shipping affairs. The A. of a cannon is a piece of sheet-lead which covers the touch-hole, tied by two pieces of white rope. In ship-building, the A. is a piece of curved timber fixed behind the lower part of the stem, and just above the foremost end of the keel; its ch
stem, and connect it more
The name of A. is also given to the
raised at the entrance of a dock, a litt
the bottom, to form an abutment agai
gates may shut.

APSE (Lat. *apsis*), a semicircular rec
placed at the east end of the choir or ch
romanesque, or what is commonly called
an Anglo-Saxon or Anglo-Norman chur
origin of this peculiar termination to the
curious, and has been so clearly e
recent German writers, that we shall
state it in a very few words. It is
the heathen structure from which
tians borrowed the form of their c
the temple but the Basilica or
served at once for a market-place and a
justice. The Basilica, for the most part,
parallelogram, at one of the shorter sides o
opposite to the entrance, there was a raised
destined for the accommodation of the
engaged in, and connected with the distrib
justice. This portion of the
type of the rounded choir, to

Church at Schwartz, Rheindorf.

was given, and which is still to be s
of the Rhenish churches. For
which was placed in the centre o
space, the altar was substituted;
which led to the seat from which he
justice, were destined henceforth to lead
where the Fountain of all justice should be.
Many A.'s are to be met with in
an enumeration of which will h
Parker's excellent Glossary of A
as the structure is not only much
continued to be used to a much
continent, we shall describe it
seen in almost every little village a
the Rhine. The lower part of
usually pierced by two or three
dows, often of irregular size and
there is invariably an externa
pillars, in the form of whic
Roman pillar is at once apparent;
is joined to the end of the nave, which
ably above it, by a roof in the form
of a cone. Where the churches

row of windows of the same rounded
rided by pillars similar to those by which
is supported, and under them frequently
aches of corresponding construction, whilst
wo small and irregular holes of the same
e a scanty light to the crypt beneath.
the smaller churches have no aisles; and
circular A. forms the termination of, or
ntains the chancel. The more complete
s of the style, however, such as the minster
afford—with the exception of the tran-
d the towers, which are later additions—
e most perfect examples to be found on
the Alps of the form of the Roman basilica,
dapted to Christian uses. Several examples
are to be seen in the earlier ecclesiastical

Church of Dalmeny.

s of Scotland; as instances, we may men-
churches of Dalmeny and Kirkliston in
wshire, and of Leuchars in Fife.

DES (Gr. *apsis*, connection), the two
points in the orbit of a planet—one at the
the other at the least distance from the
he term A. is also applied in the same
o the two points in the orbit of a satellite
arest to, the other furthest from, its primary;
nding, in the case of the moon, to the
nd apogee. A right line connecting these
points, is called the line of A. In all the
r orbits, this line has no fixed position in
t makes a forward motion in the plane of
, except in the case of the planet Venus,
e motion is retrograding. This fact in the
the earth gives rise to the anomalistic year
This advancing motion of the line of A.
ally remarkable in the orbit of the moon,
amounts to 40° 40′ 32·2 annually, an
volution thus taking place in rather less
years.

EY, a river of Australia, in the north
of New South Wales. It flows into the
ific about 40 miles to the north-east of Port
rie, appearing to assume at its mouth the
the M'Leay. A. is also a strait between
and Bathurst Islands, on the north coast
alia. Its length is 48 miles, with a width
rom 1½ to 4; and the depth of its channel
to 24 fathoms.

EROUS INSECTS are insects without
In the Linnæan system, the *Aptera* form an
insects; but more important distinctive
s being found to belong to the insects
in it, it is no longer retained as an order or
division in the most improved entomological

TX (from the Gr. *a*, priv., and *pteryx*, a
s of birds allied to the ostrich and
emu, and perhaps more nearly to the extinct dodo. It has a very long and slender bill, of which it

Apteryx Australis.

makes a remarkable use in supporting itself when it rests. It has three anterior toes, and a posterior one which is scarcely developed. The legs are of moderate length, the wings merely rudimentary. The feathers have no accessory plume. The diaphragm is more complete than in any other known bird. Only one species is known (*A. Australis*), about the size of a goose, a native of New Zealand. It is a nocturnal bird, and preys on snails, insects, &c. It is much prized for its feathers. The natives call it *kiri-kiri*, from its cry.

A'PTHÆ are small vesicles formed of the superficial layer of a mucous membrane, elevated by fluid secreted by the latter. They are usually whitish in colour, and the fluid may be serous or puriform. At the end of a few hours or days, the apthous vesicle bursts at its summit, and shrivels up, exposing an inflamed and painful patch of the mucous membrane. The most common site of A. is the mucous membrane of the lips and mouth, but they occasionally appear wherever mucous membrane approaches the skin.

Infants are liable to an apthous eruption termed *thrush* (q. v.). A. in adults are generally the consequences of fevers and other diseases, or a symptom of disturbance of the digestive system. In some cases of pulmonary consumption, they form a painful addition to the patient's sufferings. In ordinary cases of A., a preparation of borax, or some astringent wash, generally effects a rapid cure.

APU'LIA, a part of ancient Iapygia (so named after Iapyx, son of Daedalus), now includes the south-eastern part of Italy as far as the promontory of Leuca, and also the extreme peninsula of Calabria. Here, in ancient times, lived three distinct peoples—the Messapians or Salentini, the Peuceni, and the Daunı or Apulians. According to old Latin traditions, Daunus, king of the Apulians, when banished from Illyria, settled in these parts of Italy. Later traditions say that Diomedes, the Ætolian, with several other heroes returning from the Trojan war, came to Italy, and, in his war with the Messapians, was assisted by Daunus, but was afterwards deprived of his territory, and put to death. Roman poetry has preserved these old names; but in history no mention is made of any king of A., though we find the names of its principal cities—Arpi, Luceria, and Canusium. The second Punic war was for some time carried on in A. In the present day, A. (now styled PUGLIA) is merely the name of a geographical district, and has no political meaning. The whole territory, including the Neapolitan provinces, Capitanata, Terra di Bari, Terra d'Otranto, &c., is but a shadow of its former self, in the time of the Greek colonies, under Roman dominion, or even under the Normans, who took possession of it in 1043 A. D. The towns are depopulated, industry

has disappeared, and commerce, once so flourishing, has passed away. Agriculture is in a very low condition, and the few roads are infested by banditti. The people are generally ignorant and superstitious, but deserve praise for their hospitality to travellers.

APU'RE, a river of New Granada and Venezuela, which rises in the East Andes, near lat. 7° N., and long. 72° W. After receiving the Portuguesa and the Guarico from the north, it joins the Orinoco, in lat. 7° 40′ N., and long. 66° 45′ W. It waters the towns Nutrias and San Fernando.

APU'RIMAC, a river of Peru, which, after a course of 500 miles, assumes the name, first, of Tambo, and then of Ucayali, which again, after a course of 500 miles more, joins the Tangaragua to form the Amazon. The A. proper rises to the north-west of the great table-land of Lake Titicaca, receiving from it, however, no portion of its waters. Among the tributaries of the Amazon, it is one of the most southerly; while among them, it approaches perhaps the nearest to the Pacific. The A., from its source in lat. 16° S., drains the eastern face of the Andes through about 5°, till it changes its name, as above, in 10° 45′ S., meanwhile receiving several considerable affluents, more especially the Villcamayo, from the opposite quarter. The A. and its feeders partake of the nature rather of mountain torrents than of navigable rivers; and even for travelling by land, their rocky and rugged banks are always difficult, and often impracticable. The valleys vary in climate and productiveness according to their elevation. The upper ones yield wheat and barley, and most of the fruits of Europe; while the lower, or at least the lowest ones, abound in sugar and cotton, plantains and pine-apples. The basin of the A., as a whole, is said to be the finest part of Peru, and to contain the largest proportion of native population—the best specimens apparently of the aboriginal civilisation.

A'QUA FORTIS, literally, *strong water*, was the term used by the alchemists to denote nitric acid, and is still the commercial name of that acid.

A'QUA MARINE, a name sometimes popularly given to the Beryl (q. v.). Some green and blue varieties of topaz have also been styled A.

A'QUA REGI'NÆ, literally, *queen's water*, is a mixture of concentrated sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) and nitric acid, or of sulphuric acid and nitre. Either mixture evolves much fumes, and may be used as a disinfectant, as similar mixtures are sold under the name of *everlasting disinfectants*.

A'QUA REGIS, or REGIA, literally, *royal water*, is the common name applied to a mixture of 1 part of nitric acid, and 2, 3, or 4 parts of hydrochloric acid. The general proportion is 1 to 2. The term aqua regia (royal water) was given to the mixture from the power it possesses of dissolving gold, which is the *king of the metals*.

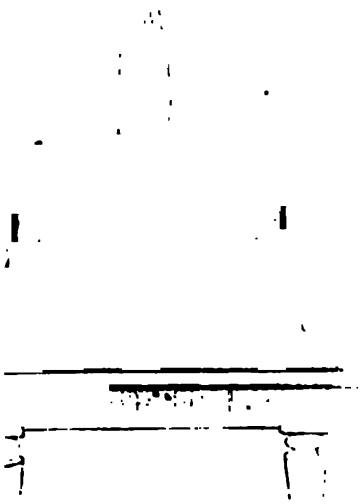
AQUA'RIUM, a tank or vessel containing either salt or fresh water, and in which either marine or fresh-water plants and animals are kept in a living state. The name was formerly sometimes given to a tank or cistern placed in a hot-house, and intended for the cultivation of aquatic plants. The A., as now in use—originally called *Vivarium* or *Aquarivarium*, and intended chiefly for animals, became extremely common about twenty years ago. From 1854 to 1860, there was a mania for these scientific toys: they became not only an aid to study, but a source of rational amusement, depending in principle upon the relations discovered by science between animal and vegetable life, and particularly upon the consumpt by plants, under the action of light, of the carbonic acid gas given forth by animals, and the consequent restoration to the air or water in which they live of the oxy[gen] maintenance of animal life. [A.] contain both plants and an[imals] like a proper proportion. Zoophytes, Annelusca, Crustacea, and fishes may thus, [with] be kept in health, and their habits o[bserved]. water must be frequently *aerated*, which accomplished by taking up portions of [water] and [pouring] them in again from a small height. [The] A. is frequently provided with a [fountain] produces a continual change of w[ater]. where this is the case, the presence [of] and animals is advantageous to the h[ealth]. When sea-water cannot easily be pro[cured]. Marine A., a substitute may be made by [dissolving] rather less than 4 quarts of spring water [the] of common table-salt, ½ ounce of Epsom [salts]

Simple form of an Aqua

grains troy of chloride of m[agnesium] troy of chloride of potassium. [The] may be kept good for a long time. [No] or decaying plant must be permitted [to] Salt water, artificially prepared, is not [so] reception of animals at once; but a few first be placed in it, for which purpose [some] green algæ, species of Ulva and Conf[erva] suitable. The presence of a number [of] animals, such as the common periwi[nkle] sary for the consumption of the contin[ual] vegetable matter, and of the multitud[es] (seeds), particularly of confervæ, which [otherwise] soon fill the water, renderi[ng] it brownish, and untransparent, and [begin] beginning to vegetate everywhere o[n] on the glass of the tank. In a molluscous animals of similar h[abits] of *Lymnæa* or *Planorbis*, are e[specially] For large aquaria, tanks of pla[te] monly used; smaller ones are made [of] or of crystal.

Of course, the plants and animals [in] A. is stocked are various, accordi[ng] opportunities, or the desire to make [them] the subjects of careful and contin[ued] Blennies, gobies, and gray mullets [are] kinds of fish most commonly seen gold-fishes, sticklebacks, and [minnows] enough in fresh-water ones. [The] tage of being more easily kept [than] many other kinds, and a further found in their small size, and in the [form] the gold-fish. The nests of stickleba[cks] ject of unfailing interest. Crabs of v[arious] and actiniæ, or sea-anemones, are [also] among the larger inmates of the A. tribute much both to its inte

spread out their delicate and finely tinted from the mouth of their shelly tube, and within it, quick as thought, upon the disturbance. Balani, or acorn-shells, are tiful objects when they are seen opening mit-valves, and rapidly stretching out and their little nets. Even periwinkles and e interesting, particularly when they are by the aid of a magnifying-glass, as they the spores of the confervæ which have n to vegetate on the glass of the A., owly along, with continual opening and of the mouth, like cows at pasture, when ure and motions of their mouths may be and the singular beauty and brilliancy of ever fails to command admiration. The good magnifying lens adds greatly to the the A., and zoophytes of exquisite forms s may be watched in the actual processes The feeding of fishes, crabs, sea-anemones, source of amusement, and it is interesting



uarium, with Fountain for Aerating.

te how the inmates of the A. occasionally eir fellow-prisoners.

a of the A. seems to have originated from l's invention of the *cases* which bear his WARDIAN CASES), and in which delicate other plants grow so well even in towns; te Sir John Graham Dalzell began to keep rine animals in his house in Edinburgh so '90, and continued to do so till the year 1850. ington appears to have been the first to eriments on its practicability, and the name se is intimately associated with its early ent and introduction to popularity as a plaything. A Mr Price also conducted successful experiments as to the balance and vegetable life in aquaria. The largest the world are those at Brighton and Hamthere is also one of large dimensions at the 'alace, Sydenham. In these the habits of r fishes may be studied with advantage.

'RIUS, *the Water-bearer*, the eleventh sign ac, through which the sun moves in part nths of January and February. It is also of a zodiacal constellation, whose position evens may be found by producing a line in y direction through the stars in the head neda and the wing of Pegasus.

AQUATIC plants and animals are those that live either wholly or partly in water. The term is very vaguely used, those plants being often called A. which grow in ponds, ditches, &c., although not only their inflorescence, but great part of their foliage, is above the surface of the water, as well as those which more completely belong to that element; and a similar latitude of meaning prevails with regard to animals. Few phanerogamous (or

Aquatic plant.

flowering) plants exist entirely under water, although there are a few, like the common *Zostera marina*, or Grass-wrack, which do so, and produce even their flowers in that condition; others, of which the greater part of the plant is usually under water, produce their flowers upon, or considerably above, its surface, as those of the genera *Valisneria*, *Anacharis* (q. v.), &c. The leaves, as well as the flowers, of many float upon the water, of which the water-lilies furnish well-known and beautiful examples; whilst in *Ranunculus aquatilis*, that exquisite ornament of our river margins, we have an instance of a kind not unfrequent, of great diversity between the lower leaves which remain submersed, and the upper leaves which float. Of cryptogamous plants, one great order, Algæ, is exclusively A., and these seem adapted to perform under water all the functions of their life. A. plants are, in general, of less compact structure than is usual in other plants, and are thus lighter and better adapted for rising in their growth towards the surface of the water; in order to which also some of the algæ, as may be seen in more than one of the most common sea-weeds of our coasts, are provided with air bladders of considerable magnitude. All this is the more necessary, as plants completely A. have generally little firmness of stem, and if their weight made them fall to the bottom, would lie in a mass, as they do when withdrawn from the water, in which, however, they gracefully float, their flexibility of stem enabling them to adapt themselves to waves or currents which would destroy them if they were more rigid. So admirably are all things in nature harmonised.

Many animals, to a considerable extent A. in their habits, must not only breathe air, but are adapted for spending great part of their existence on dry land. Such are chiefly those that seek their food in the water. The peculiarities of structure by which they are fitted for wading, for swimming, for diving, and for remaining under water a longer time than other animals can, are very interesting and admirable. Even the fur of the beaver, the otter, the water-rat, and other animals of this description, is not liable to be drenched like that of other quadrupeds; and the plumage of waterfowls exhibits a similar peculiarity. The feet of many are webbed, so as to enable them to swim with great facility; and to this the general form, as in water-fowls, likewise exhibits a beautiful adaptation. The webbed feet in some, of which the habits are most thoroughly A., as seals, assume the character

of a sort of paddle, admirably fitted for use in the water, but by means of which they can only move very awkwardly on land. The forms of whales and fishes are remarkably adapted for progression in water; whilst, instead of the limbs by which other vertebrate animals are enabled to move upon the land or to fly in the air, their great organ of locomotion is the tail, or rather the hinder part of the elongated body itself, with the tail as the blade of the great oar, which all the principal muscles of the body concur to move. Remarkable provision is made in A. animals of the higher vertebrate classes for the maintenance of the requisite animal heat, by the character of the fur or plumage; a purpose which the blubber of whales also most perfectly serves. In the colder-blooded animals, where no such provision is requisite, the structure of the heart is accommodated to the diminished necessity for oxygenation of the blood; and although reptiles in their perfect state must breathe air, most of them can remain long under water without inconvenience. Fishes, and the many other animals provided with branchiæ or gills, breathe in the water itself, deriving the necessary oxygen, which in their case is comparatively little, from the small particles of air with which it is mingled. They cannot subsist in water which has been deprived of air by boiling. Some A. insects carry down with them into the water particles of air entangled in hairs with which their bodies are abundantly furnished.

AQUATI'NTA, a mode of etching on copper, by which imitations of drawings in Indian ink, bister, and sepia are produced. On a plate of copper a ground is prepared of black resin, on which the design is traced; a complicated series of manipulations with varnish and dilute acid is then gone through, until the desired result is attained. The process of A. has fallen into comparative disuse.

A'QUA TOFA'NA, a poisonous liquid which was much talked of in the south of Italy about the end of the 17th c. Its invention is still a matter of dubiety, but is ascribed to a Sicilian woman named Tofana, who lived first at Palermo, but was obliged, from the attention of the authorities having been attracted to her proceedings, to take refuge in Naples. She sold the preparation in small phials, inscribed 'Manna of St Nicholas of Bari,' there being a current superstition that from the tomb of that saint there flowed an oil of miraculous efficacy in many diseases. The poison was especially sought after by young wives that wished to get rid of their husbands. The number of husbands dying suddenly in Rome about the year 1659, raised suspicion, and a society of young married women was discovered, presided over by an old woman named Spara, who had learned the art of poisoning from Tofana. Spara and four other members of the society were publicly executed. Tofana continued to live to a great age in a cloister, in which she had taken refuge, but was at last (1709) dragged from it, and put to the torture, when she confessed having been instrumental to 600 deaths. According to one account she was strangled; but others affirm that she was still living in prison in 1730.

The A. T. is usually described as a clear, colourless, tasteless, and inodorous fluid; five or six drops were sufficient to produce death, which resulted slowly and without pain, inflammation, or fever; under a constant thirst, a weariness of life, and an aversion to food, the strength of the person gradually wasted away. It is even stated that the poison could be made to produce its effects in a determined time, long or short, according to the wish of the administrator—a notion generally prevalent in those ages respecting secret poisoning. The most wonderful stories are told of the mode of preparing this poison; for example, the spittle of a person driven nearly mad by continued tickling was held to be an essential ingredient. Later investigations into the real nature of the A. T. lead to the belief that it was principally a solution of arsenic.

A'QUA VI'TÆ (Lat., water of life) is a common term applied to ardent spirits. During the alchemical epoch, brandy or distilled spirits was much used as a medicine, was considered a cure for all disorders, and even got the credit of prolonging life; and as Latin was the tongue employed in the conveyance of knowledge in those days this restorer of health and prolonger of life was naturally christened A. V.

A'QUEDUCT (Lat. *Aquæ ductus*), an artificial course or channel by which water is conveyed on an inclined plain. When an A. is carried across a valley, it is usually raised on arches, and where elevated ground or hills intervene, a passage is cut, or, if necessary, a tunnel bored for it. Aqueducts were not unknown to the Greeks; but there are no remains of those which they constructed, and the brief notices of them by Pausanias, Herodotus, and others, do not enable us to form any distinct idea of their character. The aqueducts of Rome were amongst the most magnificent of all, and the noble supply of water which the city still derives from the three now in use, all of which are ancient, gives the stranger a very vivid conception of the vast scale on which the ancient city must have been provided with one of the most important appliances of civilisation and refinement, when nine were employed to pour water into its baths and fountains.

The following are the names of the Roman aqueducts, chronologically arranged:

1. The *Aqua Appia*, begun by and named after the censor Appius Claudius about 313 B.C. It had a course of between 6 and 7 miles, its source being in the neighbourhood of Palestrina. With the exception of a small portion near the Porta Capena, it was subterranean. No remains of it exist.

2. *Anio Vetus*, constructed about 273 B.C. by M. Curius Dentatus. It also was chiefly underground. Remains may be traced both at the Porta Maggiore and near the Porta Maggiore. From which it quitted the river Anio, above Tivoli, to Rome, is about 43 miles.

3. *Aqua Marcia*, named after the prætor Marcius Rex, 145 B.C., had its source between Tivoli and Subiaco, and was consequently about miles long. The noble arches which stretch the Campagna for some 6 miles on the Frascati, are the portion of this A. which was ground.

4. *Aqua Tepula* (126 B.C.) had its source Tusculum, and its channel was carried over arches of the last-mentioned A.

5. *Aqua Julia*, constructed by Agrippa named after Augustus 34 B.C. Like the was carried along the Marcian Arches, and was also near Tusculum. Remains of last-mentioned aqueducts still exist.

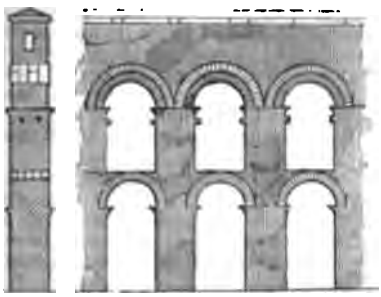
6. *Aqua Virgo*, also constructed by A said to have been named in c spring which supplied it having a girl to some of Agrippa's so of water. The Aqua Vergine, is still entire, having been restored by Nicholas V. and Pius IV. 1568. The Aqua Virgo is near the Anio, in the of Torre Salona, on the Via Collatina, miles from Rome. The original object was to supply the baths of Agrippa;

rs in the Fontana Trevi, that of the Piazza ..., the Piazza Farnese, and the Barcaccia of ... za di Spagna. The water of the Aqua Virgo ... west in Rome.

. *Aqua Alsietina*, constructed by Augustus, and ... restored by Trajan, and latterly by the ... This A., now called the Aqua Paola, is ... on the right bank of the Tiber, and sup- ... fountains in front of St Peter's and the ... Paola on the Montorio. Its original object ... to supply the Naumachia of Augustus, which ... a sheet of water for the representation of sea- ...

Aqua Claudia, commenced by Caligula and ...pleted by Claudius, 51 A.D. A line of magnifi- ...t arches which formerly belonged to this A. still ...ches across the Campagna, and forms one of the ... of Roman ruins. It was used as a quarry ... V. for the construction of the Aqua ... ch now supplies the Fountain of Termini, ... others in different parts of the city.

...sio Novus, which was the most copious of all ... man fountains, though inferior to the Marcia ... solidity of its structure; it was also the ... of the aqueducts, pursuing a course of no ... 62 miles. By the two last-mentioned ...ucts, the former supply of water was doubled. ...ddition to the aqueducts already mentioned, ...re was the Aqua Trajana, which may, however,



Section.

Aqua Alexandrina.

...regarded as a branch of the Anio Novus, and ...eral others of later construction, such as the ...niana, Alexandrina, and Jovia, none of which ... to be compared with the older ones in extent ... licence.

... ... it for the uses of the capital alone that ...educts were constructed. The A. of Trajan, at ...ia Vecchia, which conveys the water a distance ... miles, and that in the vicinity of Marzana, ...erona, with others that might be mentioned, ...st the existence of aqueducts in the smaller ... of Italy in Roman times. Even during the ...remaining period which succeeded, the habit of ...r construction was not abandoned, that of ...lete having been built by the Lombard Duke ...edolapius in 694. The extraordinary A. by ...ch the fountain at Siena is supplied, is said to ...e occupied two centuries in building; and the ...ern A. of Leghorn, which is not unworthy of the ...nan models after which it was designed, is ...assed in magnificence by that of Pisa, with its ...mand arches. In the more distant provinces ...ch fell under the Roman power, aqueducts ...e ... wise constructed—at Nicomedia, Ephesus, ...r ..., Alexandria, Syracuse, and in many of the ...a Gaul and in Spain. At Merida there are the ...ins of two aqueducts, of one of which there are ... ...ers still standing, with three tiers of ... the most magnificent structure of this class in Spain, is the A. of Segovia, in Old Castile, for which Spanish writers claim an antiquity beyond that of the Roman dominion; but which, there is reason to believe, belongs to the time of Trajan. At Evora, in Portugal, there is likewise an A. in good preservation, with a *castellum* or reservoir at its termination in the city, consisting of two stories, the lower one being decorated with pillars. But of all the provincial aqueducts, that at Nismes, in Provence, is at once the most remarkable and the best preserved. The following description of it, which we transcribe from Mr Murray's excellent Hand-book for France, will convey to the reader a very vivid conception not only of this A. in particular, but of the very interesting class of works to which it belongs. 'It consists of three rows of arches, raised one above the other, each smaller than the one below it; the lowest of six arches, the centre tier of eleven, and the uppermost of thirty-five; the whole in a simple if not a stern style of architecture, destitute of ornament. It is by its magnitude, and the skilful fitting of its enormous blocks, that it makes an impression on the mind. It is the more striking from the utter solitude in which it stands—a rocky valley, partly covered with brushwood and greensward, with scarce a human habitation in sight, only a few goats browsing. After the lapse of 16 c., this colossal monument still spans the valley, joining hill to hill, in a nearly perfect state, only the upper part, at the northern extremity, being broken away. The highest range of arches carries a small canal, about 4½ feet high and 4 feet wide, just large enough for a man to creep through, still retaining a thick lining of Roman cement. It is covered with stone slabs, along which it is possible to walk from one end to the other, and to overlook the valley of the Gardon. The height of the Pont du Gard is 188 feet, and the length of the highest arcade 873 feet. Its use was to convey to the town of Nismes the water of two springs, 25 miles distant. . . . The conveyance of this small stream was the sole object and use of this gigantic structure, an end which would now be attained by a few iron water-pipes.' Neither the date nor the builder of the Pont du Gard is known with certainty, but it is ascribed to Agrippa, the nephew of Augustus; a conjecture which is rendered probable by the fact of his having restored the Appian, Marcian, and Anienan, and constructed the Julian A. at Rome. The importance which the Romans attached to their aqueducts may be gathered from the fact, that special officers, invested with considerable authority, and, like all the higher officials, attended by lictors and public slaves, were appointed for their superintendence. Under the orders of these 'guardians of the waters,' we are told that, in the time of Nerva and Trajan, about 700 architects and others were employed in attending to the A. These officials were divided into various classes, and known by different names, according as their duties related to the care of the course of the A., the Castella or reservoirs at its termini, the pavement of the channel, the cement with which it was covered, and the like.

The construction of aqueducts in recent times is comparatively rare, water being now generally conveyed in pipes; but two instances are worthy of notice—the *Lisbon* A., and the *Croton* at New York. The former, completed in 1738, is about 3 leagues in length; near the city, it is carried over a deep valley for a length of 2400 feet, by a number of bold arches, the largest of which has a height of 250 feet, and a span of 115. The Croton A., which conveys the waters of the Croton river for a distance of 38 miles to the city of New York, is one of the greatest undertakings of modern times. It was

commenced in 1837, and finished in 1842, and is calculated to discharge upwards of 60,000,000 gallons in 24 hours. As the magnificence of aqueducts depends upon the height and number of arches requisite to carry them across valleys, it may give some idea of that under consideration when it is stated that Haarlem River is crossed by fifteen arches, seven of which are of 50 feet span, and eight of 80 feet, the greatest height being 150 feet from the foundation to the top of the mason-work.

A'QUEOUS HUMOUR is the fluid which occupies the space in the eye between the back of the cornea and the front of the lens, which, in fœtal life, is divided into an *anterior* and *posterior* chamber by the membra pupillaris (q. v.), and in adult life, by the iris. It consists of water, with, according to Berzelius, about a fiftieth of its weight made up of chloride of sodium and extractive matters held in solution.

Anatomists are not agreed as to the spring of this watery secretion, and are inclined to doubt the existence of a special secreting membrane, which used to be taken for granted. However, a layer of delicate epithalial cells, which exists at the back of the cornea (q. v.), is probably concerned in its formation. It is rapidly re-secreted if allowed to escape by any wound in the cornea, and in some cases is formed in such quantity as to cause dropsy of the eye (*hydrophthalmia*).

A'QUEOUS ROCKS. In Geology, every layer which forms a portion of the solid crust of the earth is called a rock, it matters not whether its particles are incoherent, like soil or sand, or compacted together, like limestone and sandstone—to all alike, irrespective of popular usage, the geologist applies the term *rock*. In this wide sense, the rocks of the earth's crust are either igneous (q. v.) or sedimentary. These sedimentary rocks have an aqueous origin, with the exception of a very limited number, like drift-sand, which are brought into their present position by the action of the wind. Unlike the igneous rocks, whose particles have assumed their present form in the position they occupy, the materials of the A. R. have evidently been brought from a distance. They owe their origin to some older rock, whose decomposition or destruction has afforded the materials. The parent rock can often be identified. Its distance is indicated by the condition of the materials, whether they are rounded and water-worn, or angular and shingly.

The agents now at work, and which have been active in past geological ages, rubbing down and transporting the materials from which these rocks are formed, are the following: 1. *The sea*, destroying the rocks and cliffs, and beaches which form its boundary, and carrying off the eroded materials to form new rocks below the level of the sea. 2. *Rivers*, including the action of their smallest tributary rills, and even of the drops of rain, for these abrade and carry off the almost imperceptible particles from the surface where they fall; and when united, they form the rill with its suspended sediment, and these again unite to form the river, which in its course not only retains what it has got, but scoops up more from its own bed, and carries all to the sea or lake, to deposit it there as a new stratum. It is difficult to estimate the influence of this agency. Sir Charles Lyell calculates that the Nile annually deposits in the Mediterranean 3,702,758,400 cubic feet of solid matter. 3. *Glaciers and icebergs*. These enormous moving masses of ice are not only loaded with rock fragments, which are deposited as the ice melts, but are ever abrading the rocks over which they pass, and thus supply materials to form new layers. 4. Several stratified rocks have an evidently *organic origin*, such as chalk, and s stones chiefly composed of animal consisting of vegetable carbon; but been influenced in their formation by as to justify us in classifying th 5. The same remark applies to ro been *precipitated from a fluid* with rials existed in chemical combination, as h case with beds of salt, gypsum, and calcar

As the result of these various actions, series of rocks which, from their compos be classed as Arenaceous, Argillaceous, Carbonaceous, Saline, and Silicious. We to these terms for the descriptions rocks included under them.

The arrangement of the A. R. dependi different ages, is of more importance i geology than that depending on their int stitution. When a section of the earth examined, it is found to be composed of layers which have been produced Comparing this with sections in otl noticed that there is a regularity parts; for beds of the same structu different localities, and these occupy tive position to the adjacent beds. observations have shewn that the crust of is composed of a *regular* series of es formed one after another, during succ of time. This general induction fo the following classification. For the the included strata we must again of the different divisions:

I. TERTIARY OR KAINOZOIC EPOCH—1 cial Deposits or Recent Period; 2. Period; 3. Pliocene or Upper Tertiary Miocene or Middle Tertiary Period; 4 Lower Tertiary Period.

II. SECONDARY OR MESOZOIC 5 ceous Period; 7. Oolitic Period; 8.

III. PRIMARY OR PALÆOZOIC EPO Period; 10. Carboniferous Period; 11. Old Red Sandstone Period; 12. Silurian Cambrian Period.

AQUIFOLIA'CEÆ, a natural or donous or exogenous plants, of whic holly (q. v.) is the best known examp species that is a native of Europe. ever, contains more than one hundre greater part of which are natives of many of them belong to the tropical an parts of it. The species are all evergr shrubs, with simple, leathery leaves, stipules. The flowers are small and a 4—6 sepals, and a 4—6-parted corolla, int stamens are inserted, alternating with it The ovary is fleshy and superior, with tw cells, a solitary anatropal pendulous ovule cell, the cells generally becoming bon *stones* in the fruit, which is fleshy. allied to *Rhamnaceæ*, *Celastraceæ*, an The most interesting species belong to *Ilex*, or HOLLY (q. v.).

AQUILA. See EAGLE.

A'QUILA, the capital of the vince of the same name, situated o cara, near the loftiest of the Ap population of 10,000, ranks as a the fourth class, though its citadel is point. A. was built by the emper from the ruins of the ancient *Amiter* the Sabines, and the birthplace o historian. In 1703 it was almost de earthquake, in which 2000 persons is a bishop's see, has civil and c

and is considered one of the best built e kingdom. In 1841, much political took place here, and several of the were imprisoned and executed in consequence; public feeling in this town and ar more liberal than in most other parts om.

, PONTICUS, a celebrated translator of ament into Greek, born at Sinope. He bout the year 130 A.D., is said to have ion of the Emperor Hadrian, and to irst a Pagan, then a Christian, and ; submitting in his last conversion to religious ceremony of circumcision. His f the Old Testament - which appears to ertaken for the benefit of his Hellen- - was so *literal*, that the Jews pre- Septuagint, as did also the Judaising tians, called Ebionites. Only a portion remains, which has been edited by and others.

RIA'CEÆ, a natural order of dicotyle- togenous plants, containing only about species, all of which are trees with ches and tough bark, natives of the a of Asia. The leaves are entire; the ry, turbinate, or tubular, its limb four or five segments; the stamens the filaments inserted into the orifice nth; the ovary two-celled, with two stigma large; the fruit a 2-valved cap- pe. The order is chiefly interesting as e fragrant wood called ALOES WOOD

IIA. See COLUMELLA.

JA or AGLAR (earlier, Velia or Aquila), n Venetia, Italy, at the head of the miles W.N.W. of Trieste. Pop. 1480. k in utter insignificance, possessing no blic buildings of any note, except its it in the time of the Roman emperors, the most important places north of the Its commerce was flourishing, for though at from the sea, vessels could reach it necting it with the rivers in its vicinity. the central point of the transit-trade north and south of Europe, and the against the barbarians. Founded by ony in 181 B.C., it became a favourite Augustus; and in 168 A.D. was so fied by Marcus Aurelius, as to be con- rst bulwark of the empire on the north. d *Roma Secunda*, the Second Rome. eror Maximin perished; and in the tius lost his life in a battle against ntans. When the town was destroyed 52, it had 10,000 inhabitants. It never ough it received some ecclesiastical and continued slowly dwindling down he centuries into deeper obscurity and . Councils were held at A. in 381, 558, A.D.

S, THOMAS, or THOMAS OF AQUINO, ost influential of the scholastic theolo- the family of the Counts of Aquino, in of Naples, and was born in the Castle a in 1224. He received the rudiments tion from the Benedictine monks of , and completed his studies at the Naples. A strong inclination to philo- ilation determined the young nobleman, rill of his family, to enter (1243) the minicans. In order to frustrate the is friends to remove him from the con- sent away from Naples, with the view of going to France; but his brothers took him by force from his conductors, and carried him to the paternal castle. Here he was guarded as a prisoner for two years, when, by the help of the Dominicans, he contrived to escape, and went through France to the Dominican convent at Cologne, in order to enjoy the instructions of the famous Albertus Magnus (q.v.). According to another account, he owed his release from confinement to the interference of the emperor and the pope. At Cologne he pursued his studies in such silence, that his companions gave him the name of the 'Dumb Ox.' But Albert, his master, is reported to have predicted, 'that this ox would one day fill the world with his bellowing.' Thoroughly imbued with the scholastic, dialectic, and Aristotelian philosophy, he came forward, after a few years, as a public teacher in Paris. His masterly application of this philosophy to the systematising of theology, soon procured him a distinguished reputation. It was not, however, till 1257, that A. obtained the degree of doctor, as the university of the Sorbonne was hostile to the mendicant monks. He vindicated his order in his work, *Contra Impugnantes Dei Cultum et Religionem*; and, in a disputation in presence of the pope, procured the condemnation of the books of his adversaries. He continued to lecture with great applause in Paris, till Urban IV., in 1261, called him to Italy to teach philosophy in Rome, Bologna, and Pisa. Finally, he came to reside in the convent at Naples, where he declined the offer of the dignity of archbishop, in order to devote himself entirely to study and lecturing. Being summoned by Gregory X. to attend the General Council at Lyon, he was surprised by death on the way, 1274, at Fossanuova, in Naples. According to a report, he was poisoned at the instigation of Charles I. of Sicily, who dreaded the evidence that A. would give of him at Lyon.

Even during his life A. enjoyed the highest consideration in the church. His voice carried decisive weight with it; and his scholars called him the 'Universal,' the 'Angelic Doctor,' and the 'Second Augustine.' A general chapter of Dominicans in Paris made it obligatory on the members of the order, under pain of punishment, to defend his doctrines. It was chiefly the narratives of miracles said to have been wrought by A. that induced John XXII., in 1323, to give him a place among the saints. His remains were deposited in the convent of his order at Toulouse. Like most of the other scholastic theologians, he had no knowledge of Greek or Hebrew, and was almost equally ignorant of history; but his writings display a great expenditure of diligence and dialectic art, set off with the irresistible eloquence of zeal. His chief works are—a *Commentary on the Four Books of Sentences of Peter Lombard*, the *Summa Theologiæ*, *Quæstiones Disputatæ et Quodlibetales*, and *Opuscula Theologica*. He gave a new and scientific foundation to the doctrine of the church's treasury of works of supererogation, to that of withholding the cup from the laity in the communion, and to transubstantiation. He also treated Christian morals according to an arrangement of his own, and with a comprehensiveness that procured him the title of the 'Father of Moral Philosophy.' The definiteness, clearness, and completeness of his method of handling the theology of the church, gave his works a superiority over the text-books of the earlier writers on systematic theology. His *Summa Theologiæ* is the first attempt at a complete theological system. Accordingly, Pius V., to whom we owe the publication of the completest collection of A.'s works (18 vols., Rome, 1570; a newer but less trustworthy ed., 23 vols., Paris, 1636—41), ranks him with the greatest teachers of the church. In his philosophical writings,

the ablest of which is his *Summa Fidei Catholicæ contra Gentiles*, he throws new light over the most abstract truths. The circumstance of A. being a Dominican, and boasted of by his order as their great ornament, excited the jealousy of the Franciscans against him. In the beginning of the 14th c., Duns Scotus (q. v), a Franciscan, came forward as the declared opponent of the doctrines of A., and founded the philosophico-theological school of the Scotists, to whom the *Thomists*, mostly Dominicans, stood opposed. The Thomists leaned in philosophy to Nominalism (q. v.), although they held the abstract form to be the essence of things; they followed the doctrines of Augustine as to grace, and disputed the immaculate conception of the Virgin. The Scotists, again, inclined to Realism (q. v.), and to the views of the Semipelagians, and upheld the immaculate conception.

AQUITA'NIA, the Latin name of a part of Gaul, originally including the country between the Pyrenees and the Garonne, peopled by Iberian tribes. Augustus, when he divided Gaul into four provinces, added to A. the country lying between the rivers Garonne and Loire. Afterwards, A. passed into the hands—first, of the West Goths, and then of the Franks; and during the Merovingian dynasty, became an independent duchy. Though subjugated by Charlemagne, the duchy again claimed independence under the weak monarchs of the Carlovingian dynasty. In 1137, it was united to the crown of France by the marriage of Louis VII. with Eleanor, heiress of A. In 1152, A. became an English possession through the marriage of Henry II. with Eleanor, whom Louis had divorced, and a long series of disputes took place between England and France respecting A., which was at length ultimately united to the crown of France by Charles VII. in 1451.

ARABESQUE (Fr.), means merely *after the Arabian manner;* and, so far as etymology is concerned, might therefore be general in its application. In practice, however, it is used to characterise a peculiar kind of fantastic decoration commonly employed in conjunction with architecture, and which the Spanish Moors are supposed to have introduced into modern Europe. But the species of enrichment to which this term is now applied, was extensively employed both by the Greeks and Romans, the latter in particular being masters of the style. The Egyptians, from whom the Moors probably derived their original notions of this and other forms of art, also employed it in enriching their monumental decorations. But the A. of the Moors differed from that of the Egyptians in entirely excluding the figures of animals, the representation of which was forbidden by the Mohammedan religion, and confining itself entirely to the foliage, flowers, fruit, and tendrils of plants and trees, curiously and elaborately intertwined. This limitation of the field of A. was again departed from when the decorations were discovered on the walls of the baths of Titus, in the time of Leo X.; and more recently those in the houses at Herculaneum and Pompeii came to form the models of imitation, and the modern A. consists usually of combinations of plants, birds, and animals of all kinds, including the human and embracing not only every natural stepping without hesitation beyond th... nature. The freedom with which it fantastic is, indeed, the leadi... and as it is found in some ... people who have attempted to g... sentation of their fancies, it is sp... Schlegel as 'the oldest and original ... The arabesques with which Raphael ... galleries of the Vatican, and which ... to have imitated from those which he ha... instrumental in discovering in the baths ... are at once the most famous and th... beautiful which the modern world has p... Arabesques are usually painted, though th... is also applied to sculptural representati... similar subjects in low relief.

Arabesque Panel.
From the Mosque at Cordova.

ARA'BIA—called by the inhabita... Arab (the peninsula of A.); by the... Persians, Arabistân—is the great ... peninsula of Asia, and is situated ... N. lat., and 32° 30'—60° E. long. ... from N. to S. is about 1500 miles; its ... about 800; its area, 1,230,000 square miles; ... population is roughly estimated at ... bounded on the N. by Asiatic Turk... ... by the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of ... S., by the Gulf of Oman and the ... and on the W., by the Red S... ... with Africa on the N. W. by ... Through the centre of the land, ... Medina, runs the tropic of Cancer. Th... has been derived by some from *Araba* (... a level waste), a district in the provinc... by others, from *Eber*, a word signif... ('wanderer'), as the primitive Arabs w... would connect it with the word Heb... a similar origin. Others, again, are incl... it from the Hebrew verb *Arab*, to go d... the region in which the sun appeared ... Semitic dwellers on the Euphrates. ... a Hebrew word, Arâbah, w... place,' and which is occ... ture to denote the bor... Arabia. Ptolemy is supposed to ... the famous threefold division into ... *Arabia Felix*, and *Arabia Deserta*— included the whole of the N. W. po... the west and south-west coasts; ... whole of the dimly known interior. ... however, is not recognised by the nati... neither is it very accurate as at pres... for *Petræa* was not intended to mea... Ptolemy formed the adjective from ... city of Petra (the capital of the ... Nabathæans), whose proper name ... that is, the rock with a single stream. *Felix*, also, arose from an incorrect ... Yemen, which does not signify 'happy' ... lying to the *right* of Mecca—as ... means the land lying to the left of th... divisions of the Arab geographers ... 1. *Bahr-el-Tour Sinai* (Desert of ... 2. The *Hedjaz* (Land of Pilgrimage ... and *Yemen*, along the Red Sea; 4. ... region along the southern coast; 5. ... dom of Muscat; 6. *Bahrein*, on the ... 7. *Nedjed*, the Central Highlands of ...

Our knowledge of the interior of ... imperfect in detail, but its general ch... decidedly African. The largest por... that great desert zone which stre... shores of the Atlantic to those o... Pacific. The interior, so far as it ... explored by Europeans, seems to be ...

as reaching a height of 8000 feet. The ...ter crest of this plateau may be regarded ... mountain-chain, beginning in the north ...on, and stretching south to the Straits of ...deb. From Bab-el-Mandeb another chain ...east, parallel to the coast to Oman. From ...ai ...on the west, the plateau slopes ...d forms, in general, a vast tract ...ersed here and there about ... various ranges of hills, which, like ...f the peninsula, are generally barren and ...g.

...s the whole, an African climate. Though ...on three sides by the sea, its chains of ...le in a great measure the modifying ...f currents of air from the ocean. In ...of A. hardly a refreshing shower falls ...s of the year, and vegetation is ...known: in other sultry districts, the ...is almost the only proof of vegetable ...large sterile tracts hangs a sky of almost ...enity. The short rainy season which ...west coast, during our summer months, ...ually the *wadis* (hollow places) with ...e slight frosts mark the winters in the ...north-east. During the hot season, the ... blows, but only in the northern part of ...terraced districts are more favourable ...produce wheat, barley, millet, palms, ...cotton, sugar, tamarinds, excellent ...ny aromatic and spice-plants, as ...rrh, frankincense, &c. A. is desti-...out has vast stretches of desert grass ... aromatic herbs, and furnishing admir-...ge for the splendid breed of horses. ...of the most important exports, is an ...product both of A. and Africa.

...animal kingdom, an African character ...erally. Sheep, goats, and oxen satisfy ...ate domestic and personal necessities of ...ants, to whom the camel and horse are ...anions in their far wanderings. Gazelles ...are frequent the oases of the deserts, ...lion, panther, hyena, and jackal hunt ...

Monkeys, pheasants, and doves are ...e fertile districts, where flights of locusts ...e a sad devastation. Fish and turtle ...the coast. The noble breed of Arabian ...been cultivated for several thousand ...the most characteristic of all animals in ...dia, is the camel, which has been both ...nd justly styled 'the ship of the desert.' ...regarded as an Arabian animal, for it ...proved that it is not a native of Africa, ...ted from the peninsula with its master. ...e not found among the figures of animals ...ient Egyptian paintings on walls, nor ...ear to have been known to the Cartha-...The breed of Oman is celebrated for its ... swiftness. Among the minerals of A. ...tioned—iron, copper, lead, coal, basalt, ...tum, and the precious stones, emerald, ...e, and onyx. Pearls are found in the ...

...nteresting features of the peninsula ... ancient and peculiar population. ...is of medium stature, muscular make, ...complexion. Earnestness and lofty pride ...f his glowing eyes; by nature he is ...witted, lively, and passionately fond of ...urage, temperance, hospitality, and good ...his leading virtues; but these are often ... a spirit of sanguinary revenge and ...His wife keeps the house and educates ...n. The Arab cannot conceive a higher ... the birth of a camel or a foal, or that his verses should be honoured with the applause of his tribe.

Arabian life is either *nomadic* or *settled*. The wandering tribes, or Bedouins, are well known to entertain very loose notions of the rights of property. The located tribes, styled Hadesi and Fellahs, are despised by the Bedouin, who scorns to be tied down to the soil, even where such bondage might make him wealthy. As Ritter in his Comparative Geography observes—Arabia 'is the anti-industrial central point in the world;' for on every side, branching out to the east or west, we find industry making progress, while here centuries pass away without any improvement save what has been introduced, almost compulsorily, by foreigners. The trade carried on by exports of coffee, dates, figs, spices, and drugs, though still considerable, is said to be only a shadow of the old commerce which existed before the circumnavigation of Africa, or when Aden was in its prime and the Red Sea was the great commercial route. A. has few manufactures, but carries on a transit-trade in foreign fabrics, besides importing these to some extent for its own necessities. Few nations have approached so near as the Arabs to the condition of standing still in a moral and social point of view. Considering how little progress has been made, it is remarkable that a greater degeneracy has not taken place. Even in the desert the children are taught to read, write, and calculate; and in the towns, education to a certain degree is general. The division of the people into so many tribes is a barrier to everything like a great national improvement; indeed, the word national can hardly be properly applied to the Arabs. It would require a series of extraordinary events to develop afresh that terrible unity which Mohammed gave A. for a time. The government is patriarchal, and the chief men of the various tribes have the title of Emir, Sheik, or Imaum. Their function appears limited to leading the troops in the time of war, to levying tribute, and to the administration of justice. A spirit of liberty in the people moderates the authority of their chieftains; but instances of extreme despotism have not been unfrequent both in early and modern times.

To number all the distinct states of A. would be impossible in the present state of our knowledge; but the seven great divisions are those which we have enumerated. Of these the most important at present is Nedjed, a state which, while under Wahabite fanaticism it rose rapidly into leading power, and seemed for a time to wane, yet in 1863, secured, by the reduction of the town Oneyzah, and the adhesion of Oman, its own pre-eminence. Yemen possesses two very important commercial towns, Mocha and Lohcia, situated on the coast of the Red Sea; Oman has of late made considerable advances in civilisation. It forms to some extent an exception to the general lack of manufacturing activity exhibited by the Arabians, having manufactures of silk and cotton turbans, sashes, canvas, arms, gunpowder, &c. The Imaum of Muscat formerly claimed authority over the whole of Oman, the islands in the Persian Gulf, a portion of the Persian coast, and a vast extent of territory on the east coast of Africa, including some valuable islands. Rostak is another large town inland from Muscat. The district or division of Hedjaz contains the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, with their seaports, Jiddah and Yembo (q. v.).

The History of Arabia, before the time of Mohammed, is involved in mystery, and has little interest, on account of its want of connection with the world's general progress. The aborigines of A. were probably Cushites, most of whom, on account of the hostile immigration of certain Semitic races,

descended from Joktan, grandson of Shem, passed over into Abyssinia. A few, however, remained, who inhabited the western coasts. Subsequently, another Semitic race, descended from Abraham, settled in the land. The oldest Arabian tribes are now extinct, and only a traditional memory even of their names exists; but the Semitic chiefs, Joktan or Kahtan, and Ishmael, are generally considered to be the fathers of the present inhabitants. The descendants of the former are the pure Arabs; those of the latter are held to be only Arabicised. The princes of A. belong wholly to the first. A great-grandson of Joktan, Himzar or Homeir, inaugurated a dynasty—the Himyarides or Homeritæ—which ruled in Yemen for upwards of 2000 years. This was a prosperous time. The Arabs of Yemen, and partly those of the desert, dwelt in towns and cultivated the soil; carried on commerce with the East Indies, Persia, Syria, and Abyssinia, in the last of which countries they planted numerous colonies. The rest of the people, however, lived nomadically, as now. Bravely, for thousands of years, they maintained their freedom, their faith, and their peculiar customs against the assaults of the great military empires. Neither the Babylonian and Assyrian, nor the Egyptian and Persian kings could reduce the Arabs to a state of subjugation. Alexander had determined to try his power against A., when death interrupted his plans. Three centuries after Alexander's death, the Romans had extended their empire to the borders of A., and Trajan, in 107 A.D., penetrated far into the interior; but though the northern chieftains were brought into a formal subjection to the Empire, A. was not made a Roman province. The old Himyarides in Yemen stoutly maintained their independence, and an expedition against them in the time of Augustus completely failed. With the decay of the Roman empire, strife and lawlessness increased. The Arab races continued in a scattered, disorganised condition, and many hundreds of years passed away in intestine wars, during which the central highland region was the scene of those feuds of the Arab clans so copiously sung by the native poets. Christianity found an early entrance into A. The Jews, in considerable numbers, migrated into A. after the destruction of Jerusalem, and made many proselytes, especially in Yemen. This diversity of creeds in the peninsula was favourable to the introduction of the doctrine of Mohammed, which forms the grand epoch in Arabian history, and brings it into close connection with the general history of civilisation. Now, for the first time, the people of A. became united, and powerful enough to erect new empires in the three quarters of the world. The dominion of the Arabs, from the time of Mohammed to the fall of the Califat of Bagdad in 1258, or even to the expulsion of the Moors from Spain in 1492, is an important period in the history of civilisation. (See the articles MOORS, CALIFS.) But the movements which had such great effects on the destinies of other nations, produced but little change in the interior of A.; and, after the brilliant career of conquest was ended, the peninsula was left in an exhausted condition. Then followed the subjugation of Yemen by the Turks in the sixteenth century; their expulsion in the seventeenth century; the dominion of the Portuguese over Muscat, 1508–1659; the conquests of Oman and the temporary victories gained by the Persians at the close of the sixteenth century; and, lastly, the appearance of the Wahabis (q. v.) (1770), whose moral influence is still felt. The latter took an important part in the political affairs of A., but their progress was interrupted by Mehemet Ali, the Pasha of Egypt, who subjugated the coast-country of Hedjaz, with some parts of the coast of Yemen, and in 1818 gained a decisive advantage through victory of Ibrahim Pasha. The subsequent [illegible] of the year 1840, in Syria, compelled Mehemet [illegible] ever, to concentrate his forces, and to [illegible] claims upon the territories lying beyond the Red [illegible] See WAHABIS, in SUPP., Vol. X.

ARA'BIAN ARCHITECTURE. So [illegible] able is the connection between architecture [illegible] religion, that it may be stated as a general [illegible] that no sooner is a new religion engendered [illegible] it finds expression in new architectural [illegible] Of this we have an interesting instance in [illegible] simultaneous rise of Mohammedanism, and of [illegible] style of architecture commonly called Arabian [illegible] Moorish, but to which the name of Mohammedan [illegible] might far more appropriately be given, since [illegible] it has everywhere followed the religion of [illegible] Crescent, and that the Arabians previously had [illegible] architecture peculiar to themselves. It is [illegible] remarkable that the style of which we speak [illegible] to have arisen, as it were, undesignedly, or [illegible] events, without any conscious effort on the [illegible] the people amongst whom it first appeared [illegible] followers of the Prophet contemplated nothing [illegible] liar in their ecclesiastical structures; and [illegible] their mosques were built by Christian [illegible] from Constantinople. As a natural consequence [illegible] they resembled Byzantine churches, modified

Moorish Gateway.

countries of which the Moors successively [illegible] themselves by the features of the existing [illegible] Gradually the new and fanciful [illegible] known as Arabesque (q. v.) was added to [illegible] nised features of Greek and Roman [illegible] exclusion of animal figures, which their [illegible] of the very appearance of idolatry [illegible]

Mohammedan artists to the imitation of
ductions, varied by geometrical patterns
ons, of which the letters were woven
hich suited them for architectural uses.
original feature in their edifices, and
h they have continued to be marked
is the horse-shoe arch. The example
tion presents a form which, not-
its extreme beauty, has strangely
ly ever been imitated in the Christian
pointed arch, on the other hand, and
forms of the trefoil and quatrefoil
h there can be little doubt that we are
them to the rich invention of the
tects, have become so entirely Christian
ger associated in our minds with the
e prophet. It is said that the pointed
found in Mohammedan buildings so
D. (Parker's *Glossary of Architecture*),
earliest examples of its use in Chris-
ture belong to the 12th c. Moorish
probably reached its highest point of
in the Alhambra, with the characteris-
the English public have been made
means of the court which bears its
alace at Sydenham.

GULF. See RED SEA.

LANGUAGE AND LITERA-
garding the oldest literary culture of
, we possess but slight information.
stry at least must have had a very early
may be inferred from the natural
the inhabitants, who were character-
high spirit, courage, love of adventure,
in the glory of war. As far back as
me, the queen of Sheba (probably
was noted for her sententious sayings.
living under the patriarchal rule
sed everything that was favour-
of a simple and natural poetry.
and vivid feelings, and a rich,
operating upon the perils, the
d age confederate life they led in
wilderness, and amongst naked rocks,
fail to call forth a wild and vigorous
Before the time of Mohammed, the
celebrated poets who sang the feuds of
praises of heroes and fair women.
fairs at Mecca and Okadh, poetic
held before the people as at the
s; and the poems to which the prize
, were re-written in golden char-
suspended in the Kaaba at Mecca,
national temple which the Moham-
to have been built by Abraham, or
y are termed the *Moallakât* (i.e.,
ed'—from the honour conferred on
remarkable for their pathos, soaring
richness of imagery and phraseology,
unstrained spirit, and the glow of their
. Among the famous poets of this
are Nabegha, Asha, Shanfara whose
translated and published by De Sacy
mathie Arabe and, lastly, Kaab-ben-
lived to celebrate the praises of the
mmed.

st brilliant period of Arabic culture is
Mohammed himself inaugurated in the
new doctrines of faith and life, collected
tle by the first calif, Abubekr, were
published by Othman, the third calif.
adventurous spirit of the Arabs found
itement in the half-religious, half-mili-
of Mohammed, and, after his death,
m prepared them for their subsequent
an overwhelming torrent, they passed
over the neighbouring states, and in the short space of eighty years from the death of their prophet, had extended their dominion from Egypt to India, and from Lisbon to Samarcand. During this time nothing can be said of their culture and refinement. A fanatical desire of conquest prevailed. Gradually, however, by their intercourse with civilised nations, the Arabian conquerors were themselves subjected to the humanising influence of letters, and, after 749 A.D., or during the reign of the Abassides, literature, arts, and sciences appeared, and were generously fostered under the splendid sway, first of Almansor (754—775), and afterwards of the celebrated Harun-al-Raschid (786—808). Learned men were now invited from many countries, and remunerated for their labours with princely munificence; the works of the best Greek, Syriac, and old Persian writers were translated into Arabic, and spread abroad in numerous copies. The Calif Al-Mamun, who reigned from 813 to 833, offered to the Greek emperor five tons of gold and a perpetual treaty of peace, on condition that the philosopher Leo should be allowed for a time to give instruction to the former. There are few instances of such a price offered for lessons in philosophy. Under the sway of the same Al-Mamun, excellent schools were founded in Bagdad, Basra, Bokhara, and Kufa; while large libraries were collected at Alexandria, Bagdad, and Cairo. In Spain, the high school of Cordova rivalled the literary fame of Bagdad, and, generally, in the 10th c., the Arabs appeared everywhere as the preservers and distributers of knowledge. Pupils from France, and other European countries, then began to repair to Spain in great numbers, to study mathematics and medicine under the Arabs. There were fourteen academies, with many preparatory and upper schools in Spain, and five very considerable public libraries; that of the Calif Hakem containing, as is said, more than 600,000 volumes. This state of culture, when compared with that prevalent before Mohammed, shews a rapidity of progress in knowledge almost as remarkable as the career of Arabian conquest.

In geography, history, philosophy, medicine, physics, and mathematics, the Arabians rendered important services to science; and the Arabic words still employed in science—such as algebra, alcohol, azimuth, *zenith*, nadir, with many names of stars, &c.—remain as indications of their influence on the early intellectual culture of Europe. But geography owes most to them during the middle ages. In Africa and Asia, the boundaries of geographical science were extended, and the old Arab treatises on geography and works of travels in several countries by Abulfeda, Edrisi, Leo Africanus, Ibn Batuta, Ibn Foslan, Ibn Johair, Albirúni the astronomer, and others, are still interesting and valuable.

History was also studiously cultivated. The oldest Arabic historian of whom we know is Mohammed-al-Kelbi (died in 819). About the same period, however, flourished several other historians. After the dawn of the 10th c., history became a favourite study of the Arabs. The first who attempted a universal survey of the subject were Masudi, Tabari, Hamza of Ispahan, and Eutychius, the Christian patriarch of Alexandria. Masudi's work is entitled *Meadows of Gold and Mines of Gems*. These were followed by Abulfaraj and George Elmakin (both Christians), Abulfeda, and others. Nuvairi wrote a *History of Sicily under the Government of the Arabs*. Various sections of Arabic histories relating to the Crusades have been translated into French. On the dominion of the Arabs in Spain, several works were written by Abul-Kasem of Cordova (died in 1139), Temini,

and others. For extended notices we may refer the student of Arabic Literature to the translations by Quatremere and others; but especially to the *Encyklopädischen Übersicht der Wissenschaften des Orients*, by Von Hammer (2 vols. Leip. 1804).

Arabian theology and jurisprudence are intimately connected, and both founded on the Koran; but are by no means so simple and uniform as is generally supposed. Speculation first began to prevail during the Ommaiade dynasty, and the Aristotelian philosophy to be studied by the Arabs. As a consequence, the vague statements of the Koran were soon variously interpreted, and a host of sects gradually arose. Of these, four only are regarded as orthodox, leaving not less than seventy-two heretical, whose discordant tenets are stated in the work of Sharistani (edited by Cureton, London, 1842). The four orthodox sects are: the Hanefites, who do not reject tradition, but subordinate it to rationalism; the Shafites, who entirely refuse the aids of reason and philosophy in their treatment of theology; the Kambalites and the Malechites, who allow speculation on points where there is no tradition. The collection of traditions known as the *Sunna* gives an account of the sayings and doings of Mohammed, and, though pedantic in its details, is in substance more valuable than the Koran. The interpretation of the Koran constitutes the principal part of education in theological jurisprudence. The most celebrated of the commentators are Samakhshari and Baidhawi. The conquest of Algiers has rendered the study of Arabic or Mohammedan law indispensable to the French. The result is, that several most important works on that subject have appeared of late from the Paris press, such as *Précis de Jurisprudence Musulmane, selon le Rite Maléchite par Khalil-Ibn-Ishak* (translated by Perron, Paris, 1848), and *Législation Musulmane Sunnite, Rite Hanéfi* (Paris, 1848).

Arabian philosophy, which was of Grecian origin, held the same relation to the Koran as the Scholasticism of the middle ages did to the Christian Scriptures—that is, it was regarded as the servant of faith. The chief study of the Arabs was the writings of Aristotle, who became known in Spain, and subsequently in all Western Europe, through translations from Arabic into Latin; though the Arabs themselves only knew the Greek philosopher in translations made during the time of the Abassides. Especial attention was paid to logic and metaphysics. The most distinguished of their philosophical writers are: Alkendi of Basra, who flourished about the beginning of the 9th c.; Alfarabi, who wrote a work on First Principles in 954; Avicenna (died 1036), who combined the study of logic and metaphysics with that of medicine, and made considerable progress in chemistry, nosology, and medical botany; Ibn-Yahya, who acquired a high reputation as an original thinker; Alghazali (died 1111), who wrote a book entitled *The Destruction of all Idolatrous Philosophical Systems*; Abubekr-ibn-Tofail (died 1190), who taught in his philosophical novel *Hai-ebn-Yokdan* (edited by Pococke, Oxford, 1671) the development of men from animals; and his pupil, Averrhoes, greatly esteemed as an expositor of Aristotle. For an account of these men and their systems, see *Sur les Ecoles Philosophiques chez les Arabes*, &c., by Schmölders (Paris, 1842), and Ritter's *Über unsere Kenntniss der Arab. Philosophie* (Gött. 1844).

Many of these illustrious Arabian philosophers were also physicians. The great skill which the Arabs acquired in their knowledge of the uses and properties of medicinal herbs, is traced by Humboldt to their geographical position. The southern part of Arabia is characterised by the highly developed vital force pervading vegetation, by which an a aromatic and balsamic juices is yielded various beneficial and deleterious sub attention of the people must early have to the natural products of their native s brought as articles of commerce fr coasts of Malabar, Ceylon, and Hence arose the wish to disti one another these precious which were so important to &c. . . . . The science of with reference to its sc tially a creation of the Arabs, to and, at the same time, one of the richest knowledge—that of the Indian physicians early opened. Chemical pharmacy (see was created by the Arabs, whilst to them due the first official prescriptions reg preparation and admixture of different agents—the dispensing recipes of the These were subsequently diffused over Europe by the School of Salerno' (E vol. ii. p. 581, Bohn's translation). *materia medica* naturally led to b try. For three centuries—from t —a rich scientific culture prevailed philosophy and medicine sprung up Bagdad, Ispahan, Firuzabad, Bokhara, Alexandria, Cordova, &c. In all de medical science a great advance was in anatomy. The reason of this ex the fact, that the Koran forbids the bodies. The most famous writers on Aharun, Alkendi, Avicenna (q. v.), wh *Canon of Medicine*, for a long time th book on the subject; Ali-ben-Abbas Soleiman, Abulkasem, Averrhoes (q. v.) a complete system of medicine: Ali-ben

In mathematics, the Arabs de by the introduction of the notation now in use, of the chord (in trigonometry), and of a application of algebra. Astronomy studied in the famous schools and Bagdad and Cordova. Alzahan wr Nassireddin translated the Eleme Jeber-ben-Afla furnished a comment nometry of Ptolemy, &c. The *Almag* Astronomy by Ptolemy, was translate by Alhazi and Sergius as early as 812 c., Albaten observed the advance of th apsides in the earth's orbit; al-Batani, the obliquity of the wrote a theory of the planets; and on astronomical instruments.

Besides these advances in the solid knowledge, the genius of the Ar flowered into poetry. N rous poe all lands where the chi f the des their irresistible fa ir not like the rude, a le patriarchal people; in gradu prevailing culture, and took, epoch of Arabian civilisation. Motenebbi, Abul-Ala, and reputation for their delicate eulogy of Mohammed; Hamz introduce novels in verse under the title of *Makâm* which was brought to perfe for his ingenious allegori the Flowers.' Besides th fantastic prose literature which the craving for the characteristic of the restless, was richly gratified. Roman

The most famous of these are: *The* [illegible] *Entertainments* (q. v.), *The Exploits of* [illegible] *oits of the Champions*, and *The Exploits* [illegible]. In fact, with the exception of the [illegible] was no sort of poetry which the Arabs attempt. The effect of this universality [illegible] in Arabic literature was, that it exercised [illegible] influence on modern European poetry. [illegible] of fays, charms, sorceries, and the whole [illegible] chinery of enchantment passed into the [illegible] West. During the middle ages of [illegible] wy, several of the most popular and [illegible] books were of Arabic origin; such [illegible] *Wise Masters*, and *The Fables of* [illegible] ugh the Arabians themselves borrowed [illegible] the Persian stories and the Greek

[illegible] culture of the early ages of Moham- presents a strong contrast to the ignor- [illegible]h now prevails among the Arabs. The [illegible]aticism of the Turks nipped the blooming [illegible] East; sunk in stupid indolence, [illegible]; in apathetic resignation their [illegible] return to higher modes of life. [illegible] furnishes now nothing worthy of notice. [illegible] spends itself principally in commentaries [illegible], in scholastic discussions on the subject- [illegible] dogmatics and jurisprudence, and in [illegible]ammatical disquisitions concerning the old [illegible]ech, generally acute and subtle, but always [illegible]le and unenlivening. The swift and mobile East has departed, and pedantic dul- ed its place. There are 'Dryasdusts' [illegible] desert. A few modern writers have [illegible], with more or less success, to imitate [illegible] forms of thought and sentiment. Of these [illegible]tioned Michael Sabbagh of Syria (*La* [illegible]*agère*, Arabic and French, Paris, [illegible]ik, Refaa of Cairo (*The Broken Lyre*, [illegible]7; *Manners and Customs of the Euro-* [illegible]ro, 1834; *Travels in France*, Cairo, 1825); [illegible]-Effendi, of Beirut, who wrote the critical [illegible]s in De Sacy's edition of Hariri (*Epistola* [illegible]ripsiæ, 1848).

[illegible]bic also possesses a Christian and Jewish [illegible] which, however, is chiefly ecclesiastical. [illegible]al ornaments are Eutychius, Elmakin, [illegible]faraj. Translations of the Old Testa- [illegible] made not from the Hebrew, but from [illegible]agint, or from Latin versions. In the [illegible]s, the Spanish Jews employed Arabic for [illegible]al compositions; and several of the most [illegible] works of Mose's Maimonides, &c., were written in that tongue.

[illegible]bic *language*, it has been remarked, is at *rich* and *poor*. It is necessarily destitute of [illegible]le words describing those ideas and objects [illegible]y civilisation can develop or produce; but, [illegible]er hand, the rich and nimble fancy of the [illegible] has multiplied, to an almost incredible [illegible] synonyms of their desert-tongue, so that [illegible]ases several hundreds of expressions are same thing. The Arabic belongs to the [illegible]mitic family of languages, among which [illegible]gnished for its antiquity and soft flexible [illegible] is divided into two dialects—a northern [illegible]ern. The former, through the instru- [illegible] of the Koran, became the predominant [illegible] literature and commerce throughout the [illegible]nt of the Arabian dominions; the latter, [illegible] Himyaritc, although in all probability [illegible] of the Ethiopic language and writing, is [illegible]vet only by a few inscriptions, &c. The [illegible]bic grammarian is Abul-Aswad-al-Duli, [illegible]d under the fourth calif, Ali. The [illegible]anced the prosody and metre of the Arabian poets to a system, was Khalil-ben-Ahmed- al-Ferahidi of Basra. Al-Jauhari, who died in 1009 A.D., drew up a dictionary of the pure Arabic speech, which he entitled *Al-Sihah* ('Purity'), and which is held in high estimation to this day. Mohammed-ben- Yakub-al-Firuzabadi, who died in 1414, was the author of an Arabic Thesaurus, entitled *Al-Kamus* ('The Ocean'), which is the best lexicon in the language, and has consequently been translated into Persian and Turkish. Jordahani has explained, in alphabetical order, the meaning of the technical terms used in Arabic art and science. His work was published by Flügel (Leip. 1845), under the title of *Definitiones*. Meidani made a large collection of Arabic 'sawa,' apophthegms, &c., which was published by Freytag, Bonn, 1838. Through the conquests of the Arabs in Sicily and Spain, their language became known in Europe; but notwith- standing the numerous traces of its influence in various European tongues, it became forgotten after the expulsion of the Moors from Spain. The first European scholars who earnestly took up the subject were the Dutch, in the 17th c.; after them, the Germans, French, and English. It is now, how- ever, beginning to be considered a necessary part of a learned theological education. The modern Arabic of the inhabitants is substantially the same as that of the Koran, but the lapse of time has gradually introduced changes in the grammatical forms of the language, similar to those which have occurred in other languages. The purest Arabic is said to be spoken in Yemen, or *Arabia Felix*. With the exception of the Roman characters, the Arabic have been more widely diffused than those of any other tongue on the face of the earth. (See Möller's *Oriental Palæography*, Eisleben, 1844, &c.)

Arabic Writing.—Like all Semitic writing, this proceeds from right to left. It is borrowed from the old Syriac, and was probably introduced into Arabia by Christian missionaries about the time of Mohammed. In its oldest form it is called Kufic, from the town of Kufa, on the Euphrates, where the transcription of the Koran was busily carried on. Its characters are rude and coarse, and it has particular symbols for only sixteen of the twenty-eight Arabic consonants. This writing, nevertheless, continued to be employed for 300 years, and for coins and inscriptions even later; but in the 10th c. it was displaced for common purposes by a current hand- writing, the *Neskhi*, introduced by Ebn Mokla. This is the character still in use. In it, the consonants which resemble each other are distinguished by points, and the vowels by strokes over and under the line.

ARABIAN NIGHTS' ENTERTAINMENTS, a collection of Oriental tales, first made known to Europe by Antony Galland, a French orientalist, under the title of *The Thousand and One Nights, Arabian Stories, Translated into French*. They were published at Paris, in 12 volumes 12mo, from 1704 till 1717, and were received by many as the production of the genius of the translator himself, rather than the collection of *an unknown Arabian author*, as Galland had stated in his dedication. Oriental scholars did not hesitate at first to declare against their authen- ticity, and denounce them as forgeries. Having taken only an obscure place in the literature of the East, and their style unfitting them from being classed among models of eloquence or taste - having no object of a religious, moral, or philosophical kind in view, while the manners and customs delineated in them were different from all received ideas of those of the Moslem nations - their success took the critics by surprise. The work became highly esteemed by the public; it filled Europe with its fame; it had abundance of readers, and no lack of

editors. Few books have been translated into so many different languages, and given delight to so large a number of readers. It may be said that, in these Oriental tales, there has sprung up a new branch of literature, for their influence on the literature of the present day is easily discernible. Here are found, depicted with much simplicity and great effect, the scenes of the town-life of the Moslem. The prowess of the Arab knight, his passion for adventure, his dexterity, his love and his revenge, the craft of his wives, the hypocrisy of his priests, and the corruptibility of his judges, are all dramatically delineated—far more vividly represented, in fact, than is possible in a book of travels; while gilded palaces, charming women, lovely gardens, and exquisite repasts captivate the senses of the reader, and transport him to the land of wonder and enjoyment. Besides entertaining the mind with the kaleidoscopic wonders of a teeming and luxurious fancy, which is their most obvious merit, they present a treasure of instruction upon life in general, and Oriental life in particular. And this is undeniable, notwithstanding the fact, that the aspects of society they depict are far from standing high in the social scale, either as to civilisation or morality. In them no story is to be found that will rank in morality with the story of Joseph and his brethren, simply because the Moslem faith will not admit of that, any more than the decline of Arab civilisation at the time the tales must have been originally promulgated. Indeed, the first translator, having a conviction of a demoralising tendency of this kind, avoided giving several objectionable parts of some of the stories. The thread of the narrative in these entertainments is generally simple and clear, often leading into the departments of fable, and occasionally into the regions of the supernatural and the domains of popular superstition. The tales, even when long, are not tiresome; for they consist of shorter stories branching off from the main one, or rather encased within it, the smaller within the larger, and perhaps a smaller within that, like the little boxes used by conjurors.

For many years all doubt as to the authenticity of the *Thousand and One Nights* has been dispelled. Several MS. copies have been found, and no less than four editions of the Arabic text have been published. A more thorough acquaintance with medieval and modern Arab life has proven the genuineness of the stories, and the truthfulness of their general representation of the mind of the Moslem. In them there are evident signs of a declension from a refined and superior civilisation; the marvellous and supernatural is predominant; despotism in all its forms is manifest; and a prevalent falsity and insincerity of character visible, not only in the narrative, but in the tone of common conversation, replete as it is with oaths and asseverations.

The origin of the work—where and by whom written—is still involved in mystery. According to some, the tales are susceptible of a threefold division. The most beautiful, and in fancy the richest, appear to have come from India, the cradle of story and fable; the tender and often sentimental love tales seem of Persian origin; while the masterly pictures of life, and the witty anecdotes, claim to be the product of Arabia. Throughout, however, everything is conformable to the character and customs of the town population of Arabia, and to the Mohammedan faith. The Baron de Sacy, in 1829, thus stated his opinion on these points. Speaking of the work he says: 'It appears to me that it was originally written in Syria, and in the vulgar dialect; that it was never completed by its author; that, subsequently, imitators endeavoured to perfect the work, either by the insertion of novels already known, but which formed no part of the
by composing some themselve
talent, whence arise the great vari
among the different MSS. of the co
inserted tales were added at differe
perhaps in different countries, but chief
and, lastly, that the only thing wh
affirmed, with much appearance of
regard to the time when the work
is—that it is not very old, as
but still that, when it was b
of tobacco and coffee was unknown
of either is made in the work.'

Galland's French edition was speedil
into all the languages of Europe; editi
edition with great rapidity, some of
enlargements, and others with modifica
terly, a Dr Scott gave a superior
'carefully revised, and occasiona
the Arabic.' At length a new
from the Arabic, with copious
artistic embellishments, appeared
the work of Edward William L
whose long residence in Egypt
acquire so thorough a knowledge of
manners, and customs of the Egyptia
furnished not only a superior vers
of notes embodying a portraiture of
life at once faithful and vivid.

The popularity of this wor
rise to hundreds of imitations.
the French are—*Les Mille et Un*
Quart d'Heures, and the *Contes*
perhaps the best of the English imita
of the Genii, by Sir Charles Morell;
of the German appears to be on
Perso-Arabic, the *Faraj bád el*
Sorrow), a popular work, and re

ARABIAN NUMERALS or CI
characters 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9.
should be styled Hindu or Indian
Arabs borrowed them, along wi
of notation, from the Hindu
account, Gerbert (afterwards Sylv
the use of them from the Moors i
c.; others think it more probable
Pisa (see ALGEBRA) first introduced
East into Italy about 1202. Yet th
was long in making its way, and wa
before the invention of printing.
tinued to be kept in Roman n
16th c. See NUMERALS and N

ARABIAN SEA, a
the *Red Sea*, that bay
lies between India on the e
west. Its northern bound
while its natural and convenient
is a line drawn from Cape Co
to Cape Guardafui in Africa, and
along the coast to the Strait o
In E. long. it extends from 43° 32
Mandeb, to 77° 30' at Cape Comorin;
from 8° 5' at Cape Comorin, to abo
south-west point of Beloo
two great arms, the Red Sea
Gulf, it stretches far both north
former it is, since the opening o
1869, connected with the Medi
this last aspect the A. S. long o
minent place in the commerce of th
which, after having lost it for more
through the doubling of the Cape o
1497, it has lately in a great
through the enterprise of Englis
tian government, and the perse

y of navigation, also, the A. S. proper ititled to notice. It was along its s that Nearchus, the admiral of Macedon, conducted the first well oyage, on a large scale, of exploration and across it the trade-winds, blow- from north-east and south-west, were the Greeks of Egypt, without either as, about the commencement of the (See SUEZ CANAL, in SUEZ.)

is the essential principle of gum- and is obtained pure by adding lution of gum-arabic in water, when itated in white flocculi.

or ARRACAN, a city of British ill lately, the capital of the province of It is situated about 50 miles from 0° 42' N., and long. 93° 21' E. Lying alley which, on almost every side, is la, A. is subject to febrile disease in Previous to the first Burmese war— ich brought it under British dominion ave contained 18,000 houses; while n interval of less than ten years, its epresented as having been only 8000 decrease being, in a considerable sequence of its having ceased to be rnment. A. is now, in fact, interest- ts old associations. The most striking tiquity is its dilapidated fort, consist- centric walls such as only a powerful e constructed. Beyond the limits, too, the town, as a whole, appears to have d by a circumvallation of 9 miles in ed partly of steep and rugged emi- ly of artificial works. These defences, eved to be several centuries old, the by assault on 1st April 1825.

or ARRACAN, the most northern tish Burmah, is bounded on the N. on the E. by Ava, on the S. by Pegu, by the Bay of Bengal. It extends 18° to 21° 33', and in E. long from 0'. Its extreme length is 290 miles; , from 90 miles at the N., gradually ards the S., so as to yield an average han 45. The area is 18,530 sq. miles. ntains, nearly parallel with the line ghest point 7000 feet above the sea- A. from Pegu and Upper Burmah, northern portion of A. is alluvial; but hilly, difficult of access, and covered he province is divided into three dis- or Arracan proper, Sandoway, and British conquest of the province has eficial in every way. In 1825–1826, was only about 100,000; in 1831, it was g an increase of 73 per cent. in 5 or 9, it had increased to 248,000; before wards of 321,000; and in the returns tated to be 461,136, or 25 months to . With these results the face of the he state of trade fully correspond. onstitute the chief articles of exporta- s are tobacco, sugar, wood, oil, hides and horns, elephants' teeth, dried birds'-nests. The imports consist of s, muslins, cutlery, and glass. seen various indications of a volcanic In the islands of Ramree and Cheduba rings of muddy water which emit vapour and flame to the height of several hundred feet. Of the mineral resources very little is known. Iron-ore has been found, but not in such quantity and quality as to come into profitable competition with British iron. Coal also exists, which is understood to be good, but, from whatever cause, it has not been extensively worked. There are no lakes in the province, nor are there any rivers of much importance, though the Aeng, which appears to be the most available among them, is said to be navigable during spring-tides to 45 miles from its mouth.

Two severe earthquakes have taken rely in 1763 and 1833—the latter un, in several places, muddy water of ll, and also, on one particular spot,

ARACARI, or ARICARI (*Pteroglossus*), a genus of birds closely allied to the Toucans (see TOUCAN), and differing from them chiefly in the somewhat smaller bill, which is not so thick as the head. They are generally also of smaller size, and the prevailing colour of their plumage is green, often varied with brilliant red and yellow. Like the toucans, they are natives of the warm parts of South America.

ARACEÆ. See AROID.

ARACHIS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Papilionaceæ*, natives of the warm parts of America, of which, until recently, the only known species was the *A. hypogæa*, sometimes called the underground kidney-bean, and more frequently the ground-nut. It also receives the names of earth-nut, American earth-nut, and mandubi. It is an annual plant, with hairy pinnate

Arachis hypogæa.

leaves, which have four leaflets. The flowers are yellow, the standard veined with red. After flowering, the flower-stalks elongate and bend towards the earth, into which the pods penetrate, ripening underground. The pods have a lining of a sort of net-work, and generally contain two, three, or four seeds, which are about the size of a hazel-nut, of a sweet taste, with a little of the flavour which belongs to most kinds of pulse. This plant is now cultivated in all the warm regions of the globe, and its usefulness is such that its cultivation is likely to extend. It was introduced from Peru into Spain, and thence

France. It succeeds in favourable situations of France, where it is sown after ho ht to be over, and yields fold. Its cultivation is

so general in the western parts of Africa, and even in the interior, that doubts have been therefore entertained of its American origin, of which, however, the most eminent botanists seem to be quite satisfied. The seeds are sometimes eaten raw, but more generally boiled or roasted. In New Spain, and in some parts of Africa, they form one of the principal articles of food; but the importance of the plant is chiefly owing to the fixed oil contained in them, which is used for the same purposes as olive or almond oil, and is quite equal to olive oil either for lamps or for the table. This oil is also much used in Spain in the manufacture of soap and of chocolate. A bushel of the seeds yields one gallon of oil, when expressed cold; if heat is applied, the quantity is greater, but the quality inferior. It has become a considerable article of commerce. The *A. hypogæa* delights in a light and sandy, but at the same time fertile, soil. The seeds are dug up as roots or tubers usually are. The root has qualities resembling those of liquorice, for which it is sometimes used. The herbage is good food for cattle. Several new species of this genus have been discovered in Brazil.

ARA'CHNIDA, or **ARACHNIDES** (from the Gr. *arachne*, a spider), a class of articulated animals, commonly regarded as intermediate between insects and crustacea. They were included by Linnæus amongst insects, and placed in the order *Aptera*. Like the crustacea, they have the head and thorax united into one piece, but they differ from them and from insects in having simple eyes, and in the absence of proper antennæ, instead of which many of them are provided with a sort of antennal claws called *cheliceræ*. These and other organs connected with a complex mouth, disappear, however, in some of the lower kinds, which have merely a sort of proboscis for suction. Some of them breathe by means of pulmonary cavities; others by tracheæ, like insects; and upon this difference is founded the primary division of the class into two orders —*Pulmonaria* and *Trachearia*. Spiders and scorpions belong to the first of these orders, and mites, ticks, &c. (*Acari*) to the second. Some of the A. inhabit water, but their mode of respiration is that of terrestrial animals; and they seem to carry air with them by means of the hair which covers their bodies. The sexes are distinct. They are oviparous. They have two or more eyes, very frequently eight; and the relative position of these affords marks for distinction of genera. They have generally eight legs, but some have only six. With the exception of the acari, they are solitary in their mode of life, and most of them prey upon insects, of which, however, in general, they only suck the blood. Some of the lower kinds are parasitic upon insects, and a few live on decaying animal and vegetable substances. (See *Acarus*, Mite, Scorpion, Spider, and Tick.)

Mygale fodiens.

ARA'CHNOID MEMBRANE, one of the three coverings of the brain and spinal cord, is a thin, glistening, serous membrane, which, by its parietal layer, adheres inseparably to the dura-mater on its outer side, and more loosely to the pia-mater which is between it and the brain substance. Between the pia-mater and the A. M. in some situations there are considerable intervals (sub-arachnoi they are filled with a fluid named cereb presence of which is necessary to the n of the nervous centres. See CEREBR —PIA-MATER.

ARAD, a town in the district of A Hungary. It is situated on the right Marosh, an affluent of the Theiss, and Old A., to distinguish it from New A built on the opposite side of the ri population (1869) of 32,725, inclu are very wealthy. It carries on tobacco, &c., and was at one cattle-market in Hungary, and inferior to Pesth and Debreczin. c., it was often captured, and at by the Turks. Its new fortifications, 1763, made A. an important position in t tionary war of 1849, when it was occupi considerable time by the Austrian general capitulated here in July 1849. Kossuth issued his proclamation of in which he expressed in imp despair of the Hungarian caus After the catastrophe of Világo- August, A. was surrendered to the the treachery of Görgey.

NEW A., a town in the Banat of Temesv some 4600 inhabitants, including many who are the principal persons in the pro district or province of A. has an area square miles, and contains 304,713 inhabi eastern district is occupied by a bra the Carpathian mountains, which co quarries, and mines of copper and iron; level, and produces wheat, maize, ties of wine, as well as abundan inhabitants are chiefly Wallachians.

ARÆO'METER. See AREOMETER.

A'RAFAT, MOUNT, or *Jebel-er-'rahm* tain of Mercy'), is a granite hill about S.E. of Mecca, which is believed by medans to be the spot where Adam, the angel Gabriel, met again his wife punitive separation of 200 years, on ac disobedience in Paradise. It is not a high, but its circuit is a mile and importance since the time of from its being the scene of a ye faithful who visit Mecca. Bu nessed the procession of 1814, than 70,000 people were present, and forty different languages were spoken. part of the religious ceremony of this sermon, the hearing of which entitles and privileges of a Hadji.

A'RAGO, DOMINIQUE, a cele astronomer and natural philosop February 26, 1786, at Est near the department of the E n Pyre early age of seventeen, he l School at Paris, where vivid intelligence he exhausted all questions of Legendre, excited every one. In 1804, he became Observatory at Paris. Two years was engaged, with Biot and others, government, to carry out the measu of the meridian, which had be Delambre and Méchain. A. and it from Barcelona to the Bale *savans* established themselves Mount Galatza, one of the h branch of the Eastern Pyr for many months, commun

aish collaborateurs, across the Mediterranean
ttle isle of Iviça, though many a night the
empests destroyed their hut along with the
f weeks. Visitors they had none, except two
an monks, who were wont to come up and
portion of the evening in converse with them.
. had completed his calculations, Biot had
to France, and war had broken out betwixt
nations. A. was now held to be a spy; his
ere interrupted; and with great difficulty he
d in making his escape to Majorca, where
tarily imprisoned himself in the citadel
r, near Palma. At last he obtained his
n condition of proceeding to Algiers, which
but was captured, on his return to France,
anish cruiser, and sent to the hulks at

He was, however, liberated after a time,
d once more for France; but almost as he
ring the port of Marseille, a tempest arose
ove the vessel across the Mediterranean all
to Algiers. The former dey, to whose
he had owed his liberation from the hulks,
l; his successor, a ferocious tyrant, placed
is of slaves, and intended to employ him
ers. After some time, he was released at
of the French consul, and, narrowly
another capture by an English frigate,
und his way to Marseille in July 1809. As
l for his suffering in the cause of science, the
y of Sciences suspended its standing rules in
ur; and though only twenty-three years of
ras elected member in the place of Lalande,
just died, and was appointed Professor of
al Mathematics in the Polytechnic School.
rds, his attention was devoted more to
ty, magnetism, galvanism, and the polarisa-
light. In 1811, he read a paper to the
e, which may be considered the foundation
tic polarisation.' In 1812, he commenced
ordinary course of lectures on astronomy,
as fascinated all Paris – the savans, by their
rigour and solidity; the many, by their
y of style. In 1816, along with Gay
A. established the *Annales de Chimie
Physique*, and confirmed the truth of the
ry theory of light. In the same year he
England for the first time, and made the
ance of various persons distinguished in
especially Dr Thomas Young. In 1818
his *Recueil d'Observations géodésiques,
siques, et physiques*. In 1820, he turned his
d inventive genius into a new channel, and
veral important discoveries in electro-
m. Oersted had shown that a magnetic
ras deflected by a voltaic current passing
wire. A. pursued the investigation, and
at not only a magnetic needle, but even non-
substances, such as rods of iron or steel,
subject to deflection also, exhibiting, during
n of the voltaic current, a positive magnetic
hich, however, ceased with the cessation of
nt. Some time after, he demonstrated that
copper, and other non-magnetic metals,
ved circularly, exert a noticeable influence
agnetic needle. For this discovery of the
ent of magnetism by rotation, he obtained,
the Copley Medal of the Royal Society of
; and in 1834, when he again visited Great
especial honours were paid to him by the
f science in Edinburgh and Glasgow. Four
vious to this second visit to Great Britain,
ceived the honour he most coveted – that of
ade Perpetual Secretary of the Academy.
while holding this office that he wrote his
loges of deceased members, the beauty of
as given him so high a place among French
s

prose-writers. As a politician, also, his career was remarkable. He was a keen republican, and took a prominent part in the July revolution (1830). In the following year he was elected by Perpignan as member of the Chamber of Deputies, where he occupied a position on the extreme left. In the February revolution of 1848, he was chosen a member of the provisional government, and appointed minister of war and marine. In this position he resisted the proposed measures of the Socialist party, regarding the constitution of the United States as the beau-ideal of democracy. His popularity in his own province was the means of preventing the discontented population of the East Pyrenees from proceeding to lawless and violent measures. On the question of the presidency, A. opposed Louis Napoleon, declared himself against the policy of the new ministry, and refused to take the oath of allegiance after the *coup d'état* of 1852. The emperor, in a letter, paid a high eulogium on his talents and virtues, and made a special exception in his case. A. died October 3, 1853. In his general character A. was sociable, energetic, and fond of fame. He was the intimate friend of Alexander von Humboldt.

ARAGO, JACQUES ÉTIENNE VICTOR, brother of the great savant, was born in 1790. In 1817 he accompanied the expedition, under Freycinet, in a voyage round the world. Afterwards, we find him engaged, first at Bourdeaux, and then at Toulouse, in several branches of light literature, industriously writing, in company with other scribes, a multitude of vaudevilles, besides publishing several poems and romances. In the year 1835, he undertook the management of the theatre at Rouen; but having become afflicted with blindness, he was compelled to resign this post in 1837. To his early voyage round the world, we owe two very pleasant books of travel: *Promenade autour du Monde* (Paris, 1838); *Souvenir d'un aveugle, Voyage autour du Monde* (Paris, 1838). In 1849, though deprived of sight, he formed a company of speculators; placed himself at the head of it, and departed for California, to search for gold on a large scale. His companions mutinied, and left him, deserted and disappointed, at Valparaiso. On his return, he published his painful experiences, under the title, *Voyage d'un aveugle en Californie et dans les Regions aurifères* (Paris, 1851). He died, January 1, 1855. A., ÉTIENNE, another brother of the astronomer, was born 1802, and is well known in France as a popular *feuilletonist* in the *Siècle*, and other journals. He held an appointment under the provisional government, as director-general of the post-office, in which he displayed great vigour, promptitude, and sense, and achieved several postal reforms; was elected member of the National Assembly; was compromised by the insurrection in June, and sentenced to exile for life. In 1859 he returned to France; and at the time of the Franco-Prussian war was mayor of Paris – an office which he resigned in November 1870. A. JEAN, another of the brothers A., born 1789, died 1836, was general of the republican army in Mexico, and wrote, in Spanish, a history of Mexico.

A'RAGON, a province in the north-east of Spain, situated between 40° 2 and 42° 54′ N. lat., and long. 2° 10′ W., and 0° 45′ E. Greatest length from north to south, 190 miles; breadth, 130. Area, 14,710 square miles. Pop. (1870) 928,718. It is bounded, N. by the Pyrenees, separating it from France; W., by Navarre, and Old and New Castile; S., by Valencia, and part of New Castile; and E., by Catalonia, and part of Valencia. The river Ebro, which descends from the northern heights of Old Castile, flows through the middle of A.

in a south-easterly direction, receiving numerous tributaries both from the lofty regions of the Pyrenees, and from the Sierras in the south; of the former, the principal are—the Noguera, which forms the boundary-line between Aragon and Catalonia, the Essera, and the Gallega; of the latter, the principal are—the Guadalope, the San Martin, and the Salon. The province is naturally divided into the level country, along the Ebro, and the northern mountainous district of Upper Aragon. The central plain is sterile, poorly supplied with water, and intersected by deep ravines (*barancos*). Agriculture is here confined to the raising of maize, vines, and olives; but on the sides of the Ebro, where water abounds, rice and other grains are abundantly produced; and in the valleys of Upper A., which are at once the most beautiful and fertile of all the Pyrenean valleys, we find a splendid vegetation, and a soil that enables the inhabitants, in spite of the wretchedness of their agriculture, to grow considerable quantities of wheat, rye, maize, barley, &c. The climate of the province is various; comparatively cool in the mountain-districts, but often very sultry on the plains. Spurs of the Pyrenees strike down into the province a long way. It is between these ridges that the rich valleys lie, some of them upwards of 20 miles long. The slopes of the hills are clothed with forests of oak, beech, and pine, and the felled timber is floated down the rivers into the Ebro, and thence down to Tortosa at its mouth. The minerals of the province are copper, lead, iron, salt, alum, saltpetre, coal, and amber. The manufactures are inconsiderable. A., peopled by a brave, active, enduring, but obstinate race, has frequently been the arena of sanguinary warfare. It early became a Roman province; and, on the fall of the Empire, passed into the hands of the West-Goths, but was conquered by the Moors in the beginning of the 8th c. The rulers of A., after it had been recovered from the Moors, and united with Catalonia (1137), became powerful; obtained possession of the Balearic Isles in 1213, of Sicily in 1282, of Sardinia in 1326, and of Naples in 1440. By the marriage of Ferdinand with Isabella, heiress of Castile, in 1469, the two states of A. and Castile were united, and formed the foundation of the great Spanish monarchy. After Ferdinand's death in 1516, the union of the states was made permanent. In the war with the French, 1808—9, Saragossa, the capital of A., was remarkable for its heroic defence under Palafox; and in recent Spanish wars, the people of A. have displayed the same courage which marked their conduct on that memorable occasion. Upper A. was on the side of the queen; but lower A. generally adhered to the party of Don Carlos. The province is now divided into three departments—Saragossa, Teruel, and Huesca. The chief towns are Saragossa, Calatayud, Huesca, and Teruel. See SARAGOSSA, &c.

ARAGUAY', a large river of Brazil, rising in S. lat. 18° 10' and W. long. 51° 30'. Like most of the considerable rivers of the country, it flows towards the N. After a course of about 1000 miles to San Joao, it there joins the Tocantins, which again, after a northerly course of 300 miles more, mingles its estuary with that of the Amazon round the Isle of Marajo. Like most of the rivers in this part of Brazil, the A. is of difficult navigation, being frequently interrupted by rapids.

ARAL, LAKE, next to the Caspian Sea, from which it is separated by the plateau of Ust-Urt, is the largest lake in the steppes of Asia. It lies in Independent Tatary, between 43° 42 and 46° 44' N. lat., and 58° 18' and 61° 46' E. long. It is fed by the river Sir (the ancient Jaxartes) on the N.E. side, and the Amu (or ancient Oxus) on the S.E. It is shallow, and has no ou[tlet] 117 feet above that of the Caspian, [and] that of the Black Sea. Like other [lakes] drained only by evaporation, it is brackish to the shallowness of its waters, navigation i[s] cult; but Russian steamers have been [on] it, and took part in the operations again[st] June 1873. The history of the Sea of A[ral] remarkable. Sir Henry Rawlinson and Yule have recently collected references [in] Greek, Latin, Arabic, and Persian writ[ers] established the fact that the area it [now] has been dry land twice within historica[l] Jaxartes and the Oxus then run [into] Sea of Aral to the Caspian. This [was] the Greco-Roman period, and again [in] and 14th centuries after Christ. Sir [H.] linson, in his address to the Royal G[eo.] Society in 1872, stated that the rest[oration] Oxus to its old bed was then under the sideration of the Russian governmen[t]. *ceedings of Royal Geographical Society*, No. 3, and vol. xvi. No. 4.

ARALIA, a genus of plants, the type of natural order *Araliaceæ*. This order is d[i]donous or exogenous, and consists of t[rees] and herbaceous plants, resembling the [Umbelliferæ] (q. v.) both in their general habit botanical characters, but differing [in] fruit, which is not *didymous* or form[s] separable carpels as in the *Umbelliferæ*. of the Araliaceæ consists of several one-[seeded] and is often succulent. The order con[tains] 160 known species, natives of tropical and cold climates, generally possessing and aromatic properties. Poisonous qual[ities] developed as in the *Umbelliferæ*. The many species affords good food for cattle are used for human food. The genus Ar[alia] tains a considerable number of species—[trees] and herbaceous plants. It has a [fruit] with 5 or 10 cells, crowned with t[he] *nudicaulis* is a native of the United a species of humble growth, having a [single] leaf with a trifid stalk and ovate ser[rate] the scape is shorter than the leaf. [The] to be equal in value to sarsaparilla [as a] and tonic. *A. racemosa*, *A. spinosa*, and *A.* also natives of North America, produce [a] gum resin. *A. spinosa* is a stimulant The berries, infused in wine or spirits, [are] in America as a cure for rheuma[tism] times called Toothache-tree: it [is] of Angelica-tree. It is a native [of] Virginia and Carolina, growing to [a] 12 feet, with a single stem, spreading [at] and trebly pinnate leaves and ovate [leaflets] very ornamental in a lawn. *A. polaris*, [a] southern island of New Zealand, and [in] abundance and luxuriance in Lord Islands, is described by Dr Hooker as a nificent plant,' a herbace[ous] 4-with large orbicular ma[ny]-flowers, presenting a very [peculiar] *edulis*, now called *Dimorphan[thus]* in China as a sudorific. Its [root] and pleasant when boiled; and [they] have an agreeable aromatic flavour. Japanese as carrots or parsnips Aralias abound in the warm valleys [of] The natives collect the leaves of mas[ses] cattle, for which purpose they are of country where grass for pasture is [in] use of this food gives a peculi[ar] Chinese rice paper has been cylinders of the pith of an [Aralia]

a species of Panax, is one of the most products of the order *Araliaceæ*. The roots of *Gunnera scabra*, or Panke, are ing, but its fleshy leaf-stalks are eaten e of rhubarb. It has been seen on the cliffs of Chiloe with leaves nearly eight meter, each plant with four or five of these leaves. It has been introduced into Britain, and to succeed well in the climate of Edin- The only representatives of this order in the flora are the Ivy (q. v.), and a small plant Tuberous Moschatel (*Adoxa moschatel-*

EVGENE, was born in 1704 at Ramsgill, e. His father was a gardener, and could keep A. at school only for a short time; while assisting his father, he contrived his passion for learning. At an early his life he married, and became a ster, first in Netherdale, and afterwards reborough, where he continued to reside . In the town of Knaresborough lived Clarke, a shoemaker, and an intimate e of A.'s. On one occasion Clarke to purchase a quantity of valuable goods, easily obtained on credit; but to the of everybody, he soon after disappeared, and of him could be discovered. Suspicion n A., not as Clarke's murderer, but as his e in swindling the public. His garden ched, and in it was found a portion of the h Clarke had purchased. A. was arrested , but acquitted for want of evidence. He his wife at Knaresborough, and went to and other parts of England, in his capacity master; and in spite of his nomadic mode ntrived to acquire a knowledge of botany, , Chaldee, Arabic, Welsh, and Irish, and ming a great etymological work, to be 'A Comparative Lexicon of the English, rock, Hebrew, and Celtic languages,' when suddenly dragged away from his ushership Academy, in Norfolk, and committed to a charge of murder.

ircumstances of the remaining portion of the s pretty well known. In 1759, a skeleton up near Knaresborough, which the inhabit- pected to be that of Clarke, for they had me to the conclusion that the unfortunate l met with foul-play, especially as A.'s wife several occasions, made strange statements ffect that her husband and a man named an, knew more of Clarke's disappearance y chose to admit. Houseman was now con- with a bone of the skeleton which had been nd. He very emphatically denied that it ke's. People naturally wondered how he so positive, the bones of skeletons being, to ated eye, so similar in appearance. They convinced that if the skeleton was not , Houseman must know where the latter t last he confessed that he had been a spec- the murder of Clarke by A. and one Terry. d the place where the body had been It was searched, the buried skeleton was and A. was tried at York, for the murder of on the 3d August 1759. What has given so linary an *éclat* to this trial, is the fact that acted his own defence. He attacked, with s, plausibility, and curious erudition, of circumstantial evidence; but to no — verdict of guilty was returned, and he nd ed to be executed three days after- the interval, he confessed his guilt to n who attended him. While in the — cell, he wrote a defence of suicide; but failed in a practical illustration of the doctrine, which he forthwith attempted.

ARAMÆ'A (from the Hebrew word *Aram*, signifying the highland in opposition to the lowland of Canaan) includes the whole of the country situated to the north-east of Palestine. Its boundaries, though not rigorously defined, were as follows: N., by Mount Taurus; E., by the Tigris; S., by Arabia; and W., by Arabia, Phœnicia, and Lebanon. It embraced the countries known to the Greeks by the various names of Syria, Babylonia, and Mesopotamia. *The Aramaic language*, a branch of the Semitic, was common to the whole country, and was divided into two principal dialects—the west Aramaic or Syriac, and the east Aramaic, or, as it is improperly termed, the Chaldee. The former was that spoken almost universally in Palestine in the time of Christ. Ever since the Babylonian captivity, the pure Hebrew, in which the whole of the Old Testament, with the exception of a few chapters in Daniel and Ezra, had been written, had gradually given place to the Aramaic. The Aramaic version of the Bible was that used in Christ's time, who quotes from it, and not from the original Hebrew; as, for instance, the beginning of the 22d Psalm, which he repeats on the Cross. The Talmud, especially the Babylonian, has a large admixture of Aramaic elements. The Aramaic dialect is, in general, the harshest, poorest, and least elaborate of all the Semitic languages, and has now almost entirely died out, and given place to the Arabic and Persian. Indeed, it is only found living among some tribes in remote districts of the mountains of Kurdistan, and in two or three villages in Syria; yet it is considered highly probable that it is the root of the whole cluster of Semitic tongues.

ARANDA, PEDRO PABLO ABARCA DE BOLEA, COUNT OF, born in 1718 of a distinguished Aragonese family, at first embraced a military career; but having evinced a remarkable spirit of observation, he was appointed by Charles III. ambassador to the court of Augustus III., king of Poland; which post he filled for seven years. After his return, he was appointed captain-general of Valencia, and in 1766 recalled to Madrid on account of its disturbed state, and the presidency of the Council of Castile was bestowed on him. A. not only soon restored order in the capital, but limited the power of the Inquisition, procured the expulsion of the Jesuits from Spain, and carried the salutary terror of government into the recesses of the Sierra Morena, then infested by hordes of ferocious banditti. Like many other reformers, he was not able fully to carry out his liberal intentions. In 1773, he was removed from his high position through the influence of the clergy, the Dominican monks especially, and sent as ambassador to France. Grimaldi succeeded him in his office, and after him Count Florida Blanca; but when the latter lost his office in consequence of court intrigues, A. returned to his position; soon, however, to lose it again through the agency of Godoy, Duke of Alcudia, the queen's favourite. He, however, still remained President of the Council of State, which he had organised; but upon his expressing his views regarding the war with France, he was banished to his native province of Aragon, where he died in 1799.

ARANEA AND ARANE'IDÆ. See SPIDER.

ARANJUEZ (a corruption of the Latin *Ara-Jovis*, altar of Jupiter), a town in the province of Toledo, Spain. It is situated on the left bank of the Tagus, 28 miles south south-east from Madrid, in a beautifully wooded valley, and is now connected with the Spanish metropolis by a railway. The town is built in the Dutch style, has broad and regular streets intersecting each other at right angles, and a

population of 3800. It is famed for its palace and gardens. The former was long a favourite resort in spring of the royal family, during which period A. occasionally reckoned as many as 20,000 inhabitants; the latter were laid out by Philip II., who built a palace also, for there was only a shooting villa here during his father's time, but a fire destroyed a portion of it, and more was taken down by Philip V., who reconstructed the edifice in French style. The present château was completed by Charles IV. On account of its gardens, the natives call A. 'the metropolis of Flora.' These gardens are interspersed with numerous summer-houses, the most celebrated of which is the *Casa del Labrador*, or Labourer's Cottage; but their most splendid ornament are the great elm-trees brought from England by Philip II., which thrive magnificently. They radiate out from a central plot in twelve distinct rows. A. is known historically for the treaty of alliance concluded here between France and Spain on the 12th of April 1772, and as the scene of the abdication of Charles IV. on the 18th of March 1808.

ARANY, JANOS, next to Petöfi the most distinguished of modern Hungarian poets, was born at Nagy-Szalonta in 1819. His father was a poor peasant, who spared no pains to get him into the church. In 1832, he entered the college at Debreczin, where he distinguished himself by his diligence; but unable to restrain his love of adventure, he joined, in 1836, a company of strolling-players, with whom he travelled about for several months, till driven by necessity and an upbraiding conscience, he hurried home to do what he could for the support of a now blind and aged parent. For some time he was engaged as a Latin tutor; but in 1840 he was appointed notary at Szalonta. He now married, and devoted his whole time to his profession. When the Kisfaludy Society of Pesth offered a prize for the best humorous poem, A. sent in, anonymously, his *Az elveszett Alkotmány* (The Lost Constitution of the Past). He was successful. Thus emboldened, he ventured, in 1847, to forward to the same society the first part of a Trilogy, *Toldi*. Struck by the beauty of this purely national effort, the members published it at their own expense, and again rewarded the author. A. soon became a popular favourite. His reputation penetrated even into the lowest ranks of the community. In 1848 appeared his *Murány Ostroma* (Conquest of Murány), which, however, received less attention owing to the political excitement of the time. The poet himself took a slight part in the revolution, but after the dismal termination of the war, he was allowed to return to his country. Since then he has published a narrative poem, *Katalin* ('Catherine'), Pesth, 1850. Besides which numerous stray pieces have appeared in the magazines. Some of his works have been translated into German.

ARAPAI'MA, a genus of fresh-water fishes, the largest known fresh-water fishes in the world. They are found in the rivers of South America, and are sometimes taken in the Rio Negro 15 feet in length, and of the weight of 4 cwt. They are taken with the harpoon, and are highly esteemed for food, both fresh and salted. In the salted state, they have begun to form an article of commerce, and are conveyed in large quantities to Para. The genus *A.* belongs to the family of *Clupesocidæ*, a family of malacopterous fishes, allied to the *Clupeidæ* or herring family, and is remarkable for the mosaic work of strong, bony, compound scales with which the body is covered. About six species are known.

A'RARAT (Airarat, in the old Armenian dialect; i.e., the plains of the Aryans), the ancient name of the fertile plateau through which flow Aras or Araxes. It occupies the mountainous region of Armenia, be Turkey and partly to Russia. Not passage in Genesis viii. 4, where it ... ark rested 'on the mountains of Ararat' become common to give the name A. to entire range, but to the mountain calle Armenians Massis Leusar—i. e., 'mountain ark' (known among the Turks as Agh 'steep mountain;' and among the Persians Nûh, 'Noah's mountain'). It rises in tw cones, known as the Greater and the Less the former, which attains the height of above the level of the sea, is covered snow. It is the highest elevation of and since the war of 1827 it where the Russian, Turkish, and Pe meet. In 1840 the form of the partially changed by a frightful ear earthquake. Previous to this period, the mountain, and at a point where from a wild gorge, there stood the village Aguri. It was surrounded by ... and inhabited by upwards of ... the ravine, 2300 feet above ... Armenian convent of St J... still, a chapel dedicated to ... mild air of the district ... summer resort of the rich... inha... It was to undergo a great change, ... 20th of June 1840, dreadful sho ... were felt. Great masses of the ... into the plain, the ravine ... and chapel disappeared, and ... gardens which surrounded it, ... rocks, earth, and ice, and wi... utterly destroyed. Tournefort made ... of the mountain in 1700; since then been made in 1829 by Professor P ... and his companions; in 1850 by C ... and a large party of Russians e... caucasian triangulation; in 18... Stuart; and in 1870 by Dr G. Ra... Sievers. These naturalists, the for... director of the museum at Tiflis, explored the mountain and district situated. See their 'Reisen in Armeni... (*Petermann's Mittheilungen* for 1871-12); also a letter from Dr Radde volume.

A'RAS, the ancient *Araxes*, a ... formed by the junction of the Kaleh-Su, and uniting its wa Kur (ancient *Cyrus*) after a ... miles. The main stream is the rises in the Bingol-Tagh, in lat. long. 41° 10′ E.; and flowing N.... a little below Hasan-kaleh by after which the combined stream ... It then flows eastward, fo... or southern boundary of the ... joined by the Arpa, which ... into north. After this, it divides Armenia; at some distance to ... turns to the south-east, along ... soon after which it receives the ... a river descending southward ... Djulfa it runs eastward for ab... which it runs to the north-east miles, till it is joined by the la... ing from the Caucasus thr... united waters, after a short ... suddenly to the south, and fall ... into the Gulf of Kizilgatch, in the 39° 20′ N.

OF SICYON, a distinguished Greek
born about 271 B.C. His youth
party strifes of his native town,
father, Clinias, met his death; and
only saved by the efforts of his
him secretly conveyed to Argos,
returned, in his twentieth year, and
you from its tyrant, Nicocles, 251
aised by Ptolemæus Philadelphus, A.
republican form of government to
d it with the Achaian League,
he was appointed general, 245 B.C.
ble but checkered career, this
on him seventeen times. His
to unite the Greek states, and
an independent nation; but this
by their mutual jealousies. A. was a
al, a skilful tactician, and a disinterested
He died by poison administered to him
of Philip III. of Macedon.

JS, OF SOLI (or Pompeiopolis, in Cilicia),
270 B.C., a Greek didactic poem, entitled
, founded on the astronomical system of
f Cnidos, and appended to it another
esis, giving rules for prognostication of
r. A pure style and correct versification
poems, which were translated into Latin
Cæsar Germanicus, and Rufus Festus
A. was a native of the same province as
quotes from him in his speech on Mars'
a certain of your own poets have said,
his offspring.' The best edition is that
vols. Leipsic, 1793—1801.

A'WIA, that portion of Chili which lies
bio on the N. and the Valdivia on
nough thus embosomed as it were
it forms an aboriginal state, which is
ndent of that republic. A. extends
44° to 39° 50', and in W. long. from
—its length being about 180 miles, and
breadth from the shore of the Pacific to the
e Andes being 150. This country, com-
haps about 25,000 square miles, is divided
to south into four parallel regions, vary-
h other, with tolerable regularity, in soil
These are the coast region, the plain
egion of the Lower Andes, and the
Higher Andes. The productions of A.
e those of Chili. The population cannot
ely estimated on account of the independ-
nation; but from their successful resist-
e Spaniards, it must be presumed to be
rely dense.
the proud distinction of being the only
the New World that has never received the
yoke. From the days of Pizarro and
ownwards, it has uniformly vindicated its
its wars of independence having lasted,
vals of precarious truce, from 1537 to
early as 1568, the Araucanians, taking a
a their enemy, brought into the field some
of cavalry; and in the war between Chili
some Araucanian youths of the first rank
officers in the republican armies.

CARIA, a genus of plants of the natural
iferæ (q. v.) or Pines, consisting of lofty
es of the southern hemisphere, and
ed by having the male and female flowers
te plants, the pollen of the male flowers
in 10—20 cases pendent from the apex of
the female flowers two under each scale;
ng one ovule. The species are all ever-
leaves broader than in pines and firs,
rever, the trees resemble in their general
growth. *A. imbricata*, sometimes called
the CHILI PINE, a native of the Andes of Chili,
forming forests on their western declivities, attains
a height of 150 feet, the trunk quite straight and free

Araucaria imbricata:
End of a branch, much reduced, shewing the mode of ramification, and the manner in which the leaves are imbricated.

from knots. The bark of the young trees is studded
with leaves from the base upwards, even until 12
or 15 years of age. The branches are in whorls of
6, 7, or 8. Young trees have branches almost from
the ground; old trees have tall naked stems, with a
crown of branches. The female strobile (cone) is
roundish ovate, 8—10 inches in diameter, the scales
terminated by a long awl-shaped point, the seeds
wedge-shaped, and more than an inch in length. The

Araucaria imbricata:
Sketched in the Botanic Gardens, Edinburgh.

outer and inner bark of full-grown trees are each
4—6 inches in thickness; the outer bark of a cork-
like texture; the inner, fungous and porous. From
both outer and inner bark, and indeed from all parts
of the tree, resin flows readily and in great abund-
ance. The leaves are lanceolate, about 1½ inch in
length, and ¼ inch in breadth near the base, sharp-

pointed. The timber is heavy, solid, hard, fibrous, yellowish white, and beautifully veined. It is very suitable for masts of ships. The resin, which is white, has a smell like frankincense, and a not unpleasant taste. It is applied as a plaster to contusions. The seed is pleasant to the taste, not unlike the chestnut, and is a most important article of food to the Indians. It is eaten raw, boiled, or roasted. A spirituous liquor is also distilled from it. A single strobile sometimes contains between 200 and 300 seeds, and one tree may be seen loaded with 20 or 30 of these great strobiles. This Araucaria was introduced into Britain in the end of last century, and is now pretty frequently planted. It promises to add a new feature to British landscapes, as other trees of the same order, particularly the larch and spruce, have done before, and will probably prove important in an economical point of view. It is the only species which seems suited to the climate of Britain. *A. Brasiliana*, the BRAZIL PINE, has loosely imbricated lanceolate leaves, and a looser and more spreading habit than *A. imbricata*. The seeds or nuts are sold as an article of food in Rio Janeiro. The resin which exudes from the tree is mixed with wax to make candles. *A. excelsa*, now called *Eutassa excelsa* (and by some *Altingia*), the NORFOLK ISLAND PINE, a native of Norfolk Island, New Caledonia, &c., attains a height of 160—220 feet, free from branches to 80—100 feet, and with a trunk sometimes 11 feet in diameter. The wood is white, tough, close-grained, and so heavy as almost to sink in water. The leaves of the young trees are linear and spreading; those of the adult are ovate, and closely imbricated. The strobiles are ovate, 4—5 inches in length. *A. Cunninghamii*, now also ranked in the new genus *Eutassa* or *Altingia*, the MORETON BAY PINE, a native of the shores of Moreton Bay and banks of the Brisbane River in New South Wales, very much resembles the last. It attains a height of 60—130 feet, and a diameter of 4—8 feet. The leaves of the adult trees are lanceolate and imbricated. The wood is yellowish, and is used for boat-building, house-carpentry, and the common kinds of furniture. The large seeds of *A. Bidwillii* are used for food by the natives at Moreton Bay.

Certain fossil *Coniferæ* found in carboniferous sandstone have received the name *Araucarites*. Livingstone found a forest of large silicified trees near the Zambesi, which Mr Quekett, on examination of specimens, ascertained to be 'silicified coniferous wood of the Araucarian type.' Fossil trees of the same type occur in the carboniferous strata of Britain. A trunk, for instance, 47 feet long, was found in Craigleith Quarry, near Edinburgh, in 1830.

ARAUJO, D'AZEVE'DO ANTO'NIO, afterwards Count da Barca, was born at Sá, in the neighbourhood of Ponte de Lima, in Portugal, on the 14th of May 1754. At the age of 11, he was sent to Oporto to study under his uncle, who held a high military command there. In 1787 he was appointed Portuguese ambassador to the Hague. Before entering on his duties, he visited England, where he omitted no opportunity of obtaining a knowledge of English manufactures, commerce, politics, &c. He next proceeded to Paris, where he similarly employed himself. Soon after his arrival at the Hague, he found himself entangled in political difficulties. The French Revolution had broken out, but the part which he played in the complication of political affairs which ensued falls to be treated more properly under the History of Portugal (q. v.).

At length he threw up his ambassadorship, and travelled through Germany, enlarging the sphere of his studies. He paid especial attention to mineralogy and chemistry, and was fortunate enough to become acquainted with Go
Herder, &c. After the Pea
sent as ambassador to St Pet
was recalled to Lisbon, to
Secretary of State; and in 18
highest political dignity in
efforts to introduce the various agen
ation, while he occupied this
unremitting. Glass, paper, wool, and
factures, received liberal encourage
sudden approach of the French
to all his improvements. The ro
Bonaparte had formally dethroned
proclamation, emigrated to Brazi
also, taking along with him a
apparatus, his mineralogical coll
Werner, and all necessary
During the first years of his
World, he devoted himself assidu
and literary pursuits; founded a
and chemistry, introduced the cultivation
improved machine for sawing wood,
alembic, and established a porcelain
He had also a magnificent garden,
which were scientifically arranged. H
21st June 1817.

ARAU'RÉ, a town of Venezu
It is situated in lat. 9° 17' N., lon
miles E.N.E. of Trujillo, in a regi
fertility in the production of cotton
&c. The town itself is rather hand
tains 10,000 inhabitants.

A'RBALEST, ARCU'BALEST, or BOW, was a weapon much in use du
times. Its recognised position among
may be dated from about the period
The smaller kinds of A. were

Arbalest.

hand on a small steel lever called the
but the larger kinds were bent by
in a loop or stirrup at the end of
and drawing the cord upwards
a later period, the bow was made
of steel; in this form it required a
trivance, called a 'moulinet,' to be
ordinary arrows were used with th
usually arrows of a shorter and stou
'carrials' or 'quarrels,' were emplo
a four-sided pyramidal form of head.
stones and leaden balls were shot
Arbalests. The arbalestiers, or
a quiver with fifty arrows as
of the battles of the 13th c.
tial component of armies of this
their position in the van of the b
were mounted, some on foot, and
wore armour. The supply of
was carried after them to the b
The A. continued to be a favourite
land throughout the 13th c.; but
gave way to the long-bow, which was
more convenient weapon in battle.
is described under BOW AND ARROW;
ral military system to which it b
ARCHERS AND ARCHERY.

ARBALESTI'NA, in the m

as a small window or wicket through
ss-bowmen shot their quarrels or
emy besieging a fortified place.

now Erbil or Arbil, a small town of
rom Mossul, famous as having given
battle in which Alexander finally
331 B. C. The battle was really
gamela (the 'camel's house'), to the
A.

TION is the adjudication by private
ted to decide a matter, or matters in
a reference made to them for that
by agreement of the disputants or by
n the suggestion of a court of law.
g generally is called a *submission to reference;* the parties appointed to
ned *arbitrators*, or *referees;* and their
called an *award*. This mode of set-
is not only frequently resorted to by
selves, who are anxious to avoid the
pense of proceedings in the public
the Statute-Book bears witness to the
by the legislature at various times.
9 and 10 Will. III. c. 15, testifies
A. in strong terms, declaring that 'it
d by experience that references made
t have contributed much to the ease
in the determining of controversies,
arties become thereby obliged to sub-
rd of the arbitrators,' and it proceeds
d encourage merchants, traders, and
n end to their controversies and quar-
of A.; and a modern act, passed in
d 4 Will. IV. c. 42, ss. 39, 40, and 41,
more anxious provisions for rendering
e effectual. Since that act was passed,
d feeling in favour of A. has increased,
t there are recent statutes which con-
rendering A., or private reference in
compulsory. The Railway Acts of
blic Health Act of 1848, and the
Procedure Act of 1854, are modern
is legislative peculiarity.

that may be determined by an arbi-
ersonal disputes and differences which
e be made the subject of controversy
f civil jurisdiction. Thus breaches of
rally, breaches of promises of mar-
, assaults, charges of slander, differ-
g partnership transactions or the par-
property, and questions relating to
ght to tithes, may all be referred to
relating to real property may also be
as those relating to the partition of
tenants or tenants in common, to set-
puted boundaries—to differences be-
l and tenant respecting waste—and to
ad. Pure questions of law may also
the decision of an arbitrator. An
y have, therefore, to determine the
arty on a promissory-note or bill of
construe an act of parliament, or to
opinion on the effect of a will or
at law, and suits in equity, may
l by A., and this kind of reference
at any stage of the proceedings, some-
er verdict, and probably by analogy,
n equity. Questions relating to the
l enjoyment of property, and future
differences between parties, may
erred.

owever clearly illegal, cannot be made
a valid reference. But where trans-
n parties have been brought to a close
award, apparently good, the courts
have refused to re-open them on a suggestion that some illegal item has been admitted in account.

There are certain matters which are specially referred to A. by statute. Besides those we have already alluded to, the following matters are all referrible to A.: Questions relating to the expenses of prisoners, under the 5 Geo. IV. c. 85; to the regulation of municipal corporations in England and Wales, under the 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 76; to the laws concerning prisons, under the 5 and 6 Vict. c. 98; to disputes between masters and workmen, under the 5 Geo. IV. c. 96, amended by the 7 Will. IV. and 1 Vict. c. 67; to the laws relating to savings' banks, under the 9 Geo. IV. c. 92, and 7 and 8 Vict. c. 83; to the land rights and other possessions of certain ecclesiastical and collegiate corporations, under the 2 and 3 Will. IV. c. 80; to the management and improvement of episcopal and capitular estates in England, under the 17 and 18 Vict. c. 116; to the conveyance of mails by railways, under the 1 and 2 Vict. c. 98; to insolvents and to insolvency, bankruptcy, and execution, under the 1 and 2 Vict. c. 110, 7 and 8 Vict. c. 96, 12 and 13 Vict. c. 106; to the constitution of companies incorporated for carrying on public undertakings, under the 8 and 9 Vict. c. 16; to the taking of lands for undertakings of a public nature, under 8 and 9 Vict. c. 18; to the metropolitan sewers, under the 11 and 12 Vict. c. 112 (continued and amended by 12 and 13 Vict. c. 93, the 14 and 15 Vict. c. 75, the 15 and 16 Vict. c. 64, the 16 and 17 Vict. c. 125, the 17 and 18 Vict. c. 111); to friendly societies, under the 17 and 18 Vict. c. 56, and the 18 and 19 Vict. c. 93.

Under these acts of parliament, the class of cases which may, or which must, be referred to A., have been greatly enlarged. The railway acts, in particular, have largely contributed to this kind of amicable determination, although the parties in such cases cannot be said to have much discretion in the matter. Under the provisions, again, of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854 (17 and 18 Vict. c. 125, ss. 3 and 6), parties may be compelled by the court, or judge who tries the case, to refer matters of mere account in an action which cannot be conveniently tried in the ordinary way.

Among the questions that cannot be referred to A., are matters arising out of the administration of the criminal law in the case of felonies and relating to agreements or transactions against public policy. Felonies and offences of a public nature cannot be referred, because the public safety and good require them to be punished, and for this purpose they can only be properly tried in one of the ordinary courts of the country.

With respect to matters which cannot be referred on account of their being against public policy, the rule is so obviously just as not to need illustration.

But there are certain misdemeanours which may be either settled by agreement or by means of an A., on a principle of very general application stated by Chief-justice Gibbs that where there is a remedy, by action as well as by indictment, a reference of the matter in controversy is good. And in these cases of misdemeanour, a compromise or settlement under a reference may be made, even after conviction, but with the sanction of the court.

As to the parties who may make a reference to A., it may be stated generally, that every one capable of making a disposition of his property or release of his rights may make a submission to an award, and in this category may be placed a married woman, who has a separate estate settled to her separate use, and there are even cases where a reference between a husband and wife has been held valid; and of course a husband may submit to A. differences

respecting his wife's personal estate which has not been settled to her separate use.

Respecting the powers of infants or persons under age to submit to A., there are numerous decisions in the courts of law and equity: but they go upon refinements and nice distinctions more suited for the professional lawyer than for the ordinary reader, and we therefore do not think it necessary to give any explanation of them in a popular article such as this professes to be.

Partners and corporations may make references to A. on the principles already explained, and according to the relation in which they stand to the matter in dispute.

Those who cannot submit to A. are persons in the following position: Persons who cannot contract; married women without any estate settled to their separate use; and along with them, as laid down in old ante-reformation books, persons professed in religion, and persons under duress. There is an exception to the incapacity of married women to refer to A. where the husband, by exile, banishment, or other cause, is held to be civilly dead, and when he is an alien enemy. To these exceptions it may be added, that in suits respecting the property of charities the Court of Chancery will not permit a reference, however advisable such a course may seem, unless the attorney-general gives his consent.

It has generally been the opinion of the legal profession, and held to be the doctrine of the courts, that a reference by the consent of counsel in a cause is binding on his client; and Lord Chancellor Eldon once said, that it was for the counsel to consider whether he was authorised to refer, and if so, he (the chancellor) would act on the consent so given; and the right and privilege of counsel to make a reference has been very strongly laid down in the Scotch courts. But a very recent case in the Court of Common Pleas (Swinfen *v.* Swinfen), where a compromise by counsel was successfully resisted by the client, has very much unsettled the English law on this subject; and now the feeling of the Bar in England is, that it is unwise to refer or compromise a litigation on the independent authority of counsel.

Submissions to reference may also be made by executors and administrators, by trustees, by the committee of a lunatic, and by the officer of a public company, who is authorised by a statute to sue and be sued in the name of the company. And there are persons especially empowered to refer by the statutes which we have already enumerated.

Disputes may be referred to A. in any manner that expresses the agreement or understanding of the parties to be bound by the decision of the arbitrator; and for this purpose no formal submission, either verbal or written, is necessary; but the arrangement must be such as manifestly to shew an intention to have the difference concluded by a private adjudication in the nature of an award. But where the submission is in writing, it must be executed in due form. A testator, however, cannot exclude his will from litigation by a proviso, that all differences respecting it shall be referred to A., although it is thought that the parties benefited by the will might themselves so refer. Generally speaking, it is advantageous to make the A. in such a form as that the award may be made a rule of court—that is, may be adopted by a court of law as its judgment on the matter submitted, a proceeding that affords an obvious facility in enforcing the award; and for this purpose it is necessary to make the procedure conformable to the directions of the statutes 9 and 10 Will. III., and 3 and 4 Will. IV., already referred to. Where the submission is merely verbal or constituted by a private bond or deed, it is liable to be capriciously revoked, and proceedings on the award, in such a case, can only be in the Court of Chancery.

The arbitrator ought to be a [illegible] perfectly indifferent between th[illegible] there are no other particular qu[illegible] office. And the choice by par[illegible] who they agree shall decide bet[illegible] fectly free. Some legal writers have [illegible] far as to maintain, that not only infants an[illegible] women, but even idiots and lunatics, can [illegible] tors, on the argument that every person is [illegible] to choose whom he likes best for his pr[illegible] and he cannot afterwards object to the [illegible] of those whom he has himself selected. [illegible] it is clear, is going too far, and the p[illegible] law would certainly be interposed [illegible] extreme cases. It is better to state [illegible] that on the condition that the [illegible] ordinary intelligence, the choice [illegible] absolutely unfettered. The only [illegible] rule is the case of a party who be[illegible] is the person pointed out [illegible] reference made by statute. [illegible] cated accounts, mercantile men ar[illegible] In other cases, it is usual to app[illegible] being accustomed to judicial investigation to estimate the evidence properly, to c[illegible] examination strictly to the points in qu[illegible] in making the award, to avoid those [illegible] respect of which it might afterwards be [illegible] Both time and expense are thus saved b[illegible] a professional arbitrator. It has [illegible] wisely remarked, that an arb[illegible] to arrive at his conclusions u[illegible] principles which would have a [illegible] which he is substituted—a [illegible] of obviously points to the expediency of [illegible] the referee. But an arbitrator is not [illegible] mere rules of practice which prevail i[illegible] courts of justice, and he has been h[illegible] allowing interest on both sides of an account, although such a determination [illegible] the practice of the Court of Chancery. [illegible] suit, which had been referred, had been

The proceedings before an arbitrator [illegible] according to the peculiar circumstances [illegible] submitted, but generally it is advisable t[illegible] them according to the forms observed [illegible] of law, and they usually are so co[illegible] the parties furnishes the arbitra[illegible] ment of his case, which is done [illegible] a copy of the briefs on each side; and [illegible] appointed he proceeds to hear them ([illegible] or by their counsel or attorneys), and [illegible] evidence on each side, nearly in the same [illegible] a judge at an ordinary trial. Having [illegible] case, the arbitrator proceeds to [illegible] which need not necessarily be [illegible] award is perfectly valid; but it [illegible] for the arbitrator to make his [illegible] stamped with the proper award [illegible] delivers to the successful party. [illegible] party gets a copy of the award on [illegible] This award in its effect operates [illegible] clusive judgment respecting all the [illegible] and it binds the rights of the parties.

An award may be set aside on [illegible] corruption and fraud in the arbitrator, [illegible] material irregularity or illegality appearing [illegible] face of the proceedings. But the [illegible] courts is to favour arbitrations and [illegible] unless such serious grounds as we [illegible] can be substantiated.

Where there are two arbitrators [illegible] often provides that in the event [illegible] in opinion the matter referred shall be

erson, called an umpire, who is generally ed under a power to that effect, by the arbi- ers. But they cannot make such an specially authorised so to do by submission. This umpire rehears and for this purpose is invested with the ers as those possessed by the arbitrators, l by the same rules.

Scotland an A. takes place in virtue of a submission executed by the parties in favour chosen referee, who there is called an arbiter, of arbitrator, as in England; and his award l a decree-arbitral. This submission is in the a regular deed, and is said to be general or according to the nature of the matters sub- by it. the submission specifying all the parti- reference, and the name of the referee powers and duties, which, in the ordi- are of the most comprehensive character cification of the time within which the decree-arbitral is to be made—a clause the parties to perform the award under a penalty; and other anxious provisions, are all carefully specified in the submission. n then proceeds before the arbiter, generally ng to the forms observed in the ordinary courts; and the arbiter makes his award in a mmn manner, the decree-arbitral commencing recital of the submission and of all the pro- —and after stating that the arbiter has ripely d the whole matter, and has 'God and a cience before his eyes,' it gives the arbiter's , and among other things ordains the sub- ad decree to be recorded according to the registration in the former, and the extract registry so made forms a judgment which put in execution by either party against the The decree-arbitral, like the submission must be executed and attested in the form of ar deed. Where there are two arbiters, the usually provides, that in the event of g in opinion, they shall name an umpire n, as he is called in Scotland, whose final.

lusion, and as a remark on A. generally, it ins to be stated, that of course, from the the case, there can be no appeal on the of the dispute submitted to any public l whatever.

BOGA, an ancient city in Sweden, in the of Westmannland, on a small river of the by which, with the aid of a canal, the ar and Malar are united. A. used to be at commercial town, but it has now sunk ificance, and only possesses an historical om the antiquities in its neighbourhood. its churches, cloisters, and chapels there only main the town and parish churches, the with an altar-piece of Rembrandt's. Several of the family of Vasa have resided here. assemblies were held here in 1396, 1412, 423, and 1474; diets in 1435, 1440, 1471, nd 1561, in which last year also certain known as the Arboga Articles, were passed ch Eric XIV. was enabled to limit the power nobles; and in 1625, Gustavus Adolphus an edict here, commanding that the copper the realm should contain its full worth of

ARBORESCENT (from Lat. *arbor*, a tree), a passed to plants to signify that they possess altogether, or in some measure, the character s. Even the dwarf willows and birches, on fines of polar or alpine perpetual snow, are ed as the A. vegetation of these regions.

ARBORICU'LTURE (from Lat. *arbor*, a tree), a term literally signifying the cultivation of trees, but in use generally restricted to the planting and management of timber trees, or employed as exclusive at least of the cultivation of fruit trees, which is a branch of horticulture or gardening.

The ancients practised A. to some extent, but chiefly with the view of beautifying their villas, or of forming public walks in the vicinity of cities. It is only for similar purposes, and on a very limited scale, that A. is yet anywhere practised in America. The planting of timber trees for economical purposes, or with a view to profit, is unnecessary whilst natural forests are abundant, and can scarcely be referred even in Britain to an earlier period than the beginning of the 16th c., nor did it become at all general till a much later date. The early forest laws of England, as of other feudal countries, had reference chiefly to game, for the sake of which it was, and in order to the enjoyment of the chase, that large tracts were depopulated and converted into *forests* by the first Norman kings. Plantations for timber and fuel were, however, certainly made in England in the 16th c.; and the importance of the subject was urged on public attention by authors of that period. In the 17th c., the greatly increased demand for oak, for the building both of ships and of houses, gave a new impulse to A., which attracted more than ever before the attention both of the government and of the great landowners; the publication of Evelyn's *Sylva* also did more than any previous work to promote a taste for it. It was in this century that nurseries for forest trees were first established. It was not until the beginning of the 18th c. that the first extensive plantations were made in Scotland, nor until towards the end of that century that A. became general in that country or in Ireland. How much the very landscape has been changed by it—how great a difference has been made by the conversion of bleak hills and barren wastes into woods—how much the scene has been changed by the new forms of foreign trees, some of which are now in many districts more abundant than those which are indigenous, it is not easy to imagine; and how much these changes have promoted and are indicative of improvements in agriculture and increased productiveness of fields, is equally difficult to estimate.

The A. of France, Germany, and other parts of Europe, to this day, consists in a great measure of the management of natural forests; and in the more eastern parts of the continent this is almost exclusively the case. Without a careful management of the natural forests, many districts of France and Germany would soon be destitute of fuel; by means of it an increased supply of valuable timber is also obtained; and extensive domains belonging to the state, or to private proprietors, are rendered much more productive. It is in Germany that the management of the forests has received the greatest attention, and has been most systematically and scientifically conducted.

The forest trees of Britain, and of temperate climates generally, are conveniently divided into two classes—the one consisting of coniferous trees or pines and firs (*Nadelholz*, i.e., the 'needlewood' of the Germans), the other including all other kinds (*Laubholz*, i.e., the 'leaf-wood' of the Germans); the latter being sometimes subdivided into *hard-wooded trees*, of which the most important in Britain are oak, ash, elm, beech, birch, hornbeam, sycamore, walnut, and chestnut; and *soft-wooded trees*, as willow, poplar, lime, alder, and horse chestnut. Of these and other trees, of their particular uses, and of the soils and situations to which they are adapted, notice is taken in separate articles.

Plantations are generally formed in Britain by

means of trees raised from seed in a nursery; but sometimes also by sowing the seed on the ground intended for the plantation; in which case, if circumstances permit, a crop of grain is often sown along with the seeds of the trees, as these do not in general vegetate very soon; and the young plants derive advantage from the absence of choking weeds when the grain-crop is reaped, and from the protection afforded by the stubble. It has been supposed by some, but there is no sufficient evidence in support of the opinion, that more healthy and vigorous trees are obtained by sowing on the spot than by planting those which have been raised in a nursery. However, only very young trees can be planted with advantage, those which have attained a greater size requiring a degree of attention far beyond what is possible in plantations even of very moderate extent. The time of planting is from November to February. The most approved mode of planting is in small pits, in which the roots are disposed in a natural manner, and which are then carefully filled up with earth; but it is often thought sufficient when the tree to be planted is very young, to make a slit for it with the spade, or two slits, one at right angles to the other in the form of the letter T. Other methods are also adopted, particularly for rocky situations, in which the spade cannot be used. Economy is often a consideration of great importance in determining the mode of planting.

The formation of plantations by the sowing of seed has been more generally practised on the continent than in Britain. In this way the vacancies in the natural forests of France and Germany are filled up. In this way also great sandy tracts have been covered with wood on the coasts of Pomerania and of France. This has particularly been accomplished on a scale of extraordinary magnitude in the downs of drifting sand, between the rivers Adour and Gironde. The operations there were begun by M. Bremontier in 1789, and deserve to be mentioned as perhaps the most important operations in A. that have ever been performed in the world. Vast forests of pinaster now occupy what was originally loose sand destitute of vegetation.

Too little attention has hitherto been generally paid to the adaptation of the kinds of trees that are planted to the soil and climate; and to this cause many failures in A. are to be ascribed. Some trees grow well even in exposed situations, and are fit to be employed in these, either to form entire plantations, or to occupy the outer part, and so to shelter other trees, which in general are not planted until the outer zone or belt of the most hardy kinds is somewhat advanced; some succeed only in rich soils; some are incapable of enduring the sea-breeze; others, as the sycamore, the elder, and the pinaster, are comparatively unaffected by it. Some trees suffer from an amount of moisture from which alders or willows would rather derive advantage; but, in general, the thorough drainage of the land intended for a plantation is one of the circumstances most important to its success.

To the necessity of this thorough drainage we must look as compensating, or more than compensating, the influence which woods exercise in condensing the moisture of the atmosphere, and in rendering a climate cold and damp; marshy soils being in this respect still worse. The shelter afforded by plantations judiciously disposed, whether in belts or otherwise, is also of great importance in rendering them suitable for that improved agriculture in which thorough drainage is of the first necessity, and which is always productive of amelioration of climate. The influence of plantations is therefore, upon the whole, beneficial, although vast masses of

forest are injurious to climate; and it is admitted that in some localities the planting has been carried to excess, so that fields often particularly in autumn, from want of free tion of air, and the landscape is often rest very narrow limits. The remedy in s obvious; and it not unfrequently within a short distance new plants formed with every prospect of benefi

Much has been written about the pru forest trees, with a view especially to the tion of taller and straighter stems; and cons difference of opinion exists as to the extent t pruning should be practised. It is, howev generally delayed till the branches to be r have attained too great a size, and is rudely performed, to the spoiling of rather than to the improvement of it. tice of leaving *snags*, instead of cutting clean off, has particularly bad effects. firs, from their manner of growth, need less than trees of other kinds. When tre been planted, not merely for profit but for this ought to be remembered in pruning, however, is too often intrusted to persons devoid of taste; and trees which, as they n grew, were very beautiful, are so treated w and saw that they become deformities ins adorning the scene.

In forming plantations, different kinds of t very generally mixed, although masses of on cular kind are also frequently planted. It however, to plant along with those wh destined most permanently to occupy the trees of other kinds as *nurses*, to be g removed as the plantation advances in growt this purpose, spruce and larch are more g employed than any other tree; althou Sc and birch are also deemed suitable for tions. The removal of some of these the first returns of profit from the pl is afterwards thinned from time to ti far more frequently suffer from being little, than from being thinned too much. of proper thinning is to be in part ascribed of many of those narrow belts of *planting* w common in Scotland, and which having been i for shelter, very imperfectly serve their seem to have suffered from the hardest selves. The thinning of a plantation allowed to grow too thick, must, how gradually performed, that it may be bene not injurious. After a sudden thinni tion sometimes ceases to thrive, and m often laid prostrate by the next storm; accommodate themselves both in their ro branches to the situations in which they grow

A considerable number of years must elapse any pecuniary return is derived fr a pla yet this mode of employing soils is fou the most remunerative of which even without reference to the cent lands to which shelter affords. increased demand for timber in Britain, of railways and other purposes, tends to further encouragement of A.

The resinous products of pine-woods are sidered as a source of profit in Britain; but turpentine, and resin obtained from them i parts of Europe, form articles of e great pinaster plantations already sands between the Adour and G products of this kind in large quantity. ment of trees for ornamental purposes much to A. as to Landscape Gardening, transplanting (q. v.) of large trees is only pr

ntal purposes. Hedgerow trees are planted for ornament, although sometimes they may seful shelter; but where this is not the case, n seldom be reckoned profitable, as they are s to crops. Copse or coppice-wood differs so both in its uses and in the mode of its manfrom other plantations, that it must be ected in a separate article.

BOR VITÆ (*Thuja*), a genus of plants of the order *Coniferæ*, allied to the cypress, and of evergreen trees and shrubs with com- flattened branchlets small, scale-like, ted leaves—and monœcious flowers, which celled anthers, and the scales of the strobiles es) with two upright ovules.—The common

Arbor Vitæ (*Thuja occidentalis*).

T. occidentalis) is a native of North Amecially between lat. 45 and lat. 49, but has en well known in Europe. It is a tree of feet high; its branches are horizontally ed and the strobiles (cones) small and oblo- young leafy twigs have a balsamic smell, hey and the wood were formerly in great e a medicine; the oil obtained by distillaom the twigs, which has a pungent and r-like taste, has been recently recommended rmifuge. The wood of the stem is reddish, d very light, but compact, tough, and durable, exposure to the weather remarkably well. e is very common in Britain, but planted s an ornamental tree, and seldom attaining a size as in its native country. It delights moist situations.—The CHINESE A. V. (*T.* a), a native of China and Japan, which is tely distinguishable from the former species ight branches and larger, almost globose gh strobiles, is also in Britain, and upon the t of Europe, a common ornament of pleasure- ; but it does not attain so great a size as the g, and is more sensible of the cold of severe

The balsamic smell is very agreeable. yields a resin, having a pleasant odour, to gh medicinal virtues were formerly ascribed; he remarkable name, *Arbor Vitæ* (Latin, signifree of Life), given to this species, and extended rens. Other species are known, but they are ortant than these. In its native country, this also attains the size of a considerable tree,— are several other species of *Thuja*, some of seem well suited to the open air in the climate of Britain, and others require the protection of greenhouses. Amongst the former are *T. plicata*, from Nootka Sound; and *T. dolabrata*, a native of Japan, a tree of great height and thickness, and which will not improbably prove the most important of the whole genus.—A tree, common in North America, and there known by the name of WHITE CEDAR, is sometimes included in the genus *Thuja*, under the name of *T. sphæroidea*, but is more generally ranked in the genus *Cupressus* as *C. thyoides*. See CYPRESS. The timber is highly esteemed, and an infusion of the scrapings is sometimes used as a stomachic.—Closely allied to the genus *Thuja* is *Callitris*. See SANDARACH.

ARBROATH, ABERBROTHWICK, or ABERBROTHOCK, a seaport town in the east of Forfarshire, situated at the mouth of a stream called the Brothock. Here King William the Lion founded a Tyronensian abbey in honour of Thomas-à-Becket in 1178. The king was interred in it in 1214. In the abbey, Bruce and the Scottish nobles met in 1320, to resist the claims of Edward II. to Scotland. Cardinal Beaton was the last of its abbots. Next to Holyrood, the abbey was the most richly endowed monastery in Scotland. It was destroyed by the Reformers in 1560. Its ruins—which are cruciform, 270 by 160 feet—are very picturesque, presenting lofty towers, columns, Gothic windows, and a fine circular east window, 'the Round O of A.' The chief industries of A. are flax-spinning, jute-spinning, and the manufacture of sail-cloth. The new harbour, begun in 1841, admits vessels of 400 tons at spring-tides; it is protected by a breakwater. In 1872 the number of vessels belonging to the port was 68; tonnage, 10,021. The chief exports are grain, potatoes, fish, pork, and pavement, chiefly from Lower Devonian quarries 8 or 10 miles inland. A. is a royal burgh, and in conjunction with Montrose, Brechin, Forfar, and Bervie burghs, returns one member to parliament. Population in 1871 of parliamentary burgh, 19,973. A. is supposed to be the Fairport of *The Antiquary*, and the Redhead Crags and Coves form some of the scenes in that novel. The famous Bell-rock Light-house stands in the sea, 12 miles south-east of Arbroath.

ARBUTHNOT, JOHN, a distinguished writer and physician, the contemporary and friend of Pope and Swift, was the son of a Scottish episcopal clergyman, and born at Arbuthnot, in Kincardineshire, shortly after the Restoration. He studied medicine at Aberdeen, where he took his degree. A.'s father was obliged to resign his charge at the revolution. His sons' prospects being thus blighted in their own country, they were under the necessity of going abroad to seek their fortune. John removed soon after to London, and there supported himself by teaching mathematics. In 1697 he published an examination of Dr Woodward's account of the Deluge, which brought him into notice as a person of no common ability. Accident called him into attendance on Prince George of Denmark, who thenceforth patronised him. In 1709 he was appointed physician to the queen, and in 1710 was elected a member of the Royal College of Physicians. On the death of Queen Anne, in 1714, he lost his situation, and his circumstances were never so prosperous afterwards. In 1717, A., along with Pope, gave assistance to Gay in a farce, entitled *Three Hours after Marriage*, which, however, in spite of having the aid of a trio of wits, proved a complete failure. In 1723 he was chosen second censor of the Royal College of Physicians; in 1727 he was made an Elect; and had the honour to pronounce the Harveian oration for the year. He died

at Hampstead, in 1735. A. was one of the leaders in that circle of wits which adorned the reign of Queen Anne, and was still more nobly distinguished by the rectitude of his morals and the goodness of his heart. He assisted Swift and Pope in the composition of that brilliant satire, the *Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus*, contributing those portions of it which refer to science and philosophy; and he was undoubtedly the author of the celebrated political *jeu d'esprit*, the *History of John Bull*, which has so often been imitated. Besides several medical essays, he published *Tables of Greek, Roman, and Jewish Measures, Weights, and Coins* (London, 1705—1708), a work which was long the best authority on the subject. There is also a philosophical poem of his composition in Dodsley's Miscellanies, entitled *Know Thyself*.

ARBUTUS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Ericeæ*, containing a number of species, small trees and shrubs, the greater part of which are American. The fruit is fleshy, 5-celled, many-seeded, usually dotted with little projections, whence that of some species has a sort of resemblance to strawberries; the corolla is urn-shaped.—*A. Unedo*, the

Arbutus Unedo.

STRAWBERRY TREE, is a native of the south of Europe, found also in Asia and America, and in one locality in the British Isles, the Lakes of Killarney, where its fine foliage adds much to the charm of the scenery. It requires protection in winter in the climate of Paris. In Britain, it is often planted as an ornamental evergreen. It grows to the height of 20 - 30 feet, but is rather a great bush than a tree. The bark is rugged; the leaves oblongo-lanceolate, smooth and shining, bluntly serrated; the flowers nodding, large, greenish white; the fruit globose, of a scarlet colour, with a vapid sweetish taste. It is, however, sometimes eaten. Of late, excellent alcohol has been made from it in Italy. A wine is made from it in Corsica, which, however, is narcotic, if taken in considerable quantity, as the fruit itself is, if eaten too freely. The bark and leaves are astringent.—*A. Andrachne* is also sometimes cultivated as an ornamental plant in Britain, but is impatient of severe frosts. Its fruit, and that of *A. integrifolia*, are eaten in Greece and the east. But all the species seem to possess narcotic qualities in greater or less degree; the fruit of *A. furens*, a small shrub, a native of Chili, so much as to cause delirium.- *A. aculeata*, which abounds at Cape Horn and on Staten Island, is an elegant and most pleasing evergreen, very much resembling the myrtle. It grows to the height of 3 or 4 feet, and produces small white flowers, followed by a profusion of red shining berries, which ornament the bush during winter. Their flavour is insipid, but some [illegible] Mixed with a few raisins, they have voyagers into tolerable tarts.—*A. Uva ursi* generally called *Arctostaphylos Uva ursi* BEARBERRY, is a small trailing ev common in the Highlands of Sc Hebrides, and indeed in the n Europe, Siberia, and North Amer dry, heathy, and rocky places. The flowers small crowded terminal racemes, of a beau colour. The berries are austere and mea are said to form a principal part of the food in northern regions. Grouse also feed o The dried leaves are used as an astringent m medicine, and as such have a place in the copœias, being principally employed in affections of the bladder; but those of *Vitis Idæa* are often fraudulently substituted them.—The BLACK BEARBERRY (*A.* or *Arcto alpina*) is also a native of the northern par globe, a small trailing shrub, with black about the size of a aloe, relished by having a peculiar taste, which to others is able. The plant is found on many of the mountains of Scotland.

ARC (Lat. *arcus*, a bow) is any part of line. The straight line joining the ends of its *chord*, which is always less than the Arcs of circles are *similar* when they subten angles at the centres of their respective if similar arcs belong to equal circles, th selves are *equal*. The le of an A. is if the angle which it su circle is known, and circumference. Let the whole ci and the angle of an A. 50°, the ar

$$360° : 50° :: 100 : \frac{100 \times 50}{360} = 14 \text{ n}$$

ARC. See JOAN OF ARC.

ARCA, or ARK-SHELL, a genus of bi and lamello-branchiate molluscs, the called *Arcadæ*, or *Arcaceæ*. In the the hinge is straight, and occupies wha the whole length of the shell, but is whole breadth, the breadth being great length. One species is found on the B the species are larger and more num seas of warmer climates, and frequently to be seen among the the ornament of drawing-rooms, &c. are, however, more numerous than and are found in various rock systems.

ARCA'DE (Fr.), a row of columns, either having an open sp width behind them, or in contact A. in Gothic corresponds to the co architecture, the difference betwee whereas the pillars in the colonnad architraves, those in the A. supp term A. is sometimes applied to the columns and arches, by which the from the nave of a church, or by or what are erroneously called pa are enclosed; but it is more gene those series of smaller arches simply for purposes of orn the latter kind are often square towers of English chur early examples in the church Oxfordshire, and in the still older and Christ Church in Oxford. applied, improperly, to a glass lane, with a row of shops or stalls

ARCA'DIA, the middle and h ponnesus, was bounded on the

ia, on the S. by Messenia and the W. by Elis. According to ved its name from Arcas, the son : to Laconia, A. was the largest 'eloponnesus. It had an area of , and was girt round by a circle ich cut off to a large extent its ith the rest of the peninsula. tersected it in different directions. of what was anciently A., is wild, l, and was at one time covered ; the eastern is more fertile, the high, and the vales more luxuriant. valleys lay all the principal cities st peak in A. the loftiest also in is Mount Cyllene, in the north. The chief river was anciently the Originally A. was named Pelasgia, bitants, the Pelasgi. Subsequently, into several small states, which ation. Of these united states, the nea, Tegea, Orchomenos, Pheneus, dopolis. The inhabitants, engaged g cattle and in hunting among ds, remained long in a state of r civilisation had advanced, and ld become known by their love cing, they still retained some mili were sometimes engaged as mer-

But generally their character heir simple, rural mode of life; ertain that human sacrifices were s the period of the Macedonian uhians were not remarkable for

In fact, an 'Arcadian youth' for a blockhead. Pan and Diana rite deities. Ancient and modern r especially in the time when popular) have described A. as ace, innocence, and patriarchal

first emperor of the East (395–408 n Spain, 383 A.D., and was the son Theodosius, after whose death the as divided into East and West. tal state and splendour, and hes sl from the Adriatic Sea to the from Scythia to Ethiopia; but the is vast empire were, first, the Gaul wards the eunuch Eutropius, who the reins of government and the rmy, while A. reposed in luxurious 399, the eunuch Eutropius was her usurper, Gainas, who, in his eturn to his own ambition. After the wife of the emperor, assumed One really great man adorned this us and eloquent Chrysostom, who by Eudoxia, and through her in 404, on account of his firm anism, which the empress herself g the reign of A., his territories rbarian incursions, earthquakes, nothing could disturb the indif-

narch. He died, unlamented.

S, a Greek philosopher, founder emy, was born at Pitane in Æolia, B.C. He studied philosophy, first us the Peripatetic, and afterwards After the death of Crantor, A. master of the Academic party, or the doctrines of Plato; but he introanges that its philosophic character ranged. His great rivals were the Stoics, whose opinions he attacked, but he does not appear to have attained any certainty in his own convictions. He had studied under too many masters, and discussed too many different systems, to be sure of the truth of any. He denied the Stoical doctrine of a 'convincing conception,' which he affirmed to be, from its very nature, unintelligible and contradictory. He also denied the existence of any sufficient criterion of truth, and recommended abstinence from all dogmatic judgments. In practice he maintained that we must act on grounds of probability. It is not easy to determine satisfactorily what his moral character was. A wit, a poet, and a man of frank and generous disposition, which seems to have captivated his disciples even more than his philosophy, he has yet been accused by his enemies of the grossest profligacy; and whatever extravagance there may be in such an extreme charge, it is tolerably certain that he died of a debauch in his 76th year (241 B.C.). Nevertheless, his adversary Cleanthes, the Stoic, passed this high eulogium on him: 'The morality which A. abolishes in his words, he re-establishes in his actions.'

ARCH, an arrangement of bricks, stones, or other materials over an open space, by which they are made not only to support each other by mutual pressure, but to sustain a superincumbent weight. We have the excellent authority of Sir G. Wilkinson for stating that the A. was known to, and used by, the ancient Egyptians; and that the Assyrians were acquainted with its principles is placed beyond doubt by the arched gateways so frequently represented in their bass-reliefs. The A. is generally supposed to have been unknown to the Greeks—a supposition which becomes very improbable if we hold it to be proved that it was used by nations with whose works they must have been familiar. But that the Greeks did not employ it generally in their architectural structures, is certain; and as it is not less certain that the Romans did, it is to the latter people that the nations of modern Europe are indebted for their acquaintance with its great utility. The introduction of the A. by the Romans eventually effected a complete revolution in the architectural forms which they borrowed from the Greeks. The predominance of horizontal lines gave way by degrees, till, as the Romanesque passed into the Gothic style, it was superseded by the segments of a circle, placed generally more or less in a perpendicular direction. In its earliest application by the Romans, the A. did not spring from the entablature of the columns, but was generally placed behind them, and rested upon separate imposts. Subsequently, this arrangement was departed from, and the A. assumed the position which it has since retained above the columns; sometimes having an entablature interposed, and sometimes rising directly from the capital of the column or pier, as in the Romanesque. Before mentioning very briefly the different forms of the A., it seems natural to refer to a very simple structure, frequently met with in those early edifices in our own country which we are in the habit of designating as Saxon. It consists of two stones, their lower ends resting on rude piers, their tops leaning against each other, and thus forming two sides of a triangle, which is capable of supporting a moderate superincumbent weight. The mechanical principles on which the A. depends, though here very imperfectly employed, seem sufficiently called into play to suggest their more extensive application; and it is not impossible that out of this rude construction the A., in its later and more elaborate forms, might have developed itself amongst ourselves without hints from foreign sources.

Of the A. itself, the following variations of form

may be enumerated: The semicircle (1), the segment (2), the ellipse (3), which were the only forms employed by the ancients, and which alone were known in medieval architecture up to the time at

1. Semicircle.

2. Segment.

3. Ellipse.

4. Stilted A.

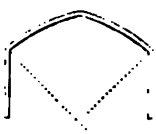
5. Horseshoe A.

which the pointed A. was introduced. Of these, the stilted A. (4), and the horseshoe A. (5), are modifications, in both of which the centre or point from which the A. is described is above the line of the impost, but in the former of which the mouldings are continued downwards vertically; whilst in the latter they are slightly inclined inwards, or the curve is prolonged till it meets the impost. The horseshoe A. belongs peculiarly to Arabian architecture (q. v.), not only from its having originated simultaneously with the faith of the Prophet, but from its continuing to be used exclusively by his followers. Next, in point of time, though far surpassing all the others in beauty and variety, is the pointed A., the origin of which is still a subject of antiquarian controversy. The greater or less acuteness of the pointed A. depends on the position of the two centre points from which its curved sides are described. Its various proportions will be better understood from the accompanying diagrams (6, 7, 8, 9) than from any verbal description.

6. Equilateral A.

7. Lancet A.

8. Drop A.



9. Segmental A.

Of the foil arches (10, 11, 12, 13, 14), or arches in which the forms of a leaf are imitated, the first

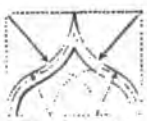
10, 11, 12, Trefoil Arches.

three are examples of the trefoil, the fourth of the cinquefoil, and the fifth of the polyfoil, the latter being met with in Arabian and Romanesque buildings. At a later period of Gothic architecture, with

13. Cinquefoil A.

14. Polyfoil A.

the decorated style, the ogee A. (15) w and the Tudor or four-cornered A. about the commencement of the perp



15. Ogee A.

16. Tudor A.

When first introduced, the pro were bold and effective; but as depressed till the principle of the A. w its very form was again merged first i then in one flat stone or lintel over With the last form of the Tudor A. almost the point of departure in the the A., and complete our enumeratio

The sides of an A. are termed *ham* and its highest part is called the *crow* shaped stones, bricks, or other materials of which an A. is constructed, are called *voussoirs* (*a*, *a*, *a*); the uppermost one of all (*b*) is called the *keystone;* the lowest, which is placed immediately over the impost, the *springer*, or springing-stone; the under or lower side of the voussoirs, the *intrados;* the upper side, the *extrados* or *back*. For the investigation of the mechanical principle of the arch, and of the conditions of stability, see Moseley's *Mechanical Principles of Architecture*. See also BRIDGE, BUTTRESS.

ARCH, TRIUMPHAL, was a str by the Romans across roads, or at

Triumphal Arch of Constan

cities, in honour of victorious generals.

vas the Porta Triumphalis, one of
s through which the triumphal pro-
e city. Among the earliest detached
Rome was that built by Scipio
C.) on the Capitoline Hill. Under
se structures became numerous and
vere decorated with bas-reliefs and
ee of what were properly triumphal
n in Rome, those, namely, of Titus,
is, and Constantine. Numerous
ts exist also in other parts of the
ire, as at Rimini, Susa, Verona,
in France), Capura (in Spain).

OGY (Gr. *archeios*, ancient, and
) is the name now very generally
ly which was formerly known as
ties.' The term is well enough
ugh its meaning is not at all
In its widest sense, it includes
of the origin, language, religion,
literature, science, arts, manners,
ing, in a word, that can be learned
and being of a people. When so
nds more or less of several branches
ich are recognised as distinct or
nts, such, for example, as eth-
, history, chronology, biography,
matics. In its narrower but per-
ar signification, A. is understood to
y, preservation, collection, arrange-
ion, publication, description, inter-
dation of the materials from which
he ancient condition of a country
. These materials will be found
elves into three great classes:
monumental, and (3) traditional.
alled written A., may be again sub-
graphy (q.v.), or diplomatics (q.v.)
nce of ancient writings; and bibli-
the knowledge of printed books.
A. admits of almost endless subdi-
g to the character of the remains
ich may be works of art, such as
ns, paintings, engravings, inscrip-
s, seals, armorial-bearings, tapestry,
jewels, enamels, glass, porcelain,
engineering, such as roads, canals,
s, forts, walls; works of unskilful
lars of unhewn stone, caves, dikes,
f earth or stone; articles of dress,
nal ornament; tools, weapons,
ils, machines; appliances for loco-
canoes, boats, ships, carriages;
re, such as mummies, sarcophagi,
graves; vestiges of man and
skulls, bones, skins. 3. Tradi-
as well the unwritten language
of a people, their dialects, legends,
ymes, songs, and ballads, as those
remonies, rites, and superstitions
be known by the name of 'folk-
r called 'popular antiquities.'
. in modern Europe may be held
revival of letters. It was long
y confined to the antiquities of
omans. About the middle of the
A., or the antiquities of the Dark
began to be cultivated. Egyptian
y,' as it is sometimes called, made
le progress until the discovery of
e, containing a bilingual and tri-
which enabled Young in 1819, and
821, to find a key to the hiero-
more recent discoveries of Botta,
on, and others, have already
n A. to a point beyond all expecta-
tion. Indian A. has been successfully prosecuted, especially during the last forty years, chiefly by officers of the East India Company. Something also has been done by them and others for Chinese A. Men of letters in the United States have devoted their time to the rude and scanty remains of the aboriginal inhabitants of North America. The A. of Central and South America, as it attracted attention much earlier, so its more stately and instructive monuments have much better rewarded such investigations as those of Lord Kingsborough, Messrs Stephens and Catterwood, and others.

The study of A. has been largely promoted by the publication, at the expense of the state, in various countries, of the national chronicles, charters, and records; by societies and clubs contributing to the same end, or printing essays on questions of A.; and by the establishment by the state, by associations, or by individuals, of museums for the collection and classification of antiquities. In England, a society for promoting the study of antiquity was founded so early as the year 1572. The irrational jealousy of the government dissolved it in 1604. It was revived in 1707, enlarged in 1717, and incorporated by royal charter in 1751, under the name of the 'Society of Antiquaries of London.' An attempt to institute a similar society in Scotland was made about 1700 by 'some honourable and knowing gentlemen,' who resolved to continue their conferences till a complete historical account be made of the nation. But it was not until 1780 that the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland was incorporated by royal charter. The Royal Irish Academy for promoting 'the study of science, polite literature, and antiquities,' was chartered in 1786. The Society of Antiquaries of Scotland, and the Royal Irish Academy, have good museums of national antiquities. The British Museum in London (established in 1753), besides a great collection of early manuscripts and printed books, has galleries of Assyrian, Egyptian, Etruscan, Greek, Roman, British, and Mediæval antiquities. One of the most remarkable collections of antiquities on the continent, is that of the Royal Society of Antiquaries of the North, at Copenhagen, arranged so as to illustrate a favourite theory of the Scandinavian archæologists that the primitive antiquities of a country may be assigned to three successive ages or periods of stone, bronze, and iron, with as much certainty and precision as the comparative antiquity of geological strata, or periods of the world's creation, may be determined by the fossils which they are found to contain. The museums of the Louvre and the Hôtel de Cluny, in Paris, contain fine collections of Assyrian, Egyptian, Greek, and Roman antiquities, and an unrivalled collection of Mediæval antiquities. The Royal Museum at Naples has gathered together the statues, paintings, vases, household utensils, and other objects recovered during the last hundred years from the ruins of Herculaneum and Pompeii. These long buried cities may be regarded as being in themselves museums of Roman A.

ARCHANGEL, the chief city in the Russian department of Archangel, is situated in lat. 64° 32' N., and long. 40° 33' E., about 40 miles above the junction of the river Dwina with the White Sea; is the seat of an archbishop, and contains 1867, 19,936 inhabitants. Its name is taken from the monastery of St Michael. A. is the chief commercial city for the north of Russia and Siberia, and is visited by numerous vessels—especially British—from July to September, the port being clear of ice only during that period. The houses are built chiefly of wood; and their general appearance is far from handsome. The finest edifices are the bazaar or mart, and the

marine hospital. A. has an ecclesiastical college with 9 professors, schools for engineering and navigation, &c. The chief articles of traffic are fish, train-oil, skins, furs, timber, wax, iron, tallow, bristles, caviare. The town, which is the oldest seaport of the empire and was for a long period the only one, was founded in 1584. Its merchants trade as far east as China, and have all the commerce of Siberia. During summer, A. has a continual market.

ARCHA'NGEL (from the Greek prefix *archi-* or *arch-*, denoting chief, and *angelos*, an angel), a term which occurs in the New Testament; and which, according to some, is there a title of our Saviour—but according to others, designates an angel superior in power and glory to the other angels. We read, in the Epistle of Jude, of 'Michael the A.', and in Rev. xii. 7, of 'Michael and his angels.' In 1 Thess. iv. 16, we are told that the coming of our Lord at the last day shall be 'with the voice of the A., and with the trump of God.' We nowhere read in the Holy Scriptures of *archangels*, although the plural is popularly as much used as the singular. The notion of an angelic hierarchy certainly prevailed among the Jews, the highest place being assigned to Michael; and the same notion has extensively prevailed in the Christian church. There are passages of Scripture which seem to indicate different degrees and classes among the angelic hosts, but no clear revelation has been made upon this subject. See ANGELS.

ARCHANGEL, NEW. See SITKA.

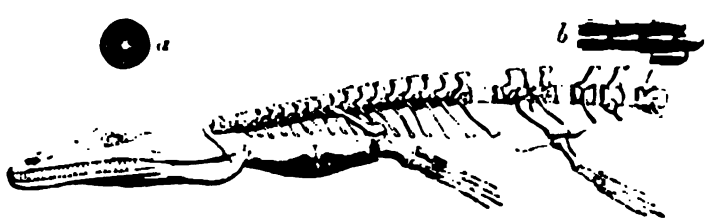
ARCHBI'SHOP (Gr. *arch-*, and *episcopos*, overseer) is the title given to a metropolitan bishop who superintends the conduct of the suffragan bishops in his province, and also exercises episcopal authority in his own diocese. The title arose, in the 3d and 4th centuries, from the provincial synods being held once or twice a year in the chief town of the province under the presidency of the bishop of the place. Another cause of the origin of the title is said to be the custom of planting new bishoprics as Christianity spread, a slight supremacy being still retained by the original over the newly-appointed chief pastors. In the Oriental Church, the archbishops are still called 'metropolitans,' from the circumstance first mentioned. In the African Church, on the other hand, the term used was 'primus.' The great archbishoprics of the early Church were those of Jerusalem, Antioch, Ephesus, Alexandria, Constantinople, and Rome. Since the 6th c., the A. of Rome has assumed the name of Pope (papa). There is an official letter by Justinian, addressed to 'John, A. of Rome and Patriarch;' and several ecclesiastical constitutions are addressed to 'Epiphanius, A. of Constantinople and Patriarch.' The synod of Antioch, in 341, assigned to the A. the superintendence over all the bishopries, and a precedence in rank over all the bishops of the church, who, on important matters, were bound to consult him and be guided by his advice. By degrees there arose, out of this superiority of rank, privileges which at length assumed the character of positive jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters. Many of these rights passed to the patriarchs (q. v.) towards the end of the 4th and during the 5th centuries, and still more to the pope in the 9th. The archbishops still retained jurisdiction, in the first instance, over their suffragans in matters which were not criminal, and over those who were subject to them they acted as a court of appeal. They possessed also the right of calling together, and presiding in, the provincial synods; the superintendence and power of visitation over the bishops of the metropolitan see; the power of enforcing the laws of the church; the dispensation of indulgences, and the like. ' further enjoyed the honour of hav carried before them in their own archiep in presence of the pope himself, and of *pallium*. In England, there are two of whom the one has his seat at Ca capital of the ancient kingdom of Kent York, the capital of Northumb R. ruling over a province in both have enjoyed the the first, the A. of Canter not merely precedence as and the senior A., but as posse and universal authority over This pre-eminence is marked they respectively assume—the A. of Ca styled the Primate of all England (*et primus totius Angliæ*), whilst the A. simply called Primate of England (*primus politanus Angliæ*). It is also indicated b which they occupy in processions—the A bury, who has precedence of all the only preceding the A. of York, but Chancellor being interposed between th ous to the creation of an arch the authority of the A. of to that island. The amount belongs to an A. over the bishops o not very accurately defined; but introduces irregularities into his guilty of immorality, the A. may account, and even deprive him. In Armagh, who is primate of all Irela Bishop of Clogher on the latter gro A. of Canterbury belongs the honour the crown on the sovereign's head at his and the A. of York claims the like pri case of the Queen-consort, whose perpetu he is. The province of the A. of York of the six northern counties, with Ch Nottinghamshire. The rest of Engl form the province of the A. of C dioceses of the two archbishops—th districts in which they exercise ordi functions—were remodelled by 6 and 7 The diocese of Canterbury comprises Kent the city and deanery of Rochester, and som transferred by this act; a number of th Sussex called 'peculiars;' with small d dioceses, particularly London. The A. of York embraces the county of York that portion of it now included in the di Ripon and Manchester; the whole ity of ham; and some other detached di

In Ireland, there are two Pro and Roman Catholic archbishops. Of A. of Armagh is primate of all Irela Dublin being Primate of Ireland. sat alternately in the House of Lor bishops who, along with them, Church of Ireland, being chosen by election of an A. does not differ bishop (see BISHOP); but w his office, he is said to be bishop is 'consecrated.' He also Divine Providence;' a bishop permission;' and has the title of 'Reverend Father in God,' whilst 'Lord,' and 'Right Reverend F A. is entitled to present to all in the disposal of diocesan bishop within six months; and every created or translated, was formerly a legal conveyance to the A. of the of one such dignity or benefice belo as the A. shall choose.

DEA'CON (Gr. *arch-*, and *diaconos*, An ecclesiastical dignitary whose juris- ediately subordinate to that of the A. originally was simply the chief of , who were the attendants and assistants sop in church affairs. His duties con- attending the bishop at the altar and at as, assisting him in managing the revenues urch, and directing the deacons in their From being thus mere assistants, archdea- se 5th c. began to share the bishop's powers, by step attained to the authority which enjoy, which from the 9th c. became in cts distinct from that of the bishop. ds protested against the innovation, continued in the 11th and 12th cen- —a the archdeacons were recognised as the ential of prelates. In the 13th c., their ere limited by the establishment of episco- . Their dignity and influence is now very ished in the Catholic Church. There were ty archdeaconries in England, but s has been considerably increased since of the act for carrying into effect the ne Ecclesiastical Commissioners (6 and 7 c. 77); and it is probable that under the of that act they may be still further . No person can be appointed an A. till een six years complete in priest's orders Vict. c. 113, s. 27). The duty of parochial has long been regarded as belonging to the archidiaconal office, and it was ecame mainly that the archdeacons attained ty of ordinary instead of delegated . Even in performing this function, and in holding general synods or visita- ering repairs of churches, and the like, properly to be regarded as being what n law called him, 'the bishop's eye.' s of the A.'s court, when he does not pre- ded 'the official.' There is an appeal to the Court of the Bishop, or in the case of an A. of an archbishopric, to the Court of Arches. See DEACON, DEAN, PRIEST. See also Cripps's *Law Relating to the Church and Clergy*. Edinburgh, 1857.

ARCHDU'KE. A. and Archduchess are titles now taken by all the sons and daughters of the Emperor of Austria, and by their descendants through the male line. The title of A. was gradually assumed by the dukes of Austria, as a mark of precedence over the other dukes of the empire. Duke Rudolph IV. of Austria, in 1359, called himself Palatinus Archidux, but he was not so styled by the emperor. His brothers, Albert and Leopold, did not assume the title after his death, though they had occasionally done so in his lifetime. The third son of Leopold, however, Ernest-the-Iron, revived it. Still he was addressed by the emperor simply as duke. At last the title was formally conferred on them by the Emperor Frederick III. in 1453, who himself, as duke, was the first recipient of the imperial gift. Still the usage was not uniform, for he afterwards speaks of himself as duke. The privilege was extended to the Tyrolian branch of the Austrian House in the person of Sigismund. The value of the dignity thus assumed was a cause of contention with Bavaria in 1589. The Austrian view was, that to duke it held the same relation that archbishop does to bishop. The dukes of Austria claimed to have always had precedence over the other ducal houses, and regarded the title as a mere indication of what had been universally acknowledged. Bavaria, on the other hand, relied on the greater antiquity of its dukedom. The contest was decided by the Emperor Rudolph II. in favour of Austria, the precedence of which has not since been called in question. Other dukedoms claimed the privilege of being so called, but it was invariably denied by the emperor.

ARCHEGOSAURUS, a remarkable fossil saurian reptile, so named by Goldfuss (*archegos*, leader;



Archegosaurus:
a, section of a tooth; *b*, scales.

s, lizard), as constituting the real begin- eptilian life, which had previously been l as not extending below the Permian ocks.

engraving, it will be seen that the head s protected by a firm dermal skeleton, of numerous plates, while the internal rtilage seems to have continued unossified. is flattened and triangular, with rounded e front one being somewhat lengthened. are simple cones, having a labyrinthic similar to that of the recent *Lepidosteus*. dral column remains in an embryonic ; the arches and peripheral elements of ra are ossified; but the *chorda dorsalis*, persistent, is unprotected below. The ort and almost straight, round and slender ldle, expanded and flattened at the ends. airs of limbs are nearly equal in size, and re very much resemble those of the *Proteus*. They have each four long, slender digits, which obviously supported a longish, narrow-pointed paddle, adapted for swimming. Externally, the body was protected by a covering of oblong quadrangular scales, which have been preserved in some specimens.

Four species have been described.

The history of the A. is shortly this: Its remains, found in the Bavarian coal-measures, had been described as those of a fish under the name of Pygopterus Lucius (Agassiz). In 1844, H. von Meyer first described it under the name of *Apateon pedestris*. This specimen was found in the coal-measures of Münster-Appel, in Rhenish Bavaria, and was supposed by Meyer to be related to the salamanders, and yet not without considerable doubt; for he says, 'its head might be that of a fish, as well as that of a lizard, or of a batrachian.' In 1847, Goldfuss figured and described three distinct species discovered in large concretionary nodules of clay-ironstone, from the coal-field of Saarbrück,

giving to them the generic name of A. He considered them to be a transition state between the fish-like batrachia and the lizards and crocodiles. Professor Owen has subsequently described this fossil; he makes it a remarkable connecting link between the reptile and the fish, and on these grounds: It is related to the salamandroid-ganoid fishes by the conformity of pattern in the plates of the external cranial skeleton, and by the persistence of the *chorda dorsalis*, as in the sturgeon, while it is allied to the reptiles by the persistence of the *chorda dorsalis*, and the branchial arches, and by the absence of the occipital condyle, or condyles, as in *Lepidosiren*, and by the presence of labyrinthic teeth, as in *Labyrinthodon*, which, however, also ally it to the ganoid *Lepidosteus*. There is thus in the A. a blending together of the characteristics of reptile and fish in one animal. It occupies a position between, and equally related to, the salamandroid-ganoid fishes on the one hand, and the labyrinthodont reptiles on the other, while the latter conduct us through the *Lepidosiren* to the perennibranchiate batrachia.

ARCHELAUS, one of the Heraclidæ, who, when driven by his brothers from his native land, fled to Macedon, where he became the founder of a powerful family, of which Alexander the Great was said to be a descendant.—ARCHELAUS, natural son of the Macedonian king, Perdiccas II., came to the throne (after he had murdered the rightful heir) in 413 B.C. His reign was far better than its commencement, as he introduced several salutary measures, and was a generous patron of art and literature. Euripides and Zeuxis frequented his court; and the palace of the monarch was splendidly adorned by the paintings of the latter. It is said that Socrates refused an invitation to proceed thither, having no great respect for the character of A., which was stained with odious vices. He is believed to have been murdered by Craterus, one of his favourites; but the story of his death is told differently.—A., a general under Mithridates the Great, was sent into Greece with a large fleet and an army of 120,000 men to oppose the Romans in 87 B.C. Sulla was sent against him, and besieged him in Piræus, whence A. moved to Bœotia, and here collected all his forces. A battle took place at Chæroncia, when victory declared for the Romans. A. now retreated to Chalcis, where he waited until Mithridates had despatched another army of 80,000 men into Greece. The second fight took place at Orchomenos, in Bœotia, and, after two days' contest, the whole host led by A. was totally routed by Sulla. A., after hiding for three days in a morass, escaped to Chalcis. After a treaty of peace had been effected between Sulla and Mithridates, A. fell under the displeasure of his monarch, being unjustly suspected of treason, and, fearing for his life, as also perhaps disgusted at the return he had received for his many services, he went over to the Romans at the outbreak of the second war, in 81 B.C. After this time, he appears no more in history.—A., son of the former, married Berenice, daughter of King Ptolemæus Auletes (56 B.C.), and ruled over Egypt for the short space of six months during the banishment of Ptolemæus. The usurper lost his life in a battle against Aulus Gabinius, proconsul of Syria. His grandson, also named A., obtained from Marcus Antonius the province of Cappadocia, and retained it during the reign of Augustus. Tiberius accused him of political innovations, and condemned him to death; but, as he was old and fatuous, his life was spared. He died soon after his trial, at Rome, in 17 A.D.—A., son of Herod, the tyrant of Judea, succeeded his father in 1 A.D., and maintained his position against an insurrection raised by the Pharisees. His heirship to the throne be by his brother Antipas, A. went to Rom authority was confirmed by August Ethnarch of Judæa, S ria, and a reign of nine years, h deno on account of his cruel t Vienna, in Gaul, where h were added to the Roman

ARCHENHOLZ, J NN VON, a German author, b S 28, 1812. After service in t discharge at the close of the passed several years in travel, visiti principal cities of Europe, and supp authorship, and, as it was generally rep gambling. He wrote a *History of the Sev War* (2 vols., Berlin, 1793), which, when with the generally dry style of his Ge poraries, deserves praise on acc tive interest. He also wrote *L* (2d edition, Leip. 1787), *Annals of* (1789—1798), and biographies of of England, and Gustavus Vasa of S

ARCHER FISH, a name given t small East Indian fishes of the A family of *Squamipennes* or *C* have the faculty of projecting sure aim at insects, and thereby c into the water, where they are i prey. *Toxotes jaculator*, one of fish about six or seven inches in len Java and other parts of the Indian A is that to which the name A. F. strictly appropriated. It can project a d to the height of four or five feet. It known recent species of its genus, b fossil one. *Chelmon rostratus*, also a J possesses the same power, and Chi keep it in jars for their amu it a practise its art by placing insec

ARCHERS AND ARCHERY. soldiers whose weapons are the bow Among the ancients specially emi mode of warfare, we may particular cians, Cretans, Parthians, and Numidians; moderns, the Arabians, Germans, and The Emperor Frederick II. deploy archers with great effect in his and to them is ascribed the vic at C in 1237. The archers belonged t and their province was to open Emperor Leo especially lauded the Arabian archers. In later ages, to be employed in England, where light armour, a short sword, and twenty or more arrows. At fought in small groups; in l masses. At the battle of Cre sions of 4000 men, 200 in line archers decided the fate of the d such as Cressy and Poitiers (13 Crévant (1423), Verneuil ((1429). The French archers English, in spite of the Charles VII. took with th in 1448 the *Franc-archers*, wh parish had to contribute was attended with so li was induced to take Scot make any head against the archers wore a coat of buffalo- linen, and were accompanied by this manner 2000 bowmen v fought under the Count de Bayonne in 1451. The

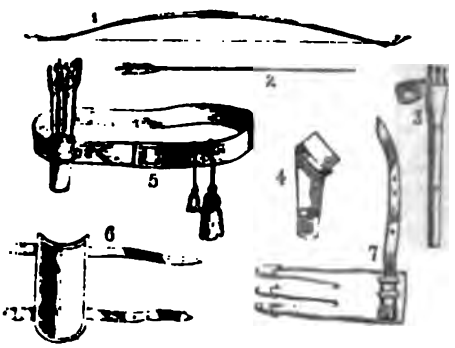
troops, and received higher pay one period, the arbalest or cross- favour than the long-bow. See ıfter the discovery of gunpowder, ınd arrow still used; as, for ex- of Capua in 1500; and the siege . Nay, even in 1572, Queen ı to place at the disposal of ı n. of whom the half were archers are the subject of ıy our old writers. Chaucer, in ıs, speaks of the archer

ı and hode of grene,
eacock arwes brighte and kene,
lt he bare ful thriftilie
dresse his takel yewmanlie,
ɔaped not with fetheres lowe,
ınd he bare a mighty bowe.'

rtial Discipline, by Ralph Smithe, of Queen Elizabeth, we have a ılish archer two centuries after Captens and officers should be noble weapon the long-bow; and diers, according to their draught good bowes, well nocked, well ynge whippe in their nocke, and ɔed with wax braser, and shut- re strynges trymed as aforesaid; ı of arrows, with a case of leather he rayne, and in the same four- ı, whereof eight of them should ı residue, to gall or astoyne the lshot of light arrowes before they the danger of their harquebus ıan have a brigandine or a little ll or hufkyn, a maule of leade gthe, and a pike, and the same e with a hook and a dagger.'

o Turks, the Persians, the Tatars, the east, as well as the Ameri- and arrow are still used as wea- ırope, they are nearly abandoned ı. The chief differences between eapon employed by the archers are noticed under ARBALEST;

ı are still included among the arbarous and semi-barbarous ıl, archery is now nothing more ıcouraged by archery clubs or ense, however, archery is expe- being healthful as an out-door o further useful. During the archery was much patronised ll Fields being the chief scene his reign, archery fell into t a century. In 1776, a Mr hery in the neighbourhood of shortly there were several toxo- societies formed. The system hen another period of inactivity till 1844. In this last-named revived in Yorkshire, and has nding every year. A recom- sport is that ladies can take of the few open-air pastimes be said. In the modern exer- here are several varieties of the antagonistic parties; but ı target-shooting. In archery- of prizes are generally awarded, ; for the greatest number of ny part of the target, and for ch to the exact centre. The spot in the centre, a red ring white ring, then a black, and outside of all a white ring bordered with green. The merit of the shooting consists in a near approach to the exact centre or 'gold.' Two targets are generally used in a match, on opposite sides of the field, each by one party. The apparatus mostly used at these archery meetings is represented in the



Archery Apparatus.

annexed cut. 1 is the bow, varying in weight according to the strength of the person who is to use it; 2 is the arrow; 3 is the quiver, a tin case for holding arrows not immediately in use; 4 and 5 are the pouch and belt for holding the arrows actually in use. The tassel of the belt serves to clean the arrows when dusty. 6 is the brace, buckled round the left arm, to protect it from being hurt by the string when shooting; 7 is the shooting-glove, formed to protect the three fingers used in drawing the string. Besides these articles and the target, archers are sometimes provided with a large case called an 'ascham,' fitted up with the neces- sary drawers and compartments for the reception of the bow, arrows, string, and other necessary accoutrements.

In archery competition, the total number and value of each person's hits are registered on a scoring-card. The shots are usually punctured on a card with a pin, as being preferable to pencil or ink marks; and the mode of ascertaining the value of the hits, which is increased in proportion as they reach the centre, will be seen by the following example:

FORM OF THE SCORING-CARD.

Names.	Gold.	Red.	Inner White.	Black.	Outer White.	Total.	Value.
A	..	....	....	.....	.....	35	68
			.	.....	.....		
					..		
B	.	..	.....	.....	.....	26	48
			...	.	....		

It appears by the card that A has two in the gold, four in the red, six in the inner white, ten in the black, and thirteen in the outer white, making a total of thirty-five. The real value of these is ascer- tained by multiplying the hits in the gold by nine; in the red, by three; in the inner white, by two; by adding a fourth to those in the black, and leaving without alteration the number in the outer white. By this process it will appear that A's numbers, according to the *value* of each circle, amount to 68, and B's to 48—hence A is the winner by 20. But A's *total* might have been less than B's, and still he might have been the winner, provided the shots had lain more towards the gold than B's.

As an instance of the skill which long and careful practice may insure, Mr Horace A. Ford, who has written an excellent work on Archery, on one occasion, out of 144 shots, made 143 hits—765 score; on another, 144 shots, 137 hits—809 score; and on another, 75 shots, 75 hits—555 score.

A'RCHIL, or O'RCHIL, is a colouring substance obtained from various species of lichens. The A. is not originally present in the lichens, but is developed during a process of putrefaction and fermentation. The lichens, collected from rocks near the sea, are cleaned, ground into a powder with water, placed in tanks, and ammoniacal liquids—such as purified gas liquor or stale urine—added; when, by the combined influence of the ammonia, air, water, and the constituents of the lichens, a violet-coloured matter is generated, which appears for a time to dissolve in the water, but finally falls to the bottom of the vat in the condition of a moist powder or paste. The latter is then mixed with some substance like chalk or stucco, to give it consistence. The lichens which yield the best A. in largest quantity, are *Roccella tinctoria* and *fuciformis*. The former is called the *Archil* plant, and is obtained in large amount from the Canaries and Cape de Verd Islands, and the Levant. Another lichen, *Lecanora tartarea*, collected from rocks in Sweden, is largely imported into Britain. It is sometimes called cudbear (q. v.), or cudbear lichen, and sometimes white Swedish moss. A. is soluble in water and in alcohol, to either of which it imparts a violet colour, with a good deal of a crimson hue. It is much employed in the dyeing of silks, where a beautiful lilac colour is required; but though a brilliant rich hue is imparted to the silken fabric, the colour is not a permanent one, being easily acted upon by the rays of the sun. Hence the A. is seldom used by itself, and the cloth is first dyed lilac by another colouring matter, and is then passed through an A. dye, which imparts a brilliant lilac hue to the cloth. A. is seldom employed to dye cotton cloth, but it is often used, along with indigo, in the dyeing of woollen cloth; and besides enabling the indigo colour to go much further, it imparts its peculiar rich tint to the blue or black cloth or yarn immersed in it; the colour, however, so obtained is not so permanent as where the A. is left out. Cudbear (q. v.) and Litmus (q. v.) are analogous to A., and are obtained from the same lichens.

The lichen distinguished by the name of the A. plant or lichen, *Roccella tinctoria*, grows very sparingly on the southern coasts of England, but abundantly on the shores of the Mediterranean and of the neighbouring parts of the Atlantic, where it often covers rocks near the sea, so as to form what has been likened to a sort of turf upon them. The Spanish name is *Orciglia*, from which the French *Orseille*, the English A. or Orchil, and even the botanical name *Roccella*, are derived. It is of a substance between cartilaginous and leathery, roundish, pretty erect, branching in a dichotomous manner, of a grayish brown colour, with powdery warts (*soredia*); the *apothecia* (q. v.) orbicular, flat, horny, almost black, with a scarcely prominent border. That from the Canary Isles is generally regarded as the best. It seldom exceeds the thickness of a pin, and about an inch and a half in length. A less branched and more slender, prostrate, or pendulous variety (*Roccella hypomecha* of Bory de St Vincent) is common at the Cape of Good Hope and in the island of Mauritius, and appears in commerce along with the other, but is of very inferior quality. A variety remarkable for its large size, or perhaps a distinct species (*R. flaccida*), is brought from Lima and other parts of the west coast of South America; it is sometimes as thick as a 6 or 8 inches long, and is of All these, and *Roccella fuciformis*, very receive in commerce, and from A. name of Orchella weed, the different kinds distinguished according to the countries from they are imported. They are also known Dyer's Moss.—*R. fuciformis* now of the A. or Orchella weed of *tinctoria*. It differs from *R. tinctoria* not rounded, but flat, and in habit very distinctly bordered. It grows in tions, and is also a native of E only in warmer climates, as on Madagascar, &c. That from Angola the very best quality.

Among the lichens from which A. is tured is the *Parelle d'Auvergne* or *Orsi* (Ground A.) of the French, *Roccella corallina*, which is gathered mountainous districts of other parts of the south article of export (with other Sweden to Holland. But the which A. of the finest quality can the species of *Roccella*, and the increase of the supply from different quarters from Angola, tend to diminish the demand lichens.

ARCHI'LOCHUS of Paros, in about 714—676 B.C., and is regarded the Greek lyric poets, although the origin is claimed for Callinus, a writer whose have slightly preceded that of A. Of life, especially of the calamities frequently given in his writings. was Telesicles, his mother was At an early age, becoming entangled tests, he abandoned his native town of the citizens to Thasos. While us in some extant verses, he lost his against the Thracians, yet not through Subsequently he was banished which he had gone, some say vindicated his conduct in running away others, because of the licentiousness He is said to have gained the Olympic Games by an ode in honour but this is doubtful. Having returned took part in the war which broke Naxos, in the course of which he in battle or by ion. pronounced a curse upon him novelty, and satirical lyric poems; so much so, that ness,' and 'Parian verse,' became ancient times. He scourged most merciless fashion, and most malicious skill in selecting the points on which they were most said that Lycambes, who had promised Neobule in marriage to A., promise, was so severely assailed to escape ridicule, both themselves. Among the Homer. They dedicated same day, and placed the statue Homer on the same bust. It is and with high probability, that been far more in A. than mere ve Even Plato, who was not likely admiration in such a case, c wise;' and Gorgias, the rhetorician have said, when Plato sent against the Soph 'A new A.' There

en perception of truth in the man, to
so universal and permanent a reputation.
ine of Horace—who was a vigorous imi-
im in many respects—proves that 'rage'
ered 'the special faculty' of A.

ochum propriis rabies armarit iambo.'
Ars Poetica, line 79.

ath armed Archilochus with his own Iambus.'

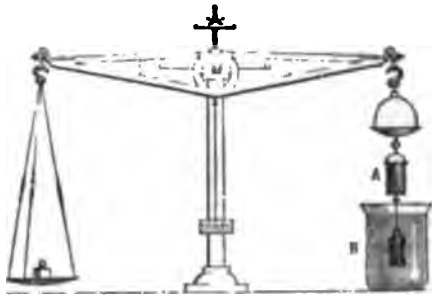
d *iambus* was in use before the time of A.,
mployed to denote a species of rude rail-
as flashed out spontaneously under the
xcitement of the Bacchic and other festi-
was, however, the first to reduce these
nd capricious effusions to fixed rules. See
The semi-pentameter, of which he made
use, was called after him *Archilochian*

gments extant of his poetry have been
Bergk in his *Poetæ Lyrici Græcorum*
843).

MA'NDRITE (Gr. *archi-*, chief, and
fold or a convent), the title of the highest
riors of convents in the Greek Church
). The Russian bishops are chosen from
archimandrites.

ME'DES, the most celebrated of ancient
cians, was born at Syracuse about 287
said to have been a kinsman of King Hiero,
does not seem to have held any public
devoted himself entirely to science. In
aathematics, we cannot estimate fully the
— without a more exact knowledge of the
science as he found it; we know, how-
he enriched it with discoveries of the
portance, on which modern mathemati-
founded their methods of measuring
aces and solids. Euclid only considers a
l figures in relation to one another, but
mparing them with rectilineal surfaces
The theorems necessary to this transi-
aid down by A. in his treatises 'on the
Cylinder,' 'on Spheroids and Conoids,' and
asurement of the Circle.' His demonstra-
he area of a segment of a parabola is two-
the enclosing parallelogram, is the first
le of the quadrature (q.v.) of a curvilinear
his treatise on spirals, he rises to yet
estigations, which, however, are not very
rstood even by masters of the subject.
only one of the ancients that contributed
atisfactory on the theory of mechanics
ydrostatics. He first established the
t a body plunged in a fluid loses as
ts weight as is equal to the weight of
volume of the fluid. (See the following
It was by this law that he determined
alloy the goldsmith, whom Hiero had
ed to make a crown of pure gold, had
y mixed with the metal. The solution of
n suggested itself to him as he was enter-
h, and he is reported to have been so over-
o hasten home without waiting to dress,
: 'I have found it! I have found it!'
Eureka.) Practical mechanism seems to
an equally new science in the days of A.;
that if he had a fulcrum or stand-point,
ve the world, betrays the enthusiasm
the extraordinary effects of his newly
machines inspired him. Among the
inventions ascribed to A., is that of the
ew, and the *cochlea* or water-screw (see
SCREW), in which the water is made in
o ascend by its own gravity. During the
racuse by the Romans, he exerted all his
s the defence of the city. Polybius, Livy,
and Plutarch speak with astonishment of the
machines with which he opposed the attacks of the
enemy. But while giving detailed accounts of his
other contrivances, they say nothing of his having
set fire to the ships by means of mirrors, a story
which is not very probable in itself, and rests on
later narratives. When the Romans took the
city by surprise (212 B.C.), A., according to the
tradition, was sitting in the public square lost
in thought, with all sorts of geometrical figures
before him drawn in the sand. As a Roman soldier
rushed upon him, he called out to him not to
spoil the circle! But the rude warrior cut him down.
According to his own direction, a cylinder enclosing
a sphere was engraved upon his tombstone, in com-
memoration of his discovery of the relation between
these solids—a discovery on which he set particular
value. When Cicero was in Sicily as quæstor, he dis-
covered the tomb hid among briers. His collected
extant works were edited by Torelli (Oxf. 1792).
There is a French translation with notes by F.
Peyrard (Paris, 1808, 2 vols.), and one in German by
Nizze (Strals. 1824). The *Arenarius* was translated
into English by G. Anderson (Lond. 1784). The
object of the treatise is to prove that it is possible
to assign a number greater than that of the grains
of sand that would fill the sphere of the fixed stars,
the diameter of which A. assumes at a certain num-
ber of stadia. The difficulty lay in expressing such
a vast number by means of the clumsy notation of
Greek arithmetic, and the device by which the
difficulty is eluded is considered as affording a
striking instance of A.'s genius.

ARCHIMEDES, the PRINCIPLE OF, is one of the
most important in the science of Hydrostatics, and
is so called because the discovery of it is generally
ascribed to the Syracusan philosopher. It may be
thus stated: A body when immersed in a fluid loses
exactly as much of its weight as is equal to the weight
of the fluid it displaces; or: A fluid sustains as much
of the weight of a body immersed in it as is equal to
the weight of the fluid displaced by it. It is proved
experimentally in the following way. A delicate
balance is so arranged that two brass cylinders, A
and B, may be suspended from one of the scale-pans,



the one under the other. The lower cylinder, B, is
solid, or closed all round, and fits accurately into the
upper cylinder, A, which is hollow. When the two
cylinders are placed under the one scale, pan-weights
are placed upon the other until perfect equilibrium
is obtained. The cylinder B is now immersed in
water, and in consequence of the buoyant tendency
of the water exerted upon it, the equilibrium is
destroyed; but it may be completely restored by
filling the hollow cylinder, A, with water. The
amount of weight which B has lost by being placed
in the water, is thus found to be exactly the same as
the weight of a quantity of water equal to its own
bulk, or which is the same thing, to the quantity of

water displaced by it. When bodies lighter than water are wholly immersed in it, they displace an amount of water of greater weight than their own, so that if left free to adjust themselves, they swim on the surface, only as much of their bulk being submerged as will displace a quantity of water weighing the same as themselves. Accordingly, while bodies heavier than water displace, when put into it, their own bulk, bodies lighter than water displace, when allowed to float on the surface, their own weight of the fluid. Bodies of the same weight as water, according to the principle of Archimedes, have no tendency to rise or sink in it, for the water displaced by them weighs precisely the same as they do. The pretty scientific toy called the Cartesian Diver is intended to illustrate this. Although the principle of Archimedes is generally established with reference to water, its application extends equally to bodies immersed in air or any other fluid.

ARCHIME'DES' SCREW (called also the *spiral pump*), a machine for raising water, said to have been invented by Archimedes, during his stay in Egypt, for draining and irrigating the land. Fig. 1 represents it in its simplest form. This consists of a

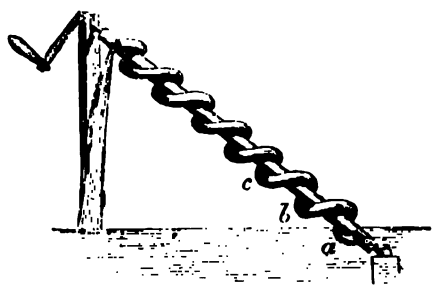


Fig. 1.

flexible tube bent spirally round a solid cylinder, the ends of which are furnished with pivots, so as to admit of the whole turning round its axis. The machine is placed in an inclined position, so that the lower mouth of the tube may dip below the surface of the water to be raised. In the position represented in the figure, the lowest bend (*a*) of the tube will be filled with water, and if now the handle be made to turn in the direction of the hands of a watch, the mouth of the spiral tube will be raised above the surface; and the water enclosed in the tube, having no means of escape, will flow within it until, after one revolution, it will occupy the second bend, *b*. The first bend (*a*) has meanwhile received a second charge, which, after a second revolution, flows up into the second bend (*b*), and takes the place of the first charge, which has now moved up to the third bend, *c*. When, therefore, as many revolutions of the cylinder have been made as there are turns in the spiral tube, each of the lower bends will be filled with water; and in the course of another revolution, there being no higher bend for the water of the first charge to occupy, it will flow out of the tube by its upper mouth. At each succeeding revolution, the lowest bend will be charged, and the highest discharged. It will be seen from the figure that there is room to dispose a second tube side by side with the first, round the cylinder, in which case the screw would be called double-threaded. In the ordinary construction of these machines, the cylinder itself is hollowed out into a double or triple threaded screw, and enclosed in a water-tight case, which turns round with it, the space between the threads supplying the place of such tubes in Fig. 1. Fig. 2 represents a double-thr of this description, with the case remove It is sometimes found convenient to fix

Fig. 2.

envelope, and to make the screw the outer edge of the latter being as to the former without actual contact. cation of the A. S. receives the name and frequently of Dutch screw, from its sively used in Holland for draining lo

ARCHIPE'LAGO, a term (of doc applied originally to that gulf of the which separates Greece from Asia; but to any sea, like it, thickly interspersed or rather to the group of islands th islands in the Greek Archipelago consist of two groups, called Cyclades the first from their being massed after of a circle, the second from their bein something of a line. The former lie t Southern Greece, while the latter ski of Asia Minor.

Of the Cyclades the principal isla Kythnos, Thera, Tenos, Andros, Na many more of inferior size. They *Greece*, and will more conveniently be connection with it. The chief isla are: Scarpanto, Rhodes, Cos, Pat Scio, Metelin, Lemnos, Imbros, and many more of inferior size. considered under the head of *Tu* still belong. Of both groups, able islands will be noticed, un arrangement, in their respective pla

The other Archipelagoes, loosely receive separate notice each in its pr

A remarkable circumstance ma connection with Archipelagoes. globe rarely stand alone. With they may all be classified into clusters, again, there is generally litude between the different memb tude sometimes of one kind, and so Perhaps the similitude that is most the face of an ordinary map, is tha links of a chain, the members of a c lengths, as distinguished from their and the same direction. In the We instance, look at the Bahamas, and Antilles, Greater and Lesser. In again, the same thing is seen in from the north end of the Phili end of Sumatra, or even of the on the opposite coasts of the Upp the American side upwards from Vancouver's Island to Mount St Asiatic side downwards from the of Kamtchatka—which is all but an the Kuriles, to the lower

(TURAL PAINTING has for its
xteriors or interiors of remarkable
rches, castles, streets in cities, &c.
l by Vitruvius, but is comparatively
Benozzo Gozzoli, Ghirlandajo, and the
l, cultivated this department of art in
; and Pinturicchio, by order of Pope
, painted a series of views of cities in
e Flemish school, which, under the
Eyck, had distinguished itself by
nt of architectural backgrounds, &c.
, A. P. was regarded only as accessory
of art; but, at the close of the 16th
his views of the interiors of Gothic
to this branch of the fine arts an
rm; and Steenwyck the younger, in
entury, extended its application in
he interiors of prisons, of which his
ter Liberated from Prison' is an
art was still further extended and
'an der Heijden, Block, Van Deelen,
ann Ghering, and others who painted
interiors in the Italian style, palaces,

The interior view of the Church
painted by Ruisdael, deserves especial
18th c., the Venetian Canale and his
to (generally known by the name of
ated many views of cities, but especi-
als and buildings of Venice. Collec-
numerous works are found at Dresden,
, &c.

nes, A. P. has been very successfully
ermany, France, England, Holland,
Schinkel is celebrated for his fine
al taste with richness of decorative
s two most striking works are St
he Duomo at Milan; Paul Gropius
at talent in his Cathedral at Rheims,
r of Joan of Arc. His dioramas are
and Domenico Quaglio, who died in
at his innumerable compositions, has
xquisite appreciation of perspective,
tical arrangement of details. Among
ters may be mentioned in England,
Italy, Germany, &c.), Roberts (whose
ght for its materials in Spain and the
paints the architecture of foreign
re truthfulness and lively vigour),
dall, Williams, and the water-colour
e, Chase, Howse, and others; in
t (died 1849), the most celebrated
the new French school; and the
anters Ouvrie, Garnery, Rochebrune,
in Italy—Migliara and Nehrlich (a
has been styled 'the modern Cana-
ermany Von Bayer, Hasenpflug of
who paints beautifully old cloister-
inter-effects), Ammuller, Vermeersch,
seldorf (who displays great skill in
tion of old streets and time-worn
ral, Gärtner, Grob, Heilt, Dietrich,
nd and Bellaum Waldorp, Carsen,
Haanen, Ten Kate, Springer, and

CTURE (Lat. *architectura*, from the
the chief fabricator, the architect), the
or constructing. In this country, A. is
l into Civil, Military, and Naval. In
ticle we shall confine ourselves to the
latter being treated of, the former
d of FORTIFICATION, the latter under
BUILDING. Civil A., when taken in
se, may be regarded either from an
entific, or a utilitarian point of view,
r, as a means of giving external form
expression to mental conceptions or
ideas, it is a branch of æsthetics, or of the fine arts properly so called (see ART), and takes rank with sculpture and painting; in the second case, it consists in a knowledge of certain laws of physical nature, and a consequent power of calling them into play, or counteracting their operation, and is consequently a branch of that wider department of science to which the name of *Mechanics* (q. v.) is given; whereas in the last it becomes a practical art, which has for its object the application of the principles, both artistic and scientific, which A. embraces, to the elevation of national and individual character, and the increase of the physical comfort and well-being of mankind. But though it admits of being thus analysed or separated in thought, it must not be imagined that A. can exhibit in practice any one of these principles to the exclusion of the others. The abstract conception of all-pervading deity, as embodied in the Greek temple—the religious aspiration after a personal god, as shadowed forth in the Gothic cathedral—can be realised only in accordance with the principles of mechanics, and the most rigorous adaptation of means to ends; whereas, in an opposite direction, the kraal of the Hottentot, the hut of the Indian in the American wilderness, or even the vulgar chimney-stalk in the dingy manufacturing suburb, if properly constructed for their respective purposes, will be found to have obeyed such æsthetical principles as they may have come in contact with. Nature is not self-contradictory; and art and science, beauty and utility, when rightly understood, are never in conflict. A celebrated German writer and thinker (F. Schlegel) has described A. as 'frozen music;' and the comparison is in accordance with the remarks which we have made; for music, though apparently the freest and most lawless, is in reality the most rigorously scientific of the arts. But though a strict adherence to all the principles of A. be indispensable to every genuine architectural structure, whatever be its object, it by no means follows that equal prominence must be given to each of these principles on every occasion. If a building has for its primary object the expression and commemoration of such feelings as grief, gratitude, devotion, or the like, this object manifestly will be best attained by subordinating the scientific and utilitarian to the æsthetic principles of A.; and the reverse will be the case where mere convenience, and also, though in a lesser degree, where convenience, in combination with beauty or magnificence, is sought. It is in a great measure by the prominence which they have given to one or other of these principles, that different nations have displayed their diversities of character in their A. The speculative and poetical character of the Greeks was exhibited in their temples, whilst their preference of the state to the individual appeared in the fact that these structures were designed for the worship of the protecting divinity of the city by the citizen, not for the worship of a personal god by the individual man. Amongst the Romans, again, terrestrial power and material aggrandisement were the exclusively national aspirations, and consequently their A. had their own honour and glory primarily in view. The basilicas, amphitheatres, and triumphal arches of the Romans were their own; but the temples which they raised in honour of the gods, were little else than imperfect copies from the Greek, with scarcely any assignable national characteristics. Then, when we come to mediæval times, though, on the revival of spiritual tendencies, æsthetic principles again become prominent, they exhibit themselves under totally different forms; and the distinctions between heathen and Christian thought could scarcely be more distinctly
words than they are exhibited to the

difference between a Greek temple and a Gothic cathedral. Even the relation which subsists between Christian and Mohammedan A. (Gothic A. and Arabian A., q. v.) strikingly reminds us of the fact that Mohammedanism was but a sort of bastard Christianity. Domestic life again appeared in full purity and vigour only in modern times; and then only do we see the utilitarian principles of A. finally prevailing over the æsthetic. But apart from the mental characteristics and tendencies of a people, there are many other circumstances which modify their A. Of these, one of the most important is climate. Arrangements for the permanent and commodious residence of the family within doors could not be expected to attain much perfection amongst a race like the Greeks, whose life was spent in the open air; and the climate of Holland, as well as the genius of the people and the character of their occupations, has had much to do with the fact that the Dutch have rarely risen above a town-house. Following thus the peculiarities of national character and circumstances, it is obvious that the more widely these differ in any two nations, the more dissimilar will be the styles of A. which they produce respectively. Moreover, it is apparent that the higher the stage of national development, the more marked will be the character which the A. of a people will assume. A. thus bears a strict analogy to language. Both are an expression of thought, and in the one and in the other, the richness, variety, and precision of the expression will be in proportion to the quantity and quality of the thought to be expressed. Lastly, in the fact that all genuine A. is the expression of the ruling national ideas and forms of thought of some one particular people, we perceive the reason why a building compounded of several styles should be characterless and unpleasing; and why this should be more and more the case, the more characteristic the styles compounded, and the greater the equality preserved amongst them. The Doric pillar in itself, and still more, perhaps, the Roman adaptation of it, is the simplest and most rudimentary of all pillars; and what we are in the habit of calling Saxon, is the simplest and most rudimentary of all the styles of Gothic A.; and hence the introduction of a few Tuscan pillars considerably modified into a Saxon or Romanic church, does not awaken feelings of very decided repugnance, whereas an attempt to combine equally the beauties of the Parthenon and of Cologne Cathedral in the same building would be unspeakably revolting. The limits of the present article preclude us from presenting to the reader a consecutive account of the origin and development of the different styles of A. These will be treated under separate heads (see EGYPTIAN A., INDIAN A., GREEK A., GOTHIC A., ARABIAN A.; see also ARCH, PILLAR, ARCHITRAVE, &c.); and all that can be here attempted is to trace the earlier stages through which A. passed in the historical nations, before it reached the point at which it afforded the means of expressing the feelings or supplying the wants of mankind.

1. The earliest stage of monumental A. in every part of the world seems to have been that in which it supplied to the existing generation the means of setting a mark on the face of the earth, of a nature so ineffaceable as that it should continue to be visible to future generations. No attempt was yet made to tell a tale either by the form of the monument, or by any figure or inscription engraven on it. Apart from the tradition intended to accompany it, it was speechless—confessedly unintelligible. But it is easy to see how powerful would be the effect of such an erection in preserving that tradition from oblivion, and fixing it down to the particular locality; for so long as a conspicuous object existed, which obviously was the work of human hands, the cause of its existence would be a subject of curiosity, which could be gratified only by inquiries which must lead to a recital of the events intended to be commemorated. It was with this view that Joshua (xxiv. 26) took a stone, and set it up under an oak that was by the sanctuary of the Lord—'And said unto all the people: Behold, this stone shall be a witness unto us; for it hath heard all the words of the Lord.' To this primary class of monuments belong those tumuli or barrows, and conical heaps of stones called cairns, carns, or kearns, which, when they occur in Britain, we perhaps rightly ascribe to the Celtic portion of our forefathers, but which there is much reason to believe have been erected by every race at a certain stage of their progress. The b ow. it is true, is not wholly destitute of architect… Occasionally it contains a passage … leading to a square enclosure or … in which the remains of bones, and … drinking-cups, and other articles, som … Roman or Brito-Roman manufacture, &c. The barrows are always, however, of the and most inartificial construction, and in … ing them, we are only, as it were, on the threshold of architectural science.

2. The earliest class of erections to which title can with any propriety be given, which are commonly spoken of as Druidic… These consist generally of separate stones, enormous size, raised on their ends, sometim… circle, and at other times so as to enclose an … space, which in some cases is roofed in by h… tal slabs. These roofing-stones are frequen… such prodigious weight as to give rise to many … jectures regarding the mechanical means by which, and the mechanical knowledge of those by whom, they were placed in the positions in which we … them. These strange, and, to us, alm… unintelligible remains of antiquity, whe… extent, assume an air of savage and gloomy … Of this the most conspicuous instance … to be found is that of Stonehenge (q. v.), in … bury Plain in Wiltshire. Wherever a Celtic … lation existed, these monuments are to be … Druidical monuments are more common … than in England; and in France, as expected, they exist in the greatest n… variety in Brittany (q. v.), though not… approach the magnitude, or, in some r… the workmanship of Stonehenge. The Celtic … ments of Brittany are of different classes, and received different names—that which is … tectural in character being the d… as it is called in England. The … generally of two rows of perpen… arranged so as to fit pretty closely to … and covered with horizontal roofing-slabs … ing a chamber, which is generally of such … to allow a man to walk through it upright. largest and most perfect specimen of the d… to be seen, not in Brittany, but in the n… hood of Saumur on the Loire. It measures … 80 feet in length. To the same e… r stage … science, though probably to a much … er pe… point of time, are to be referred those … … and fortifications which at Tiryns and … Argolis excited the wonder of the later … Etruscan walls at Fiesole; and the … tures which are found both in Centra… and America.

3. The next stage in advance of that primeva… pre-historic one of which the traces are … widely spread, is that at which the science … have culminated in all but the

races which have had the benefit
d invention. We have here an
ent of parts, and a corresponding
ding. The pillar also makes its
it is by no means used with the
does it exhibit the same variety
attained in Greek A. The stage
peak was attained by the inhabi-
nd Southern America before its
eans; and in Mexico, even by the
er race, which had given way
ns of the days of Cortes. Peru
ther columns nor arches; but the
ace at Mitla possessed a portico
cal columns; and the walls were
sculpture. In the cloisters of a
ue, a species of imitative trian
by courses of stones projecting
as found. It is very instructive
tural, and, so to speak, necessary
n architectural forms at certain
development, to find that the
little more than a regularly con-
nect with even more frequently
Egypt; and whether or not we
mary form of the pagoda of India,
the basis both of Mexican and
discussions which have been
much keenness as to the priority
and Egyptian A., lose much of
hen we find a race, acting in all
dently of both, starting from the
as the one, and in the discovery
e arch, making two of the most
urther steps in advance to which
y claim. Keeping these facts in
, moreover, that something more
an historical connection between
n A. than the circumstance that
hey respectively employ possess a
capital, or that both are used to
ure. Even the long unbroken hori-
em to indicate an affinity between
yles of Egypt and of Greece, and
them both so sharply from the
heval Europe, may be the result
ty of circumstances than an iden-
ough these styles agree in having
h the columns support horizontal
h, they disagree in the forms of
character of the entablature, and
every other particular. Whilst
towards the top, and the walls
yptian buildings the very reverse
pillars being vertical, and the
n the effect of a whole Greek
ed by a colonnade, and of an
is considered, a certain similarity
n each case being wider than the
e result is produced in the one
e pillars, and in the other, by
he external edges of which form
gle with the base of the building.
on, however, between the A. of
consists in the stages which they
d. The A. of Egypt retained
ster of gloomy strength, and
he lightness, freedom, or variety
In the one case, the traditionary
oughout to dominate and subdue
art; in the latter, art triumphed
l owned no laws but its own.
stance that the distinction com-
age of A. of which Egyptian may
type, and of which Assyrian,
erman A. are also examples, and
that ultimate stage which was reached by the Greeks in one direction, and by the various Germanic nations in another. See ARABIAN A., BYZANTINE A., and GOTHIC A.

ARCHITRAVE (Gr. *archi*, chief; Lat. *trabs*, beam), the lowest part of the entablature (q. v.), or that which rests immediately upon the columns.

ARCHIVES. See RECORDS.

ARCHIVOLT, the ornamental band or moulding which runs round the lower part of the voussoirs of an arch.

ARCHON, the highest magistrate in Athens. The government was originally monarchical; but on the death of Codrus (q. v.), the Athenians, according to the traditionary account, resolved that no one should succeed him with the title of king (*basileus*), and therefore appointed his son Medon with the title A. (ruler). The office was at first for life, and confined to the family of Medon; but in 752 B.C., the time of office was limited to ten years; and in 714, the exclusive claims of Medon's family to the office of A. were abrogated, and it was thrown open to all persons of noble birth; afterwards to all citizens, without distinction of rank (477 B.C.). In 683, the office had been made annual, and the number of archons had been extended to nine. The year was named from the first A.; to the second, styled Basileus, belonged the care of religious affairs; the third was Polemarchos, or commander-in-chief; and the remaining six, having to conduct all criminal trials, were styled Thesmothetæ, or lawgivers. Among the Jews, during the time of their subjection to the Romans, the title of A. had various meanings; but was generally given to the members of the Sanhedrim or supreme council. In the mystical jargon of the Gnostics, the term A. was frequently employed, and hence one of their sects, especially opposed to Judaism, received the name ARCHONTICS. See GNOSTICS.

ARCHYTAS of Tarentum, one of the most illustrious men of antiquity, flourished about the year 400 B.C. His father's name was Mnesagoras. A. is said to have been a contemporary of Plato, and on one occasion to have saved the life of the latter when the tyrant Dionysius wished to put him to death. His public career was glorious. He was seven times elected general of his city, though it was customary for the office to be held only for one year; and in every campaign which he undertook, he was victorious. His civil administration was equally fortunate. Affairs of the highest moment were repeatedly intrusted to him; and yet, though deeply skilled in philosophy and politics, he was possessed of a childlike simplicity of character. He was drowned on the Apulian coast. A.'s virtues were as conspicuous as his talents. He paid the most humane attention to the comfort and education of his slaves, and although one of the greatest geometricians, he did not disdain to make a rattle for the amusement of his children. He solved the problem of the doubling of the cube, and secured almost the reputation of a magician by his numerous mechanical contrivances, the most wonderful of which was the flying pigeon. A Pythagorean in philosophy, he is generally supposed to have exerted a considerable influence on Plato, and some affirm that even the gigantic understanding of Aristotle was indebted to him for the idea of his categories. Only fragments of his writings remain. They relate to metaphysics, ethics, logic, and physics.

ARCIS-SUR-AUBE, a small town in the French department of Aube, situated in lat. 48° 32′ N., long. 4° 8′ E., with (1872) 2781 inhabitants, is remarkable on account of the battle fought here, March 20, 21, 1814, between Napoleon and the

allied forces under Prince Schwartzenberg. The battle, beginning with several skirmishes on the first, and ending in a general engagement on the second day, when the French retreated over the Aube, was not in itself very important. But Napoleon now formed the plan of operating in the rear of the Allies, and left the road to Paris open; assuming that they would not venture to proceed without attempting first to secure their rear. The Allies marched, nevertheless, on the capital, and thus decided the campaign.

A'RCOLA, or A'RCOLÉ, a village on the left bank of the Adige, in northern Italy, 15 miles E.S.E. of Verona, famous for the victory gained by Bonaparte over the Austrians, 17th November 1796. The Austrians, relieved by the retreat of Moreau from the Rhine, had begun to take the offensive in Italy, and General Alvinzy appeared at the head of 50,000 men, with the main body of which he advanced to Caldiero, and threatened Verona. Bonaparte, recognising the danger, descended by night the course of the Adige, crossed that river at Ronco, and was thus in a position to threaten the left flank of Alvinzy's army, which was posted at A. A causeway leads from Ronco across the morasses to A., before reaching which, the road crosses the small stream of the Alpon by a narrow bridge. This bridge was defended by the Austrian general, Mittrowsky, with fourteen battalions of infantry, and two squadrons of cavalry. On the 14th of November, Augereau attacked the bridge with two battalions of grenadiers, but being exposed in flank to the Austrian fire, was obliged to withdraw. Bonaparte now seized the standard himself, and rushed on the bridge, followed by the grenadiers; but again the fire of the Austrians, who were in much greater force than the French, made it necessary to draw back. The struggle was renewed on the 16th, with a similar result; and it was only on the 17th that the French succeeded in getting possession of A., not, however, by forcing the bridge, but by sending a column across the Alpon, lower down, and getting in rear of the Austrians. On this Alvinzy was obliged to retreat to Vicenza. It fared no better with the other column of the Austrians under Davidovich. In this series of battles the Austrians lost 18,000 men killed, and 6000 prisoners. The French loss was 15,000.

ARÇON, JEAN CLAUDE D', a distinguished French engineer, born at Pontarlier, 1733, was originally intended for the church, but on manifesting a decided preference for the study of Vauban, his father, an eminent jurisconsult, consented to his choice of a military profession. In 1754, he entered the Military School at Mézières, and, in the following year, he passed as an engineer. During the Seven Years' War, he acquired considerable reputation, especially in the defence of Cassel. His fertility of invention was surprising, and of the greatest benefit to that branch of the service with which he was connected. In all his writings—which, in spite of a very faulty style, can be read with pleasure—there are indications of a lively, rich, and vigorous genius. He was even bold enough to question the wisdom of certain strategical propositions of the Great Frederick. But his most famous scheme was that by which he hoped to reduce Gibraltar, then in the hands of the English, and defended by Governor Elliot. He contrived floating batteries, incombustible, and not liable to sink, which, however, were not successful, though this is mainly to be attributed to the fact of his efforts being indifferently supported. When the French, under Dumouriez, overran Holland, A. took several strongly-fortified places, amongst others, Breda. After this, he retired from public life, and confined himself to the literature of his His most important work is, *Considéra taires et Politiques sur les Fortifications* (P In 1799, Bonaparte called him to the se died the year after.

ARCOS DE LA FRONTE'RA, a to right bank of the Guadalete, in Andalu Its principal manufacture is that of tana which was the first established in Andalu and ropes are also manufactured. Pop. de la F. has a wild and roma harmonises well with the pic inhabitants, who still wear the It was called Arcos, from being buil a 'bow;' and after Alfonso-el-Sabio ha from the Moors, it received the addition *de la Frontera*, from its frontier position, b vicinity of the Moorish kingdom of Granad impregnable by nature, it was fu with walls and towers, part of and afford a magnificent view of tains. The rich plains that lie be are famed in the Spanish ballads fo war-steeds, 'Arcos barbs.'

ARCOT, a city of Hindustan, in the of Madras, the capital of the division of name. It is situated on the right bank of a river which, rising in Mysore, is, in season, about half a mile wide before stands in N. lat. 12° 54', and in E. is distant from Madras 65 miles. tary cantonment, which can acc regiments of cavalry, A. contains in a tolerable state of repair, and Nawaab's palace. The town and are stated to contain 10,042 houses, inhabitants.

A. is chiefly noticeable for its history. spot where Clive first firmly established reputation. With a force of 300 Seapoys peans, and three field-pieces, he mar which was garrisoned by 1100 men; taken it, he stood a siege of fifty da sands of assailants, amid hardships an every description.

ARCOT, a division of the presidency of consists of two parts, the northern and th of which the respective areas are 5790 sq and 7600, and the respective populati to the census of 1871, 2,007,667 and

As most of the rivers are destitute dry season, there are thousands of t Some of them are of an enormous Cavery-pak, in particular, measures three. These tanks are indispensa irrigation as for domestic use. The ho winds from the west, sweeping down the Eastern Ghaats, are often fatal t wing, and also to human beings when length of time. Glass cracks and flies and wood shrinks, splits, and mutual friction of the saple combustion sometimes takes place i

ARCTIC means, properly, lyi stellation of the Bear (Gr. *arctos*), an The Arctic Circle is a circle drawn r pole, at a distance from it equal t of the ecliptic, or 23½°. The corr round the south pole is the *Antarctic* each of these circles there is a peri when the sun does not set, and anot never seen, this period being lo pole.

ARCTIC HIGHLANDS, a name applied, though not very approp

n continent which lies between Hud- the mouth of the Mackenzie. It has of all, or nearly all, the overland ction with the exploration of a North- from Hearne's discovery of the Copper- the recent voyage of Anderson—the t among the intermediate labourers Franklin, Richardson, Back, Pease, tae.

OCEAN, that part of the universal rounds the north pole. Its single towards the south, naturally divides sections—the northern shores respec- ro continents, and the northern limits the two intercontinental oceans.

meets the Pacific at Behring Strait, of N. lat., so that here the A. O. Arctic Circle by about 30'. On Atlantic, again, the common border equally independent of arbitrary Scoresby Sound almost as definitely south-east coast of Greenland as erminates the north-west coast of at, as both extremes are intersected ame parallel of 71°, the A. O. here e Arctic Circle by about 4½°.

World, the A. O., if we include its south of the Arctic Circle, in the y 2°; while at Cape Severo, the most of Asia, in lat. 78° 25' N., it falls me by 11° 55'. Lastly, within the ew World, the A. O., in its strict everywhere forced back within the bout 5° at Point Barrow, about 7½° rait, and about 3° at the Strait of the

of the A. O., however, may conve- nded beyond these their strict limits. ere aspect of the map is concerned, Baffin's Bay, and Hudson's Bay led as gulfs rather of the Atlantic O. But if essential characteristics o outweigh mere position, they must her to the A. O. than to the Atlantic. all fed by currents from the A. O., erborean in temperature. Even the of the three illustrates this. While is present, in general, more ice than r Baffin's Bay, Hudson's Bay itself cene of perhaps the two most abor- t disastrous, of all modern attempts scovery. On opposite sides of South- Lyons and Back were arrested by acks, the one near the Bay of God's other off Cape Comfort - the latter °, and the former being twice as of the Arctic Circle. Reckoning, he bottom of James's Bay, as an 's, the arctic seas, thus appended to er, reach as far south as the parallel

et known, at least accurately, of the very and exploration have developed ore skill and heroism than perhaps n and discovery of all the rest of e the age of Columbus. Without ything to be said on this subject arate heads of North-East Passage, assage, and Polar Voyages, it may not here to state summarily the compa- bours of the Russians while pushing their domestic rivers to survey their s. About a century and a quarter ovitch simultaneously sent forth five complete, if possible, the North-East n the White Sea to the Obi, four seasons were consumed; from the Obi to the Yenesei, four seasons; from the Yenesei to the Lena, season after season was spent in both directions without success; from the Lena to the Kolyma, six seasons were occupied; from the Kolyma to the Pacific every effort was fruitless, though the Cossack Deshneff was known to have accomplished this part of the enterprise about a century before.

Arctic navigation, in fact, is beset by almost every imaginable difficulty and danger. In addition to the peculiar perils of ice in all possible states, the adventurer, often blinded by fogs and snows, has to face, generally without guide or sea-room, the storms, tides, and currents of comparatively unknown waters. If such be his three months of summer, what must be his nine months of winter! Take a general illustration from the personal experience of the most successful of all the arctic navigators. On the parallel of 73, and under a temperature of 15° degrees below zero of Fah., Captain M'Clure spent the night of 30th October 1851 on the ice, amid prowling bears, and that without food or ammunition—his only guide being a pocket-compass, which, however, the darkness, thickened by mist and drift, rendered useless. The gallant officer whiled away the time by sleeping three hours on 'a famous bed of soft dry snow,' and by wandering 10 miles, by the crow's flight, over a surface so rugged as to endanger his limbs. It was at the close of a pedestrian expedition of nine days, on very short allowance of food and water, that the adventure took place; and it had been immediately occasioned by a generous desire of reaching the winter-quarters by a nearer cut, so as to have 'a warm meal ready for his men on their arrival.'

Notwithstanding the labours and researches of two centuries and a half, very little of this vast ocean has been even seen by man. To the north of the 83d parallel, in fact, the A. O., so far as authentic evidence goes, is a mere blank to geographers, for Parry, in 1827, barely reached lat. 82° 45'; Kane, in 1854, touched only 81° 22'; the *Polaris*, in 1871, reached only 82° 16'; and, in 1874, Weyprecht and Payer, the leaders of the Austro-Hungarian Polar Expedition, just reached 82° 5', though they saw a lofty promontory as far north as 83°. At all the intermediate points of longitude, the northern limit of geographical knowledge falls short, more or less at every point, of the parallel of 83°. Perhaps the actual average of such northern limit, even on the full tale of 360° of long., may not exceed lat. 75°, so as to leave absolutely unknown a circle of 30° of lat., or nearly 2100 miles in diameter- an area little inferior to that of Europe. This untrodden world, however, is not to be regarded as a continuous wilderness of ice. Parry, at his furthest point, found not an unbroken field, but separate floes, with more or less of open water between them - the mildness of the temperature being indicated by falls of rain; and Kane, again, at his furthest point, saw a free sea to the north, as far as the eye could reach, from a promontory 240 feet high; while, to use his own words, 'a gale from the north-east, of fifty-four hours in duration, brought a heavy swell from that quarter without disclosing any drift or other ice.' This is quite in keeping with the fact already noticed, that Hudson's Straits and Bay are often more encumbered with pack than the waters of far higher latitudes. With regard to currents, Parry, during nearly the whole of his boat sleigh expedition of 1827, found that his place by reckoning was considerably ahead of his place by observation, or, in other words, that his northward progress on the floes was neutralised more or less by the southward progress of the floes themselves, the existence of a current towards the south being thus shewn.

M'Clure derived advantage from the current, whether advancing through open water or drifting along at the mercy of the pack. The experience of Weyprecht and Payer was different from that of any preceding navigators, since they found that they steadily drifted *north*. While M'Clure had the fortune to return with the news of the discovery of the North-West Passage, M'Clintock has shewn that the discovery must have been anticipated by Sir John Franklin. Succeeding expeditions, of which a great number have been equipped by England, Germany, France, Sweden, America, Austria, and Denmark, have been mainly directed towards the North Pole. They have resulted in contradictory accounts regarding the supposed open polar sea; but seem to have established that Greenland is an island, or rather perhaps a group of islands overlaid and bound together by glacier ice.

Of the more southerly portion of the A. O., the only section that is tolerably well known to a distance from the continent is that which washes the north-east of America. It contains, under the collective name of Polar Archipelago, these islands, or parts of islands: Banks Land, Prince Albert Land, Wollaston Land, Victoria Land, Prince Patrick Island, Princess Royal Islands, Melville Island, Cornwallis Island, North Devon, Grinnell Land, North Lincoln, and various others. Off the coast of the Old World, again, are Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, New Siberia, Wrangel Land, King Charles Land, &c. The latest discovery, made by Weyprecht and Payer in 1873, is that of Franz-Joseph Land, an extensive and mountainous tract, lying about 200 miles due north of Nova Zembla. Its south coast is in about 80° N. lat., and it was seen to extend as far north as 83°, occupying at least 15 degrees of longitude. The chief straits are Lancaster Sound, Barrow's Strait, Smith's Sound, Strait of the Fury and Hecla, Wellington Channel, Banks Strait, &c. The chief rivers, all of them on the mainland, are the Obi, the Yenesei, and the Lena, of the first class; the Mackenzie, the Yana, the Indigirka, and the Kolyma, of the second; and many others of the third.

The principal production of the A. O. has been the whale. The whale-fisheries on the west of Spitzbergen, and on both sides of Greenland, scarcely need to be mentioned. But it may not be generally known, that, according to official returns as quoted by Admiral Beechey, the Americans had, in two years, drawn more than 8,000,000 of dollars, or upwards of £1,600,000 sterling, from the whale-fishery of Behring Strait alone.

On the side of East Siberia, however, the A. O. produces a more remarkable article of traffic. Here are found, in the greatest abundance, the bones of the mammoth. Spring after spring, the alluvial banks of the lakes and rivers, crumbling under the thaw, give up, as it were, their dead; while the islands lying off the Yana, and even the depths of the sea itself, literally teem with these mysterious memorials of antiquity.

The American half of the A. O., if it cannot boast of fossil ivory, presents something still more difficult perhaps to be explained. In lat. 74° 25′, and lat. 76° 15′ respectively, Captain M'Clure and Lieutenant Mecham discovered large deposits of trees, apparently indigenous, of considerable size. Writing of Banks' Island, M'Clure has the following passages: 'From the summit of these hills, which are 300 feet high, to their base, abundance of wood is to be found, and in many places layers of trees are visible, some protruding 12 or 14 feet, and so firm that several people may jump on them without their breaking: the largest trunk yet found measured 1 foot 7 inches in diameter'—equivalent in girth to about 5 feet. Again, 'I entered a ravine some miles inland, and found the north side of it, for a[bout] composed of one mass of wood. S[ome] fied, the remainder very rotten, [some] for burning.' Writing of Prince P[atrick] Mecham has the following passage: 'D[rift] buried in the east bank of the ravine, and ing about 8 feet, a tree of considerable [size] the afternoon I found several others of kind: circumference of first and second 3 feet; of another, 2 feet 10 inches. F[rom] fect state of the bark, and the distance [from] from the sea, there can be but little d[oubt] grew originally in this country. [It] through: it appeared very close-grained, [and] so immensely heavy that we could carry [but] of it away.'

A'RCTIUM. See BURDOCK.

A'RCTOMYS. See MARMOT.

ARD, or AIRD, a Celtic root [meaning] (compare Lat. *arduus*, high), whi[ch is] geographical names, especially in I[re]land.

A'RDEA. See HERON.

ARDÈCHE, a department in the s[outh] takes its name from the river A[rdèche], the Cevennes, flows toward the south-ea[st] a romantic valley, and falls into the R[hone] Pont-St-Esprit. The department of A. is bo[unded] Lozère and Drome, with Loire on the Gard on the south, and includes the most part of ancient Languedoc. Its greatest from north to south is 74 miles: its breadth, 44. The area of the dep[artment] square miles; the population in 1[872] A. is almost wholly mountainous. In the west of the department, the Ceven[nes] in the volcanic Mont-Mezène, 5972 [feet]. The variety of the numerous extinct peaks, deep craters, rugged valleys, masses grottos, rock-labyrinths, ranges of basaltic gigantic dams, &c., give a st[range] picturesque appearance to the [country], which has winter for six or e[ight] to pasturage; but the terraces [of] Rhone enjoy a warm climate, and (white and red), olives, figs, almonds. There are manufactures of silk, paper, &c.; and good roads, with water-carriage commerce. Lead, iron, copper, manga[nese] wrought. The chief towns are Privas, Bourg. St Andéol.

ARDEE' (Ath-air-dee—'Ford [of the] town in the west of Louth County, [on] river Dee, twelve miles inland. It [has] ancient castles—one built about the now used as the town-house; the building, and now used as a priso[n]. trade is in corn and other agricultu[ral] Pop. (1871) 2572.

ARDE'NNES, the western division of plateau of the Lower Rhine. It ex[tends] of Belgium, France, and Rhenish P[russia]. sists of a broken mass of hills, for[med] no great elevation, which [are] the plains of Flanders. In [ancient] given to the whole of [the] Rhine and the Sambre, [and] The average height of the [hills] but in the east, Mont St [Hubert] of 2300 feet. Large tracts [are] of hills, but of gently undulat[ing] are densely covered with oak [and] while other portions are marshy. The districts through which the

low, present some extraordinary appear-
The channel of the river is sometimes bound
l and precipitous cliffs more than 600
. The principal rocks of the A. are clay-
auwacke, quartz, &c., interspersed with
e strata of primitive limestone. Coal and
es are wrought in the north-west; lead,
. and manganese are also found. There is
ivation of grain, but multitudes of cattle
e are reared.

ENES, a frontier department in the north-
e France, bordering upon the provinces of
and Luxembourg in Belgium. It formed a
the old province of Champagne. Length,
th to south, 63 miles; breadth, from east to
; area, 2021 sq. miles; pop. (1872) 320,217.
h-east of A. belongs to the basin of the
the south-west is watered by the Aisne;
these rivers are enriched with affluents, and
y the *Canal of A.* About one-eighth of the
rface is hilly, and is covered with forests
e tracts of pasturage. In the north extre-
the department, near Givet, marble is
; but the prevailing rock is limestone,
with lead and iron. South of this, and
; across the department from east to west,
layers of slate, with here and there flint,
. In the south-east, muschelkalk abounds,
rich in iron-ore; and in the south-west, the
composed of arid chalk, a naked, treeless,
plain. Only the valleys are fertile, and pro-
e. The vine is nowhere cultivated, except
, in the south-west. Besides slate, marble,
porcelain-clay and sand for making glass
ised. Excellent work-horses and valuable
e reared. There are manufactures of earthen-
ass, marble, woollen cloths, metallic wares,
e principal towns are Mézières, Rethel,
Sedan, and Vouziers.

NAMURCHAN POINT, the N.W. pro-
of Argyleshire, and the extreme western
the mainland of Britain. A light-house was
here in 1849, which is visible at a distance of
For 10 miles around, the country consists
resting on sandstone often hardened, and
ica. The trap veins form many striking
ions in the strata. South of the point are
merous oolitic and lias fossils.

OCH, a small village in Scotland, county of
miles south south-west of Crieff, celebrated
man camp, the most entire now in Britain.
p is 2¼ miles north of the Greenloaning Station
Scottish Central Railway, in the grounds of
e. The intrenched works form a rectangle
430 feet, the four sides facing the cardinal
The north and east sides are protected by
hes and six ramparts, these works being 270
d on the north side, and 180 feet on the east.
morass exists on the south-east, and the per-
ar banks of Knaig Water, rising 50 feet
otect the camp on the west. The prætorium,
al's quarter, now called Chapel Hill, rises
he level of the camp, but is not exactly
entre, and is nearly a square of 60 feet each
hree of the four gates usual in Roman camps
seen. A subterranean passage is said to
merly extended from the prætorium under
of the Knaig. Not far north of this station,
ay to Crieff, may be traced three temporary
camps of different sizes. Portions of the
s of these camps still exist. A mile west of
immense cairn of stones lately existed, 182
; 45 feet broad at the base, and 30 feet in
eight. A human skeleton, 7 feet long, in a
fin, was found in it.

ARDROSSAN, a small seaport town and summer bathing-place in Ayrshire. It owes its rise to the public spirit of the Eglintoun family. Its harbour, which is sheltered by an island off the coast, is one of the safest and most accessible on the west coast of Scotland, and has been greatly improved, at vast expense, by the Earls of Eglintoun. There is a large export of coal from this place, and ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent. On a hill above the town stand the ruins of A. Castle, said to have been surprised by Wallace when held by the forces of Edward I. Wallace destroyed the garrison, and threw the dead bodies into a dungeon called 'Wallace's Larder.' Pop. in 1871, 3845.

ARE, the unit of the French land-measure, is a square, the side of which is 10 metres (or 32·809 feet) long (see METRE), and which, therefore, contains 100 square metres = 1076 English square feet. The next denomination in the ascending scale is the *decare*, containing 10 ares; but the denomination commonly used in describing a quantity of land is the *hectare* of 100 ares, = 2·47 English statute or imperial acres.

A'REA (Lat.) is a term in mathematics meaning *quantity of surface*. The calculation of areas, or mensuration of surfaces, is one of the ultimate objects of geometry. The measuring unit is a square inch, a square foot, &c., according to the unit of length. As a figure is thus measured by finding an equivalent for its surface in *squares*, the process is sometimes called the *quadrature* of the figure.

ARECA, a genus of Palms, containing several species, having pinnate leaves and double spathes. The fruit is a fibrous one-seeded drupe, a nut with an outer fibrous husk. *A. Catechu*, the PINANG PALM, or Betel-nut Palm, is a native of the East Indies, whose nut yields a sort of catechu. See CATECHU. This Areca-nut, or Betel-nut, is very much used in all parts of the East, the chewing of it with quick-lime and the leaf of the betel-pepper being one of the most prevalent habits of the people. See BETEL. The nut is about the size of a hen's egg; the fibrous husk about half an inch thick. It is austere and astringent. It is doubtful if it possesses a narcotic power, or if this is to be ascribed entirely to the leaf which is used along with it. Areca-nuts form a considerable article of trade in the East. The timber of the palm which produces them, and its leaf-stalks and spathes, are also used for domestic purposes. The tree is often 40 or 50 feet high, and in general less than a foot in diameter. The leaves are few, but very large, their leaflets more than a yard long. In Malabar, an inebriating lozenge is prepared from the sap.—*A. oleracea*, the CABBAGE PALM of the West Indies, is a very tall tree, 100–200 feet, whose huge terminal leaf-bud is sweet and nutritious, and is sometimes used for the table as cabbage, but when it is cut off, the tree is destroyed. The stem of this tree, notwithstanding its great height, is remarkably slender. The nuts are produced in great numbers; they are about the size of a filbert, and have a sweet kernel.—*A. sapida*, the New Zealand Palm, is remarkable as extending southward beyond the geographical limits of any other of its order, as far indeed as lat. 38° 22·S. It is a small palm, only from 6 to 10 feet high, with leaves 4–6 feet long. The young inflorescence is eaten. *A. vestiaria*, a native of the East, is so called because clothing is made from its fibres.

AREIOPAGUS (Gr. for 'Mars' Hill'), a mount lying to the west of the Acropolis, at Athens, and celebrated as the spot where the most venerable court of justice in ancient times held its sittings. It is not easy to determine satisfactorily why the hill obtained its name; most probably it was on a

of sacrifices having been offered there at an early period to the God of War; but all its historic importance is derived from the Areiopagitic Council, the origin of which reaches far back into antiquity, and is ascribed by some to the semi-mythological Cecrops. Orestes, according to tradition, was tried before this court, and it is certain that it must have existed long before the first Messenian War (740 B.C.), for the Messenians, in offering to submit to its decisions certain points of dispute, speak of it, even then, as 'old.' Solon, however, made many changes in its constitution, enlarging its sphere of jurisdiction to such an extent that it ceased to be any longer a mere criminal court, and acquired henceforth social and political powers in addition to the former. Before Solon's time, it was strictly oligarchical. It now became a *tertium quid* between aristocracy and democracy, the new qualification for office introduced by Solon being *property* instead of *birth*. It thus naturally allied itself with aristocracy, so that we can perfectly understand why it should have been considered a check upon the impetuous democracy, though it would, perhaps, be fairer to regard it as a check upon both extremes. It is not known how many members were included in its council. The nine archons—if they had recommended themselves by a faithful discharge of their duties—were elected life-members of it. Solon made the council 'overseers of everything,' and we find instances of their manifold authority in the subsequent history of Greece. They granted money, at the time of the Persian invasion, from a reserve treasury of their own, the ordinary public treasury being empty. After the battle of Chæroneia, they executed all who had deserted their country. In social matters, their powers appear to have been curiously minute. They had officers whom they sent or accompanied into private houses, on occasion of a festivity, to see that the rooms were not overcrowded; they called to account persons who lived in such riotous extravagance that their example might be considered hurtful to the community, and conferred marks of honour on those of an opposite character. Their sphere of influence seems to have extended itself to religion also. Innovations in the worship of the gods, neglect of the sacred ceremonies, impiety in any form, brought the offenders under the rebuke and punishment of the A. It is likewise asserted that they possessed and exercised great authority in the education of the young, although this statement, and that regarding some charitable functions attributed to them, are of dubious value.

Until the time of Pericles, the brilliant and powerful ruler of the democracy, the A. continued to maintain its ancient dignity. He soon discovered, however, that it would prove an insurmountable obstacle to the realisation of his designs if not shorn of its privileges. After much and vigorous opposition, he succeeded in carrying a decree (458 B.C.), by which, as Aristotle says, the A. was 'mutilated,' and democratic tribunals acquired supreme authority. It is, however, far from being clear what were the precise changes which Pericles effected, whether he abridged its powers as a criminal, or as a social and political court. From the high estimation in which it was held for centuries after, in the first of these capacities, we are inclined to think that it was its social and political supremacy that was destroyed. Probably the A. was made responsible to the demus, or body of citizens. It lingered in life for a very long period. We hear of it as late as 380 A.D., and it would seem, from the case of St Paul, that it possessed in his day a certain authority in religious matters.

ARE'NA, a part of an amphitheatre (so called because it was usually strewed with sand, though when a fit of extravagance seized the Roman emperors, they used borax and cinnabar instead), where the combats of gladiators and wild beasts took place. It had four main entrances, and was surrounded by a wall about 15 feet high, so that the spectators were perfectly safe. The name was afterwards applied by the Romans to any building for exhibitions of baiting animals, horsemanship, &c. On the continent, the name has been given to the large summer theatres for dramatic performances in the open air. It is applied also, in a general sense, to any scene of contest or display of power.

ARENA'CEOUS ROCKS. All rocks composed entirely, or to a large extent, of grains of silex, are included under this title. Beds of loose sand occur extensively in the more recent deposits. The grains, either of quartz or flint, are generally water-worn and rounded. In older deposits, the grains of sand are bound together by silicious, calcareous, argillaceous, or ferruginous cements. It is seldom that a rock is composed of quartzy materials alone; grains or particles of other mineral substances are frequently mingled with the grains of quartz. Silvery flakes of mica are seldom absent; and they often occur in layers parallel to the planes of stratification, causing the rock to split into thin slabs, and exposing a glittering surface. These are called *micaceous sandstones*. When grains of feldspar occur, it is a *feldspathic sandstone*. Often large quantities of calcareous matter, either as cement or as distinct grains, occur; and these are called *calcareous sandstones*. The presence of lime can always be detected by the effervescence which takes place on the application of muriatic or other acid. When the sandstone is coarse-grained, it is usually called *grit*. If the grains are large enough to be called pebbles, it becomes *conglomerate* or *puddingstone*; if the fragments are sharp and angular, it is called *breccia*.

ARENA'RIA or SANDWORT, a genus of plants of the natural order *Caryophyllæ*, differing from Stellaria (Stitchwort, q. v.) chiefly in the undivided petals. The species are numerous, annual and perennial herbaceous plants of humble growth, rarely somewhat shrubby, natives of the temperate and colder parts of the world. Some of them are arctic and alpine plants. Many of them are chiefly found in sandy soils. The flowers are generally small and inconspicuous, but if closely examined, are seen to possess no little beauty. A number of species are natives of Britain.

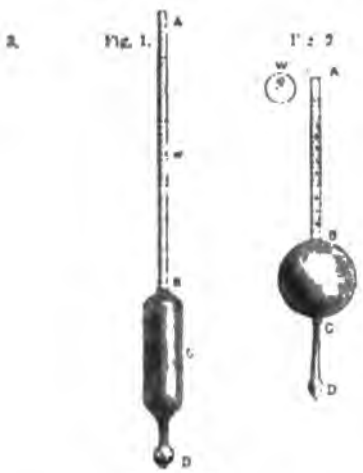
A'RENDAL, a town on the south-east of Norway, situated near the mouth of the Ni... the bay of Christiania, with a population o... It is built partly on poles, partly on rock, an... circumstance, as well as its situation, gives it a very romantic aspect. The bay, which is protected by the island of Tromöe, forms an excellent harbour, and favours the commerce of the town, which is considerable, in proportion to its size. A. is intersected by canals; its exports are iron from the neighbouring mines, and wooden articles. Shipbuilding is also carried on; and on a smaller scale, distilleries and tobacco-factories. King Louis Philippe, after the French Revolution, when wandering in the north as Duke of Orleans, made some stay here.

ARE'NG or ARENGA. See GOMUTO PALM.

ARENI'COLA. See ANNELIDA.

AREO'METER (*araios*, thin, and *metreō*, I measure; Fr. *aréomètre* or *pèse-liqueur*; Ger. *Ardometer* or *Senkwage*), called also Hydrometer, an instrument which is allowed to float freely in liquids, to determine their specific gravity or that of solid bodies. By specific gravity (q. v.) is meant the ratio that the

f volume of a substance bears to the ame volume of water. Thus, a cubic l weighs 793 ounces, while the same ter weighs 1000 ounces; the specific ol is set down, therefore, as $\frac{793}{1000}$ or foot of sulphuric acid weighs 1841 s, consequently, a specific gravity of elations are not confined to the par- , one cubic foot, of these bodies, but y equal volumes of them. Equal volumes water, and sulphuric acid, have always to r the ratio respectively of 793, 1000, and d this is only an instance of the general equal volumes of different substances bearing to each other the direct ratio gravities of these substances. This on which areometers with weights, ters, are constructed. If, how- we ts of any two of these liquids ed, it would be found that 793 of a ater would weigh as much as 1·000 cubic ohol; 1·000 cubic foot of sulphuric acid as 1·841 cubic feet of water; or ·793 of a of sulphuric acid as much as 1·841 cubic ohol: more generally thus—when equal two different fluids are taken, the of each are inversely as their specific his latter principle depends the use with scales, or scale-areometers. The more commonly employed than the s is, in consequence, a much more instrument. Of the various forms of ometers, that contrived by Gay-Lussac particular notice, from the simplicity of of graduation; and an account of it will best idea of the general nature of such Fig. 1 gives a representation of it. It



Areometers.

a uniform glass tube, AB, blown into two d D. at bottom. The lower bulb, ed w ay, so that when the instru- is liquid, the stem, AB, is main- position. We shall suppose that mercury is so adjusted that when er, the A. sinks to the point W, which consequence, be called the water-point. o the principle of Archimedes, the weight me of water displaced by the instrument point is equal to the weight of the instru- et us suppose, for the sake of simplicity, that the water so displaced is a cubic inch, the weight of the A. will be that of a cubic inch of water, or 250 grains (more correctly 252·5 grains at 60° F.). If the A. be now placed in a fluid heavier than water, such as a mixture of sulphuric acid and water, having a specific gravity $\frac{5}{4}$ or 1·25, it is manifest that if it is sunk again to the water-point, the displaced fluid would weigh $\frac{5}{4}$ of 250 = 312½ grains, or 62½ grains more than the weight of the instrument. As much, therefore, of the stem of the A. must rise above the liquid as will reduce the weight of the displaced liquid to 250 grains, or reduce the volume to $\frac{4}{5}$ of what it was before. If the stem in this case rises to B, the volume displaced by the part WB is $\frac{1}{5}$ of the volume displaced by the instrument at the water-point. If we consider the whole divided into 100 parts, and mark 100 at W, B must be marked 80, as the A. displaces up to that point $\frac{4}{5}$ of 100; and if the intervening space on the stem be divided into 20 equal parts, each of them will correspond with $\frac{1}{100}$ of the water-volume—viz., ·01 of a cubic inch, or with $\frac{1}{10}\frac{1}{0}\pi$ of the weight of the instrument—viz., 2·5 grains. If the same scale be carried above the point W, and the divisions marked as ascending from 100, the A. will be serviceable likewise for fluids less dense than water, and will mark the volumes which it displaces in each of them. The A. thus graduated gives immediately the volumes which it displaces in different liquids; and from these, seeing that it displaces in every case a weight of liquid equal to its own, the specific gravities may be calculated according to the principle already stated—viz., that equal weights of two different fluids have volumes inversely as their specific gravities. If, in a mixture of sulphuric acid and water, the A. stands at 90, according to the above principle, 90 volumes of the mixture weigh as much as 100 of water; therefore, its specific gravity is $\frac{100}{90}$ or $1\frac{1}{9}$. If, again, in a mixture of spirits and water, it should stand at 110, 110 volumes of the mixture weigh as much as 100 of water, so that its specific gravity is $\frac{100}{110}$, or $\frac{10}{11}$. In all cases, then, 100 is to be divided by the number read on the A., to determine the specific gravity of the liquid in which it floats.

The delicacy of the A. depends on the distance of the divisions on the scale, or on the thinness of the stem compared with the bulbs. An instrument possessing this advantage cannot be made to serve both for liquids heavier and lighter than water, for the stem would be of an inconvenient length; and it is usual to construct two areometers one marked with the water-point at the top, and the scale descending to 50, for fluids heavier than water; and the other, with the water-point at the bottom, and the scale ascending to 150, for fluids lighter than water. The scale is generally marked on a slip of paper, which is fixed inside the stem. Gay-Lussac's A. is also known under the name of 'volumometer.' Although it cannot be surpassed either for accuracy or simplicity, it is much less used than other instruments of a similar nature furnished with arbitrary scales, requiring the aid of tables to interpret the readings. The best known of these is Twaddle's A., used in England; and Beaumé's A., extensively adopted on the continent. The A. with an equally divided scale is a very ancient instrument; it was known among the Greeks under the name of 'baryllion.' On some areometers the divisions are not at equal distances, but are so drawn as to give at once, without table or calculation, the specific gravity of the fluid in which they are placed. Although very desirable, in practice they do not possess the accuracy of the A.

with equally divided scales, because the graduation of them is attended with considerable difficulty.

No form of A. can be made to determine specific gravities with perfect accuracy, and such instruments are only useful where a ready and good approximation is all that is needed. They are, in consequence, employed chiefly to ascertain the specific gravity of the various liquors and solutions which occur in the arts and manufactures, and very frequently they are graduated with reference to special liquids, as spirits, wine, milk, brine, &c. The Alcoholometer or Hydrometer of Sikes is an instrument of this latter description, and is in general use in the Excise for estimating the strength of spirits. It is represented in fig. 2. BC is a hollow brass ball, surmounted by a flat stem AB, and loaded below by a short conical stem CD, terminated by the pear-shaped bulb D. It is accompanied by eight weights, by which the weight of the instrument may be increased, and the range of the scale extended to fluids heavier as well as lighter than water. One of these weights, W, is shewn in the figure; it is furnished with a slit, so as to allow of it being slipped on to the narrowest part, C, of the lower stem. The stem, AB, is graduated into 11 equal parts, and these again into halves; and the instrument is so adjusted that its indications give the volumes of water that must be added to or taken from 100 volumes of the mixture under examination to reduce it to proof-spirit (see ALCOHOL), which is a mixture of nearly equal parts of water and alcohol. Thus, if the A. indicates 11 over-proof, 11 volumes of water must be added in order to bring the liquid down to proof-strength; and 100 gallons of such strength would be reckoned as 111; 100 gallons, at 11 under-proof, would in the same way be charged as 89. Very carefully-constructed tables accompany the instrument, in which the specific gravity and percentage of alcohol of different mixtures, at different temperatures, are marked, corresponding to each degree of the A. Since the specific gravity of alcohol is known, it might be thought, that if that of a mixture of it with water were known, the relative proportions of each would also be known. Such, however, is not the case, for alcohol and water possess a chemical affinity for each other, which causes the combined volumes of the two to measure less than the two volumes separately. Thus, 50 volumes of alcohol mixed with 50 volumes of water does not make 100 volumes of the mixture, but only 96, and thereby the specific gravity of the mixture is higher than it would have been if no contraction had taken place. As the law of this contraction is very complicated, the relative proportions of the two in a combination of given specific gravity, are only to be estimated from tables founded upon experimental data.

The peculiar feature of areometers with weights is, that instead of a scale, they have only one mark on the stem, to which the A. is in all cases sunk. One of the best-known instruments of this kind is the A. of Nicholson. It consists of a brass tube, BC (fig. 3), about 1 inch in diameter, closed above and below by conical ends, to the upper of which a wire is fixed, carrying on the top of it a cup A, capable of containing the weights; and to the lower, a hook is attached, from which hangs the cup D. The lower part of the cup, D, is also provided with a hook, and the whole instrument is kept vertical, partly by the weight of the cup, and partly by the weight of the ball, E, suspended from it. On the wire, a notch, W, is made, to serve as the mark or fixed point to which the A. is sunk. The specific gravities of liquids are determined by Nicholson's A. in the following way: The weight of the A. itself is first ascertained—let it be in a given case 2000 grains—it is then put into water at the temperature 60° F., and weights (say 500 grains) put in, till it is sunk to W. It is now removed to the liquid under examination; and if the weight required to sink the instrument now to the standard-point be only 100 grains, we have the specific gravity of the liquid equal to $\frac{2}{2}\frac{0}{1}\frac{0}{0}\frac{0}{0}$, or $\frac{2}{2}\frac{0}{1}$. In both fluids, the same volume has been displaced, and that is in each case equal to the weight of the A.; but the weight of the A. in the second case was 2000 + 100, and in the former, 2000 + 500; hence the above result. Nicholson's A. is seldom used for finding the specific gravity of fluids; its use is almost entirely restricted to ascertaining that of small solid substances, as gems and small pieces of minerals. The following example will shew how this is done: If in the cup of the A. already mentioned, when placed in water, the gem be put, and only 440 grains be then necessary to bring the instrument to W, 60 grains is manifestly the weight of the gem, because 500 grains were needed with it to do the same thing. The gem is next placed in the lower cup, D, and if 460 grains are now necessary to sink to the standard-point, the gem has lost 20 grains of its weight by being immersed in water. According to the principle of Archimedes (q. v.), these 20 grains are also the weight of a volume of water equal to that of the gem; its specific gravity of the gem is $\frac{6}{2}\frac{0}{0}$, or 3. By using the cup D, which is furnished with perforations to allow free passage to the air, and attaching a weight, E, to the handle of it, the specific gravity of substances lighter than water may also be determined by this instrument. The other forms of weight-areometers are those of Fahrenheit, Tralles, and Charles. For the more accurate determination of the specific gravities of liquids and solids, see SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

AREQUI'PA, a term primarily applied to a mountain in the west Cordillera of the Peruvian Andes, and secondarily to a city at its foot, being from this, again, extended to a district, a province, a department, and a diocese. 1. The city, [illegible] in lat. 16° 13′ S., and in long. 76° 18′ W., is largest in Peru, being inferior only to [illegible] Cuzco, and is said to contain 30,000 inhabitants. It carries on a considerable trade both with the interior and by sea. Its port is Islay, one of the larger harbours of the republic. 2. The department is bounded N. by Lima; E. by Ayacucho, Cuzco, and Puno; S. by Moquega, which, along with it, forms the diocese; and W. by the Pacific. It contains 200,000 inhabitants, and is subdivided into [illegible] provinces. Like nearly the whole of the region of Peru, it is generally arid. [illegible] 3. The mountain is volcanic, of the form of a truncated cone, and of the height of 20,320 feet. Its neighbourhood is subject to earthquakes.

ARÈS. See MARS.

ARETÆ'US, a famous physician of Cappadocia, who flourished in the latter half of the 1st century, or the beginning of the 2d century after Christ. He is considered to rank next to Hippocrates as a writer with which he treated diseases; but he does not, in every instance, follow the practice of the 'Father of Medicine.' He was less attentive to 'the symptoms and actions' of the system, which he frequently neglected, if he thought it desirable; administered powerful purgatives copiously, employed narcotics, and was not object to bleeding. He was, in fact, noted for his total want of professional bigotry; and having not committing himself to any particular set of opinions, in his accuracy in the detail of symptoms and the diagnosis of disease, he is superior to most of the ancient physicians. His great work, written in

concise Ionic Greek, is divided
first four books treat of the
of acute and chronic dis-
the cure of the same. They are
state of complete preservation, and have
translated into various European languages,
been frequently edited in the
nest edition is the Oxford one of
; a German translation appeared
–1802), and an English by T. F.
1837.

ARETHUSA. See ALPHEUS.

ARETINE SYLLABLES are the syllables
sol, la, used by Guido d'Arezzo for his
monochords.

ARETINO, PIETRO, an Italian author of the
natural son of a gentleman named
was born at Arezzo, in Tuscany, on
rch 1492. Banished from his native
to Perugia, where he wrought as a
er, and gathered up a few scraps of learn-
ired with a desire of becoming famous,
ed his occupation, and wandered through
ervice of various noblemen. At Rome,
d by his wit, impudence, and
even the papal patronage,
subsequently lost by writing
A. now went to the Medicean
de' Medici grew so fond of him
d his bed with the adventurer, and even
an opportunity of ingratiating himself
I. at Milan in 1524. A few years later,
at Venice, where he also acquired power-
The Bishop of Vicenza not only soothed
of the pope against A., but also recom-
o the Emperor Charles V. The latter,
chivalrous rival, Francis, and other
pensioned the fortunate wit, besides
with splendid presents. He likewise
nsiderable sums for his literary efforts.
had undoubtedly gifted A. with some fine
, but these were vitiated by his love of
tions. His death in 1556 accorded
ster of his life. It is said that while
y at some trifling adventure of one
ed sisters, he fell from a stool, and
a the spot. His poetical works include
and a tragedy. The former are full
ine comic humour; the latter is not
His *Sonetti Lussuriosi* have been
French under the title of *Académie*
Besides these, he wrote a number of
s, some of which have not been published.
procured for him the name of 'the
Princes;' but it seems clear that he was
fitted to be their sycophant. Although
rsonation of licentiousness, he had
e impudence to publish some books
kind, with the view of obtaining the
ope.

ARETINO, SPINELLO, an early Italian painter of
born at Arezzo in 1316, or, accord-
1328. He studied under Jacopo del
efore he had attained his majority,
his master in the vigour and liveli-
conceptions and colouring. His
ed its full bloom after he went to
he painted in fresco, in the chapel
re, several incidents in the life
of St Antonio Abate. The
a Miniato, near Florence, contains
say a few of his frescoes. He also
the monasteries of San Bernardo at Arezzo,
the Oliveto near Florence. Vasari thought
finest works of A. were those which he
executed for the Campo Santo at Pisa, illustrating the life of San Ranieri. Of these, however, we have only prints, and cannot therefore judge satisfactorily. His principal works, still remaining, are those from the life of Pope Alexander III. in the town-hall of Siena. He died in 1408.

Throughout all Italy, A. was greatly admired for his invention, the grace and simplicity with which he arranged his figures, and the finish of his style. His Madonnas possessed a remarkable sweetness of expression; and his colouring was in most cases bold and beautiful. Vasari prefers him to Giotto.

ARE'ZZO (ARETIUM), the chief city of the Italian province of A., is situated in a fertile valley near the confluence of the Chiana with the Arno, lat. 43° 27′ N., long. 11° 52′ E. It is 38 miles E.S.E. from Florence. A. is perhaps the oldest town in Tuscany, and formed one of the twelve cities of the ancient Etruscans. It was devastated by Sylla during the Social War; and, like many other Italian cities, was sacked by the Goths when they burst into the peninsula. During the contest of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, in a later age, it became subject to Florence, whose troops defeated those of A. at the battle of Camaldino, in which the poet Dante took part. Arezzo contained (1872) 38,907 inhabitants; but its extensive walls and numerous churches bear record of its more flourishing and more populous period. The *Piazza Grande*, the *Pieve*, an old church founded on the site of a heathen temple, and the cathedral, which, like almost all the other churches, has an unfinished façade, are its principal public buildings. The cathedral has a splendid high altar in marble by Giovanni Pisano; and the several churches contain fine specimens of the old Tuscan school of painting. These ecclesiastical decorations are contrasted with the general aspect of the city, which has dark and dirty streets. Its industry is at present at a very low ebb, there being few or no manufactures, and its people are not generally favourites in Italy; but perhaps no city of its size ever produced a greater number of celebrated men, among whom may be mentioned – Mæcenas, the famous patron of letters in the time of the Emperor Augustus; Petrarch; Pietro Aretino; Guido de A., inventor of the gamut; Leonardo de A., the historian; Cesalpino, the botanist; Redi, the physician; Pope Julius III.; the notorious Marshal d'Ancre; and Vasari, author of *Lives of the Painters*. Michael Angelo was also born in the vicinity of A. The province of A. contains 1276 square miles, with a population of 239,901. The soil is fertile in corn, wine, and oil.

ARGALA. See ADJUTANT.

ARGALI (*Ovis Ammon*), the great wild sheep of Siberia and Central Asia. It is found from Kamtchatka to the Himalaya Mountains, where, however, it is only seen in the more elevated regions. 'We

Head of the Argali Sheep.

came suddenly,' says Dr Hooker in his *Himalayan Journal*, 'upon a flock of gigantic wild sheep, feeding on scanty tufts of dried sedge and grass; there were twenty-five of these enormous animals, of whose dimensions the term sheep gives no idea; they are

very long-legged, stand as high as a calf, and have immense horns, so large that the fox is said to take up his abode in their hollows when detached and bleaching on the barren mountains of Tibet.' The horns of the male are nearly 4 feet long, and 14 inches in circumference at the base, where they are triangular. The general colour is fulvous gray, white beneath, with a whitish disk around the tail. The wool is concealed by hair. The name A. is Mongolian, and was adopted by Pallas. A similar but smaller species is also found on the Himalaya Mountains. The Rocky Mountain Sheep, or Big-horn, is sometimes called the American A. See SHEEP.

ARGAN (*Argania sideroxylon*, *Sideroxylon spinosum* of Linnæus), a low spiny evergreen tree of the natural order *Sapotaceæ*, a native of the southern parts of the kingdom of Marocco, bearing an ovate drupe about the size of a plum, dotted with white, and full of a white milky juice. The Moors extract an oil from the fruit, which they use with their food.

ARGAND, AIMÉ, physician and chemist, was born at Geneva about the middle of the 18th c. He was the inventor of the well-known *Argand lamp*. The chief difficulties that attended the use of lamps as a source of light were—first, in procuring the complete combustion of the oil, so as to keep the flame from smoking; and second, in preventing the level of the oil in the reservoir from sinking as the combustion goes on. The round cotton-wick, used in the old simple form of lamp, was always attended with smoke and smell. The oils and fats are exceedingly rich in carbon, containing 70 to 80 per cent. of that element, and only 10 to 12 of hydrogen. The round thick column, then, of oil-vapour rising from the wick of an old-fashioned lamp, presented too little extent of surface to the air; the oxygen of all the air that could get access was chiefly taken up in burning the hydrogen, and a large proportion of the carbon ascended in the burnt air as smoke. A.'s improvement was that he made the wick in the form of a ring. The flame thus became a hollow cylinder with a current of air ascending through the inside, so that the burning surface was doubled. It would appear, however, that the lamp did not satisfy the expectations of A., till his younger brother accidentally discovered the effect of a glass cylinder, as a chimney over the flame, by which the flame was steadied, a draught created, and the greatest possible amount of light yielded.

Argand Burner.

A. was soon involved in a dispute with one Langé of Paris regarding the originality of his invention. He went thither to vindicate his claim, but rather than risk the chances of a lawsuit, he consented to share the honour, and a patent was obtained by which Langé and A. alone were authorised to make and sell the new lamps in France for 15 years. The French Revolution, however, destroyed their privilege, and A. retired to England. After some time, he returned to his native country, a victim to melancholy and fantastic humours, and died on the 24th October 1803.

ARGAUM, a village in the territory of the Nizam. It is in lat. 21° 2′ N., and in long. 77° 2′ E., on the route between Ellichpore and Aurungabad. Its single claim to notice is that, on 28th November 1803, about two months after the battle of Assaye, Major-general Wellesley here gained another victory over the Mahrattas. To commemorate this action, a medal was struck in 1851, about a year before the death of the illustrious conqueror.

ARGEL, or ARGHEL (*Solenostemma A.*, or *Cynanchum A.*), a plant of the natural order *Asclepiadaceæ*, a native of Arabia and of the north of Africa, deserving of notice only because of the frequent use of its leaves for the adulteration of senna. They are lanceolate and leathery, and may readily be distinguished from genuine senna leaves by their texture, their being downy, their greater heaviness, the comparative absence of veins, and the symmetry of their sides, the sides of the true senna-leaves being unequal. They are acrid, and cause sickness and griping, but a difference of opinion subsists as to their possessing purgative properties.

ARGELANDER, FRIEDRICH WILHELM AUGUST, one of the most eminent astronomers of our time, was born, March 22, 1799, at Memel. He studied at Königsberg, where the science of finance first attracted him; but he was subsequently drawn away to that of astronomy by the lectures of Bessel, by whom he was employed to make calculations and observations. In 1820, he was appointed assistant to Bessel in the Königsberg Observatory, and in 1823 succeeded Walbeck as astronomer at the observatory of Abo, in Finland. Here he commenced a series of observations on the fixed stars which have a perceptible 'proper motion.' His studies were unfortunately interrupted by a fire which destroyed the observatory; but after a time, he resumed them in a new observatory at Helsingfors, and published a catalogue of not less than 560 stars having 'proper motions.' This contained the results of his observations at Abo, and received from the Ac of St Petersburg the great Demidov prize. removing to the university of Bonn in 1837, A lished his *Uranometria Nova* (Berlin, 1843). taining celestial charts of the fixed stars s hemisphere with the naked eye; also *Astronomical Observations*, containing the re an examination of the northern heavens fr 80° declination, and giving the positions stars. For a considerable number of been engaged in a series of obser changes of light in variable stars. demonstrated the theory that there is a pr motion of the solar system in space.

ARGE'MONÉ, a genus of plants of the natural order *Papaveraceæ*, distinguished by 4—6 petals 4—7 radiating concave stigmas, and an obovate ca opening by valves at the point. *A. Mexicana*. times called Mexican Poppy, is an annual plant with large yellow flowers, and s and sinuated, spiny leaves, variegated w is a native of Mexico and of the southern p United States, and is now also common tropical and sub-tropical countries, in wh been naturalised. Its seeds are narcotic. p and diuretic, exhibiting in a strong d qualities of the order of which the seeds c. are devoid. They are used in the West substitute for ipecacuanha, also instead and the juice of the plant is employed for ophthalmia.—This plant is not be seen in flower-borders in Br northern parts, at least, the seed a hot-bed.

ARGENS, JEAN BAPTISTE DE BOYER, born at Aix, in Provence, June 24, 17 originally intended for a learned career; be love of adventure, he entered the army at Fascinated by a certain actress, he eloped to Spain, but was captured, and bro Provence. In spite of his glaring b pline, he had the good-fortune to be the French embassy to Co return, re-entered the

service, and disinherited by his
fortune in authorship, and by
Lettres Chinoises, Lettres Cabalis-
La Philosophie du Bon Sens (London,
tracted the notice of Frederick II., then
rince of Prussia, and became a favourite at
of Prussia when Frederick came to the
The king appointed him chamberlain, and
the Art Academy at Berlin, with a
ivres. He was a constant associate
liked exceedingly his frank and
but used to tease him on
ndriacal fits. When almost a
rian, he renewed the adventures of his
falling a victim to the charms of an
moiselle Cochois, whom he married
derick's permission. This and other
irritated the despotic monarch, who
of his pension. The latter now returned
and died at Toulon, January 11, 1771.
writings, but especially his *Histoire*
umain, Lettres et Mémoires, and
ntioned, once enjoyed a considerable

LA, LUPERCIO and BARTOLOMÉ
two of the first among the Spanish
'golden age,' were born at Bar-
a; the former in 1565, the latter in
died at the university of Huesca.
ards went to Madrid, while Barto-
the church. In character and for-
they were closely united through-
of their career. Both were
by Maria of Austria, who appointed
chaplain, and the other her private
The latter was subsequently made
to the Archduke Albert of Austria.
II. appointed him historiographer of
olomé was employed by the Count
edit the *Conquista de las Molucas*
and when this nobleman was
viceroy of Naples, both the brothers
acquired fame as poets, attended his
Naples, where Lupercio, who then filled the
Secretary of State, died in 1613. Bartolomé
to Spain with the viceroy in 1616, and
position formerly held by his brother,
ber of the kingdom of Aragon, where
with the work left unfinished by
ation of Zurita's *Annals of Ara-*
d in this work, he died, February
corrected poems of the two brothers
ished in 1634, by the son of Lupercio,
through several editions. These poems
consist of epistles, odes, sonnets, and satires,
singularly alike in character. They are
of the style of the Latin poets (especially
which reason the brothers have been
anish Horaces'), and display more care
originality of invention or richness
olomé A., as a prose-writer, is reck-
Spanish classics. The style of his
Zurita is a great advance on the
ly in correctness.

N, MARC PIERRE, COMTE D', a
rench statesman, was born in 1696.
a number of inferior offices, he
de Breteuil as Secretary of State
er in 1742. On the death of
, in the following year, the whole
then raging devolved upon him.
matters in the most deplorable condi-
French troops, decimated by sword and
were in full retreat across the Rhine; the
swarmed in Alsace and Lorraine,
and the very political existence of France was imperilled; but the vigorous efforts of A., and his singularly lucky choice of generals, completely changed the fortunes of the war in the course of one year. The theatre of strife was transferred to the Low Countries; and after the victories of Fontenoy and Lawfeldt, the capture of Bergen-op-Zoom, and the investment of Maestricht, peace was secured by the famous treaty of Aix-la-chapelle, signed in 1748. A., however, did not remain inactive. He built new fortresses and repaired old ones, established the *E'cole Militaire* in 1751, and, by various measures, sought to keep alive the military ardour and spirit of the nation. He was likewise an illustrious patron of literature. Diderot and D'Alembert dedicated to him their great *Encyclopédie*. He was the friend of Voltaire, whose fellow-student he had been, and furnished him with materials for his *Siècle de Louis XIV*. On the breaking out of the war again in 1756, his valuable services were neglected, and next year he was deprived of his office, and exiled to his estate of Ormes, where he spent six dreary years. It is supposed that this calamity befell him through the machinations of Madame Pompadour, his worst enemy. On her decease, he returned to Paris, where he died in 1764.

A'RGENT, the French word for silver, is always used in English heraldry to signify that metal. In engraving shields, it is left white.

ARGE'NTEUS CODEX. See ULFILAS.

A'RGENTINE (*Argentina*), a genus of small fishes of the family *Salmonidæ*, of which one is rarely found on the British shores, and two or three are found in the Mediterranean. They are chiefly remarkable for the resplendent silvery lustre of their sides, and the abundance of *nacre*, the substance used in making artificial pearls, with which their air-bladder is externally loaded. It consists of a coat of silvery fibres. Upon account of it, they are sought after. They are commonly taken in nets along with anchovies or sardines.

A'RGENTINE REPUBLIC, the confederation of the Rio de La Plata, or River of Silver, South America—the Latinised epithet and the Spanish term being merely copy and original of one and the same misnomer. Lat. 22° 30'—41° S., long. 54°—70° 31' W. This confederation, as constituted by its reunion with Buenos Ayres in 1859, consists of what may be roughly termed a rectangle comprising 19° of lat. and 13° of long. On the west it is bounded by the Andes, which separate it from Chili and the desert of Atacama; on the north by Bolivia; by Paraguay, Brazil, Uruguay, and the Atlantic on the east; and on the south by Patagonia. The republic embraces 14 provinces, divided into 173 departments. The following table is compiled from the census of 1869:

Provinces.	Departments.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
1. Buenos Ayres,	31	83,615	495,107	Buenos Ayres	177,787
2. Santa Fé,	4	25,087	89,117	Santa Fé,	10,670
3. Entre Rios,	10	23,952	134,271	Concepcion,	6,531
4. Corrientes,	17	45,454	129,023	Corrientes,	11,218
5. Cordova,	14	58,599	215,898	Cordova,	28,523
6. San-Luis,	8	24,151	53,294	San-Luis,	3,748
7. Santiago,	8	38,750	132,938	Santiago,	7,775
8. Mendoza,	8	30,699	65,413	Mendoza,	8,124
9. San-Juan,	4	18,772	60,319	San-Juan,	8,353
10. Rioja,	7	31,109	48,746	Rioja,	4,484
11. Catamarca,	8	35,780	79,967	Catamarca,	5,714
12. Tucuman,	9	23,380	108,951	Tucuman,	17,434
13. Salta,	16	64,461	84,931	Salta,	11,716
14. Jujuy,	9	33,527	40,379	Jujuy,	3 071
Total,	173	542,786	1,736,923		

The Indians, as well as foreigners, are counted in

these numbers. Of the latter there were reckoned (1869) about 200,000 in the republic, consisting of Americans, Italians, Spaniards, French, English, Swiss, Germans, and others. The A. R. claims, besides the provinces enumerated, the desert of Gran Chaco in the north; and that which, in the south, lies between the Rio Colorado and the Rio Negro; Patagonia is also included within its pretensions. These wide and wild domains, however, have been hitherto sources rather of disquiet than of desirable acquisition, as the Indians occasionally commit inroads upon the settled provinces.

Except the most purely Indian districts to the west of Buenos Ayres, the provinces of the A. R. lie chiefly in the basin of the Rio de La Plata, embracing much the larger half of the same. Mountains abound in the north-west; and elevated ranges are found also in Entre Rios, which is situated, as its name implies, between the Parana and the Uruguay. But, with these exceptions, nearly the whole country presents boundless plains, covered alternately with rich pasturage and gigantic thistles. The climate and productions vary considerably—being tropical and temperate respectively to the north and south of Corrientes (in 27° 27′ N. lat.). Agriculture, however, of every description is very backward—less, perhaps, than $\frac{1}{1000}$ of the surface being under cultivation. The rearing, in fact, of live-stock is the grand business of the country. Millions of cattle wander at will across the plains, or are kept on breeding-estates of vast extent; and likewise of mules and horses there are immense bands. Besides the Rio de La Plata, which is rather an estuary than a river, and its far-reaching affluents, the hydrography of the A. R. comprises the head-waters of some southern streams, which fall into the open Atlantic, such as the Rio Colorado, the Rio Negro, &c.; and along the west border, under the shadow, as it were, of the Andes, salt-lakes are common. In connection, doubtless, with this feature in the hydrography, mines of rock-salt exist, and salt here and there abundantly encrusts the plains, both to the satisfaction and benefit of the roaming herds. The names of the country and its estuary, as indicating the presence of silver, have been already characterised as misnomers; and though mines of other minerals—such as sulphur and alum—are found in the neighbourhood of the Andes, yet few, if any, of them are wrought.

In 1515, Juan Diaz da Solis, while searching for a passage into the Great South Sea newly seen by Balboa, entered the Rio de La Plata. In 1526, Sebastian Cabot, son of the discoverer of Newfoundland, penetrated nearly to the confluence of the Parana and the Paraguay, being arrested by the rapids, which afterwards gave name to Corrientes. In 1535, Buenos Ayres was founded, to command, though indirectly, the most practicable channel of the only outlet of the country, a city which, in conjunction with its own colony of Monte Video, on the opposite bank, has virtually monopolised the history of a region equal in extent to Western Europe. Gradually other cities were planted, partly by colonists from Spain, and partly by adventurers from Peru, generally giving each its own name to its own province; and the grand staples of the country horses and cattle had been largely introduced before 1552. Down to 1775, the basin of the Rio de La Plata was a dependency of the viceroyalty of Lima. In that year, however, was erected the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, which, to the basin in question, added Bolivia, under the name of Upper Peru, thus embracing the head-waters of the Amazon, and also most of the plateau of Titicaca. The year 1806 ushered in a new order of things. Spain, as an ally of France, being then at war with England, both Buenos Ayres and Monte Video were occupied by the English—a change which, brief as was its duration, virtually sowed the seeds of revolution. The colonists had felt the inconvenience of belonging to a state which left them, in a great measure, to defend themselves; they had successfully tried their strength against a foe more powerful than their own masters; and they had been encouraged not less by the sayings, than by the doings, of their invaders to assert their independence. These influences were, in fact, instantaneously exemplified. The triumphant militia, after deposing and expelling the legitimate viceroy for cowardice, elected in his stead the French officer who had led them to victory. Thus had the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres become peculiarly ripe for taking its share in the outbreak, which Napoleon's dethronement of the Bourbons, in the spring of 1808, almost immediately occasioned throughout Spanish America. The constituents of the A. R. did not, however, submit to the sovereignty of Joseph Bonaparte when he was shuffled on to the Spanish throne to replace Ferdinand VII. In 1810, they organised a government in the name of the latter monarch. This arrangement, which lasted only for a short and inglorious period, ended, like a great many others, in utter confusion. In 1816, a General Congress declared the independence of the 'United Provinces of Rio de la Plata;' but those provinces, in 1827, returned once more to a state of isolation. In 1831, Buenos Ayres, Entre Rios, Corrientes, and Santa Fé, sometimes classed as the coast or riverine states, entered into a federal compact, and invited the others to form a voluntary alliance with them. This Argentine Confederation led to little but anarchy till 1835, when General Rosas was elected captain-general or governor of it, with all but absolute power. He secured quiet and order for a time; but the great aim of his policy, both warlike and commercial, being to achieve the supremacy of Buenos Ayres, the struggles with this end in view, to which he was goaded on also by personal ambition and reckless daring, led to his ultimate overthrow in 1851. Buenos Ayres, refusing to submit to Urquiza, the next governor of the A. R., declared itself independent in 1854; but was compelled by a signal defeat at Cepeda, in 1859, to re-enter the confederation. Continuing restless, however, another war, in which its army was ably led by General Mitré, placed that province in the position of supremacy which it still (1874) holds under General Sarmiento, his successor in the presi[illegible] A serious complication with Uruguay bega[illegible] Brazil and the A. R. blockaded the vario[illegible] that state and besieged Monte Video. [illegible] the interference of Lopez, the president of [illegible] and to a disastrous war, which ended only death in 1870, and which accomplished [illegible] no result in the interest or to the cre[illegible] A. R. The boundless interior of this cou[illegible] standing feud with the narrow sea-board wh[illegible] it out from the ocean; the Banda Oriental a bone of contention between the Brazilians Argentines; while England and France, [illegible] to the freedom of commerce, have thro[illegible] weight in favour of its separate and inde[illegible] existence. The jealousies also of Buenos Ay[illegible] Monte Video are constant sources of irritatio[illegible]

A'RGES, a genus of small fishes, of *Siluridæ*, of extreme interest on accou[illegible] being frequently thrown out in vast [illegible] by some of the South American volcan[illegible] torrents of muddy water. Humboldt was accurately to inquire into this wonder [illegible] to describe one of these fishes,

shales, and called *P. cyclopum*. It ... *opum*. The quantities of these ... the volcanoes in the neighbour- ... times so great, that the stench ... is felt at a great distance, ... are caused by it. They are ... in craters or from lateral openings at ... of 16,000 or 17,000 feet above the sea. ... osed that they exist in lakes within ... recesses of the mountains, but nothing ... known on this subject. Their capacity ... high temperature of the water with ... ejected, has excited much interest. ... are known, to which the common ... *cadillas* is given in the country, and ... placed by ichthyologists in the genus ... closely allied genera *Brontes* and ...

... clay or white clay, a term now little ... which the derivative *argillaceous* is still ... as descriptive of soils, geological ..., and in the name *Argillaceous Slate* or ... *Schist*, instead of which, however, the ... *slate* (q.v.) is more generally employed. ... *argillaceous* is rather vague, and some- ... *aluminous*, would seem to be ... See ARGILLACEOUS ROCKS.

PLASTIQUE, a series of beds at the ... tertiary system in France, resting on a ... or breccia of rolled and angular chalk- ... t of extensive deposits of sand, ... of plastic clays, used for pottery. ... losing, in some places, the fluviatile ... t with in the same position in the ..., and in others, large numbers of a ... ster. Beds of impure lignite also occur.— ... is the equivalent in the Paris basin of the ... Reading series, or Lower Eocene of ... geologists. See EOCENE.

ILLA'CEOUS ROCKS. All rocks com- ... or to some extent of clay are included ... Pure clay is known as *kaolin* or ... It is a hydrated silicate of alumina. ... feldspar, from which the silicates of ..., have been washed out, supplies the ... forms kaolin. *Common clay*, how- ... many impurities; the chief are sand, ... proportions, and oxide of iron, which ... colour to the mass. Any matter that con- ... ent alumina (more than 10 per cent.) to ... to retain its shape when moulded and ... ed clay. Plastic clays occur abun- ... erficial deposits and in the Tertiary ... clays become more or less indu- ... they are regularly laminated, and ... layers in the direction of the lamina, ... *shale*. In *clay-slate*, the clay has ... indurated and metamorphosed, so as ... plates that are altogether independent ... lamination, and frequently cross it at ... Clay-slate forms extensive deposits in ... rocks, but it is not confined to these, for ... some shales are often converted into clay- ... from their proximity to crystalline ... cause, they have been subjected to ... heat.

... can generally be distinguished by the pecu- ... liaceous' odour which they give out when ... moon.

... a crude variety of cream of tartar ... crust in the interior of wine-vats ... Originally, it exists in the juice ... is soluble therein; but during the ... of the juice, and as it passes into ... alcohol is developed, which remaining in the fermenting liquor, causes the precipitation of the A.; the latter being very sparingly soluble in an alcoholic liquid. Some wines, when they are bottled, are not fully ripe, and more alcohol being thereafter developed, a further precipitation of A. takes place as a crust in the bottles, and hence the meaning of the term *crusted port*. A. is generally of a reddish tinge, obtained from the colour of the grapes, but sometimes is of a grayish-white colour, when it has been deposited during the fermentation of the juice of colourless grapes. The *red* or *white A.* is denominated in commerce *crude tartar*, and its principal uses are in the preparation of cream of tartar (q.v.) and tartaric acid (q.v.). The constituents of A. are bitartrate of potash (cream of tartar), (KO,HO,$\bar{T}$), tartrate of lime, with colouring and extractive matters.

A'RGOLA. See ADJUTANT.

A'RGŎLIS, the north-east peninsula of the Morea (Greece), lying between the Bays of Nauplia and Ægina, forms a nome, or department, in the modern kingdom of Greece. The plain of Argos, famous in ancient times for its breed of horses, is naturally fertile, but is now made pestilential by morasses. It is surrounded by an eastern continuation of the range of mountains on the north of the Peloponnesus, which also girds the riven and shattered-looking coast. The highest summits attain an elevation of between 5000 and 6000 feet. The plain of A. is the most extensive in the whole peninsula, being 12 miles in length, and 5 in breadth. The eastern part is higher and more rocky than the western. Near where the plain opens on the sea, the ground is marshy. This was the Lernean marsh of antiquity. The nome of A. and Corinthia has now Nauplia as its capital, and contains 127,820 inhabitants.

It was from the importance of the ancient kingdom of A. that the Greeks were collectively often styled Argivi by ancient writers. A. was colonised in very early times. According to the old traditions, Inachus, the Pelasgic chief, settled here in 1800, and Danaus in 1500 B.C., with colonists from Egypt. Here Pelops ruled, and was succeeded by Atreus, Agamemnon, &c. Here also Hercules was born, and achieved his victories over the Lernean hydra and the Nemean lion.

The ancient capital, Argos, was situated about 3 miles from the sea, and was considered the oldest city in Greece. It was supposed to have been built by that Inachus of whom we have spoken, or by his grandson Argus; but as the whole period in which his deeds are said to have been accomplished belongs to the unhistorical age, we cannot possibly determine the truth of such a statement. It is certain, however, that at one period A. was the head of a league composed of several Doric states or cities—Cleonæ, Phlius, Sicyon, Troezen, Hermione, Ægina, and Epidaurus. Latterly, Sparta robbed it of its supremacy and influence. The population of A., during its most prosperous condition in ancient times, was—inclusive of the town-territory—upwards of 100,000. It was noted for the attention it paid to the worship of the gods. Juno was the principal divinity, but many of the other gods had temples and statues also. This gave a stimulus to the fine arts, and we know that A. possessed one of the most famous of the ancient schools of statuary. The natives were, moreover, renowned for their love of music. Herodotus considered them the finest musicians in Greece. They do not, however, seem to have cultivated literature. Few poets, and no orators or philosophers, were born amongst them. The modern Argos, built on the site of the ancient, is 7 miles from Nauplia, and is a large and thriving

town. It still exhibits some remains of antiquity, though these were nearly wholly destroyed in 1825, during the Greek war of independence. Cotton, vines, and rice are grown. Pop. 11,000.

A'RGONAUT (*Argonauta*), a genus of cephalapodous mollusca, pretty generally known by the name of *Paper Nautilus*, and in consequence of similarity in the form of the shell, often confounded with the genus *Nautilus* (q. v.), but in fact much more nearly allied to the Poulpe (*Octopus*). The shell is not chambered like that of the true nautilus, but has one spiral cavity, into which the animal can entirely withdraw itself. The animal has no muscular attachment to the shell, and some naturalists therefore suspected that it might be merely, like the Hermit Crab, the inhabitant of a shell originally belonging to some other animal; but this question has been set at rest by the observations of Madame Power, proving the beautiful but fragile shell to be the production of the A. itself. It has, however, also been discovered that the shell is peculiar to the female A., and does not answer the ordinary purposes of the shells of mollusca, but rather that of an

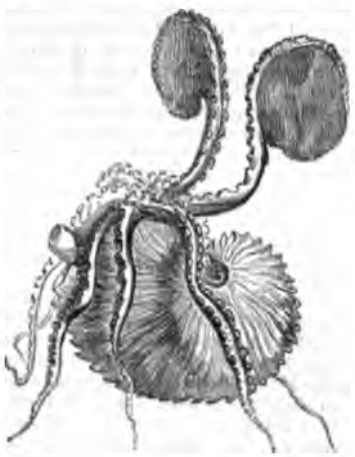


Fig. 1.

'incubating and protective nest.' The eggs, which are very numerous, are attached to filamentary stalks, and by these the whole compacted mass is united to the involuted spire of the shell, where it is usually concealed by the body of the parent. The descriptions, until recently admitted into the works of the most respectable naturalists, of argonauts sailing about in pretty little fleets upon the surface of the water, employing six of their tentacula as oars, and spreading out two, which

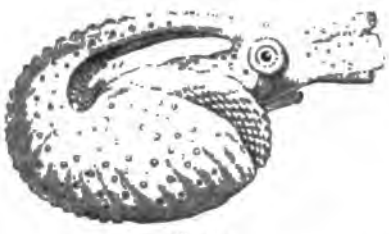


Fig. 2.

are broadly expanded for the purpose, as sails to catch the breeze, are now regarded as entirely fabulous, and indeed are founded upon an entire misapprehension of the position of the animal in its shell, and of the use of the two expanded arms or *vela* (sails). The membranes of these arms are extended at the pleasure of the animal, so as to envelop the shell, and appear to be the secreting organs employed in its fabrication. Two species of A. are common in the Mediterranean. Fig. 1 represents one of them as it used to be commonly represented with oars and sails. Fig. 2 represents it as it really exists, with the membranes of the dorsal arms covering the shell. The other arms are cut off. At *a*, in fig. 2, is seen the mass of eggs.

A'RGONAUTS, heroes of Greek antiquity (so named from their ship *Argo*), who, according to tradition, about a generation before the Trojan war, undertook a long voyage into unknown seas, under the command of Jason. Homer alludes to the story; Hesiod, Mimnermus, Pindar, the [illegible] Orpheus and many others relate it, all in di[illegible] accounts in some instances b[illegible] cilable. The plainest and mos[illegible] is that of Apollodorus, which is [illegible] was commissioned by his uncle, Pelias—[illegible] over Iolcus, in Thessaly—to fetch from th[illegible] of Æetes (Colchis) the golden fleece of which was suspended on an oak, and [illegible] sleepless dragon. He therefore cause[illegible] son of Phrixus, to build a ship of fifty pursuit of this adventure, gathered [illegible] choicest heroes from all parts of Gre[illegible] number, with whom he sailed. Their f[illegible] place was Lemnos, where the A. staye[illegible] because the women, in consequence of the Aphrodite, had slain all the men, excepti[illegible] Next they sailed to the Doliones, and w[illegible] ably received by King Cizycus, who was [illegible] accidentally killed by Jason. After Mysia, where they left Hercules and [illegible] —who had wandered too far inland in [illegible] the lost Hylas—they came to the co[illegible] Bebryces, where King Amycus was k[illegible] or Polydeuces, in a pugilistic fight. [illegible] along the coast of Thrace to Salmy[illegible] two of their number, Zetes and Cala[illegible] delivered the blind seer, Phineus, from winged monsters called Harpies, he in re[illegible] them good counsel respecting th[illegible] tures, and especially warned [illegible] dangerous passage between the o[illegible] Symplegades, from which they [illegible] little injury to their vessel. The story Phineus advised the A. to let loose a [illegible] they approached the dreaded rocks, and to from its fortune what they themselves might The bird escaped with the loss of its [illegible] resolved to risk the passage, and [illegible] got safely through, their ship only [illegible] ornaments of its stern. After vis[illegible] lands, they arrived at the mouth o[illegible] in Colchis. Here the king, Æetes, up the golden fleece to Jason, on [illegible] latter should yoke to a plough the two bulls with brazen hoofs, and should so[illegible] teeth left by Cadmus in Thebes. J[illegible] help of the famous sorceress Medea, da Æetes, who had fallen passionately in love bold navigator, fulfilled these co[illegible] also assisted by Medea in still [illegible] exploits. He obtained from her [illegible] marriage, a charm against fire [illegible] enabled to destroy all the warri[illegible] from the land sown with the dragon's [illegible] this was taking place, Æetes had resolved [illegible] ship *Argo*, and put to death the crew. [illegible] informed of the scheme by Medea, [illegible] hastened into the grove, stupified the

[illegible] prepared by Medea, seized [illegible] and, embarking in the *Argo* [illegible] and her brother Absyrtus, sailed [illegible] by night. Æetes followed, but [illegible] by an atrocity committed [illegible] is said that she slew her [illegible] cut him into several pieces, [illegible] overboard, one at a time. While [illegible] yed to gather up the fragments of his [illegible] escaped from the pursuit. The A. now [illegible] the mouth of the river Eridanus; but were [illegible] on the Absyrtian Islands by a storm sent [illegible] love, who was angry on account of the murder [illegible] Meanwhile the mast of the *Argo*— [illegible] from the sacred grove of Dodona [illegible] le to the effect that Jove could [illegible] unless they sailed towards Ausonia, [illegible] ified through the expiatory agency of [illegible] was accomplished; and next, the A. [illegible] by the Sirens, from whose charms they were [illegible] by Orpheus, who sang to them, but could [illegible] one of their number, Butes, from swimming to the sea-maidens; then through Scylla [illegible] by the help of Thetis, and at length [illegible] d of Corcyra, where Alcinous [illegible] place, they encountered a [illegible] were saved by Apollo, who, in [illegible], revealed to them the haven of [illegible] they raised an altar to their pre- At Crete, their landing was opposed by the [illegible], who was slain by Medea. They subsequently touched at Ægina, and sailing between Eubœa [illegible] ived safely at Iolcus, after a four Jason dedicated the good ship [illegible], at the Isthmus of Corinth.

[illegible] useless to speculate on the real character of the Argonautic expedition, even if it be more [illegible] myth. The accounts given by other [illegible] so widely, especially in the geographical [illegible] from those of Apollodorus, that it becomes [illegible] to determine satisfactorily whether the [illegible] sailed north, east, or west. The common [illegible] on of the legend is that Jason [illegible] of discovery, which had for its [illegible] the hope of new commercial relations [illegible] would modify this hypothesis, and [illegible] the enterprise was partly commercial, [illegible] piratical, and partly adventurous, and that [illegible] crew was in all probability composed of [illegible] restless, and ambitious spirits, who were [illegible] thing that might turn up.

STOLI, a seaport on the south-west of [illegible] and capital of the island. Its lat. is 38° [illegible] long. 19° 59′ E. Its pop. is 8000; and [illegible] long.

[illegible] Augustin, a prominent Spanish [illegible] modern liberal school. On the [illegible] out of the War of Independence in 1808, [illegible] to Cadiz, where he agitated for the organ[illegible] of a [illegible] cy along with a free constitution, [illegible] and of strengthening and consolidat- [illegible] and resources of the nation. In [illegible] ent as representative of his native [illegible] Cortes, where he was appointed one [illegible] of the committee to whom were [illegible] wing up of the plan of a new [illegible] and splendid talents as a public [illegible] won him the admiration of the liberal [illegible] used to term him the Spanish Cicero. [illegible] return of Ferdinand VII., A. fell a [illegible] reactionary spirit which ensued. On [illegible] 1814, he was arrested and impris- [illegible] he displayed such dexterity [illegible] le to convict him. Differ- [illegible] ased five successive times, but they could not agree in their decision. At last the monarch himself passed sentence, which was, that A. should be confined for ten years in the prison at Ceuta. He was not, however, alone in his misfortunes. Fourteen persons were condemned along with him, amongst whom was his friend Juan Alvarez Guerra. In their confinement they experienced such barbarous treatment, that in four years three died, two became mad, and the rest received grievous injuries. The revolution of 1820 restored them to freedom. A. became Minister of the Interior, but soon resigned, in consequence of the king complaining of the weakness of the executive. Although provoked beyond measure by the narrow bigotry of the court, he did not rush into extremes, but continued a constitutional liberal to the end of his life. In the Cortes held at Seville in 1823, he voted for the suspension of the royal power; but after the violation of the constitution, he fled to England, where he remained till the amnesty of 1832. On his return to Spain, being nominated to the Cortes, he was repeatedly made president and vice-president of the Chamber of Deputies, and always shewed himself a moderate but unwavering reformer. In July 1841, on the discussion of the law regarding the sale of church property, he delivered himself strongly against all concordats with the pope. Next to Espartero, he was the most popular man in the kingdom with the enlightened party. During the regency, he was appointed guardian to the young queen, Isabella, but died soon after, on the 23d of March 1844, at Madrid. In his old age, he still exhibited the fiery eloquence that marked his youth.

ARGUMENT (Lat. *argumentum*), in Logic, means properly the ground or premiss on which a conclusion is rested; popularly, it is applied to a series of arguments, or to a controversy. *Argumentation* is reasoning put into regular shape, with a view to convince or silence an objector. Logicians have given distinctive names to various kinds of arguments. Thus, we have the *Argumentum ad hominem*, which is no real proof, but only an appeal to the known prepossessions or admissions of the persons addressed. In this style, when a man upholds one method of fraud, he may, by an appeal to his consistency, be driven to uphold another. The A. *ad veritatem*, again, has no regard to anything save objective truth. Next we have the A. *e consensu gentium*, or an appeal to the common belief of mankind, which, of course, may be used to prove or disprove anything. The A. *a tuto* rests upon the supposed safety or prudence of adopting a certain conclusion. It is sometimes used by Roman Catholics against Protestants in the following form: Protestants teach that salvation is possible in any church; this is denied by Catholics; therefore, it is safer to belong to the Catholic Church, as even the Protestant admits that a man may be saved in that church. Lastly, the *Argumentum a baculo* (or use of the cudgel), though objectionable, is concise in its style, and has settled many controversies.

ARGUME'NTUM AD HO'MINEM. See Argument.

A'RGUS, the son of Zeus and Niobe, succeeded Phoroneus in the government of the Peloponnesus, which took from him its name of Argos, as did also the territory of Argolis.—A., surnamed Panoptes (all-seeing), had one hundred eyes, some of which were always awake. He was enormously strong, and on account of the wonderful exploits he performed, Juno appointed him to watch over Io, transformed into a cow. Mercury being commissioned by Zeus to carry off the cow, slew A. by stoning him; or, as Ovid says, first charmed him to sleep by playing on the flute, and then beheaded him. Juno

used the eyes of A. to decorate the peacock's tail.—A. the builder of the ship *Argo* (see ARGONAUTS).

A'RGUS, a genus of gallinaceous birds, remarkable for magnificence of plumage. The only known species is *A. giganteus*, formerly called *Phasianus A.*, and still very generally the A. pheasant. The sides of the head and of the neck are destitute of feathers; the tail consists of twelve feathers, of which the two middle ones in the male are very much elongated; the secondary feathers of the wings are much longer than the primary. The name A. has allusion to the many beautiful eye-like

Argus Pheasant (*A. giganteus*).

markings which adorn the plumage of the male, and particularly the secondaries of the wings. The long secondaries are said to impede the flight of the bird; but its wings are much employed to aid it in running. The female is of comparatively tame plumage, not only wanting the eye-like markings, but even the great length of the secondaries and of the middle tail-feathers. The size of the bird, when divested of its plumage, is not much greater than that of a common barn-door fowl, but the tail-feathers of the male are nearly four feet long. The A. is a native of Sumatra and other eastern islands, of the peninsula of Malacca, Siam, &c. It is said to be found even in the northern parts of China. It is impatient of confinement, and has very seldom been brought alive to Europe.

ARGY'LE, ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL, MARQUIS OF, an eminent political character of the 17th c., was born in 1598, and succeeded to the earldom of A. in 1638. Already he had given proofs of that strength of religious principle which marked his whole life, and of a perilous union of attachment to the king and of faith in the principles against which the king made war. In the General Assembly at Glasgow, in November 1638, he openly took the side of the Covenanters, and thenceforth became recognised as their political head. In 1640, he commanded a military expedition through Badenoch, Athole, Mar, and Angus, for the purpose of enforcing subjection to the Scottish Parliament. On the king's visit to Scotland, in 1641, he found it convenient to shew peculiar favour to A., and created him a marquis. On the breaking out of hostilities, A. was still desirous for negotiation, but was finally compelled to take the field. In April 1644, he dispersed the royalist forces under the Marquis of Huntly, in Aberdeenshire. He was less successful in withstanding the genius of Montrose, who, on the 2d February 1645, almost [illegible] his army at Inverlochy. His estates had much in the preceding year from the [illegible] the brilliant Cavalier, that a sum of [illegible] was voted for his support. In A[illegible] went to London, with Loudon [illegible] to treat with the parliament for a [illegible] the articles presented to the king. [illegible] the same time the bearer of a secret [illegible] from the king to treat with the Duke of [illegible] and the Marquis of Hertford, on the [illegible] a Scottish demonstration in favour of Charles. the defeat of the 'Engagement' [illegible] to [illegible] he had been decidedly opposed. of Scotland devolved on A. and terian leaders. In the parli[illegible] 1649, Charles II. was proclaimed [illegible]. on the 1st of January 1651, A. [illegible] on his head. At this time, it was [illegible] the complaisant monarch intended to [illegible] of his daughters. As head of the Co[illegible] Estates, A. took vigorous measures to op[illegible] well's invasion of Scotland, and still adhered [illegible] king, after the subjugation of the country. [illegible] the battle of Worcester, he [illegible]ed to Inve[illegible] where he held out for a year [illegible] C[illegible] troops. Falling sick, he was take[illegible] General Dean. He refused submissio[illegible] tector, but took an engagement to live [illegible] which he strictly kept. On the Res[illegible] paired to Whitehall, encouraged by a [illegible] from the king to his son. Impeached [illegible] of having submitted to the usurper (to [illegible] refused allegiance), he was committed to the and on the 13th February 1661, was bro[illegible] the Scottish Parliament on the c[illegible] He defended himself with spirit, [illegible] vain[illegible] the 27th May he was executed at [illegible] having displayed throughout his whole [illegible] the scaffold, the dignity of a true nobl[illegible] meekness of a Christian.

His son, ARCHIBALD, 9TH EARL OF A[illegible], distinguished by personal accomplis[illegible] exhibited great bravery on the disast[illegible] Dunbar, where he commanded a regim[illegible] royal side. After Worcester, he continued father, in arms, and made himself so obn[illegible] the parliamentary leaders, that he was [illegible] excepted by Cromwell from the act of [illegible] After much harassing persecution, he [illegible] the parliament, but continued to be cl[illegible] On the restoration of Charles II., he [illegible] into high favour (as a balance to the ex[illegible] father), and unfortunately for his own pated in some of the iniquitous acts of [illegible] legislature. He had, however, numer[illegible] enemies; and, on the ground of an inte[illegible] in which he had complained of neglect, [illegible] and condemned to death by the Scottish [illegible] for the imaginary crime of *læsa* [illegible] influence of Clarendon restored [illegible] favour; even the king himsel[illegible] in his favour; but a new opport[illegible] to the malice of his enemies, by [illegible] in subscribing the infamous test Scottish Parliament in 1681. He [illegible] treason, and again condemned to death of his peers. The devotion of his wife e[illegible] to escape from Edinburgh Castle, in the d[illegible] page; and after remaining concealed [illegible] Derbyshire and the vicinity of London, [illegible] Holland. Landing in the north of Sc[illegible] 1685, with an armed force, to co-[illegible] revolt of Monmouth, he was, after a se[illegible] fortunes, taken prisoner, hastily tried, co[illegible] and beheaded, June 30, 1685.

…LE, JOHN CAMPBELL, DUKE OF, was born … took an important part in political and … y … rs in the reigns of Queen Anne and her … …. As royal commissioner in 1705, he had a … e in bringing about the Act of Union. … he distinguished himself under Marl… Ramillies, Oudenarde, Lille, Ghent, and … Previous to the change of ministry in … …d been a keen Whig. He now veered … of the court, and became a declaimer … o of Marlborough. As the reward … …y, he was appointed by the Tories … of the British army in Spain; but … himself to have been unhandsomely … he ministry, he shortly after returned, … nence greatly diminished, he again … His career up to the rebellion of … — tortuous and unprincipled, and … from his meritorious services dur… period. He was, however, completely … uelling disturbances, and his services … in 1718, among other dignities, with … peerage, and the title of Duke of … His restless vanity and ambition, how… …ntly prompted him to political intrigues. … played into the hands of the Tories, … …, of securing the entire patronage of … In 1737 he rose into immense popularity … …y, by his spirited defence before … city of Edinburgh in regard to the … …. He died on the 3d September 1743. … a man of lax principles and selfish …, but possessed of considerable shrewdness … and noted for his kindness and courtesy … life. The benevolence of his disposition … title of 'the Good Duke of …

…LE, DUKE OF. George John Douglas … 8th Duke of A., was born in 1823, and … his father in 1847. At the age of 19, his … then Marquis of Lorn, wrote a pamphlet … *A Letter to the Peers from a Peer's Son*, on … of the struggle which ended in the dis… … Scottish Church. Seven years later … …ed an essay on Presbytery, which con… …storical vindication of the Presbyterian … On taking his seat in the House of Peers, … commanded the respect of that dignified … On the formation of the coalition ministry … Aberdeen, his Grace was invested with the … of Lord Privy Seal, which he continued to hold … …ston's administration. In November … …ished his office, and accepted that of … …eral. On the fall of Lord Palmer… …ation, he retired into opposition; … …on that nobleman's return, he again … …office of Lord Privy Seal. On the … …of Mr Gladstone's cabinet in 1868, he … …pointed Secretary of State for India. In … was chosen lord rector of the University … …gow; in 1855 presided at a meeting of the … Association in that city; and in 1861 was … president of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. … is hereditary master of the Queen's … …ld in Scotland, chancellor of the University … Andrews, a trustee of the British Museum, … …sheriff and Lord Lieutenant of … Other literary works by this Scottish … *The Reign of Law*, 1866; *Primeval* … …nd a small work in 1870 on the his… …uities of Iona. In 1844 he married … …ish Georgiana Gower, eldest daughter … …of Sutherland; and in 1871 his eldest son, … …rquis of Lorn, married the Princess Louise.

ARGYLESHIRE (*Airer-Gaedhil*, territory of the Gael), an extensive maritime county in the West of Scotland, including numerous islands, and a large mainland tract, cut up into many peninsulas by arms of the sea. It is bounded, N. by Inverness-shire; W. and S. by the sea; E. by Perthshire, Dumbarton, Loch Long, and Firth of Clyde. Its greatest length is about 115 miles; its greatest breadth, about 60 miles; its extent of coast-line is very great, amounting to 663 miles, owing to the indentation of the coast by numerous lochs running inland. Next to Inverness, it is the largest county in Scotland—area, 3210 square miles, of which 1063 are occupied by the numerous islands. No part is above 12 miles from the sea or from large inland lochs. The county is divided into the districts of Cantire, North and South Argyle, Lorn, Appin, Cowal, Morven, and Sunart. The chief islands are Mull, Islay, Jura, Tiree, Coll, Lismore, and Colonsay. There are upwards of thirty other islands of smaller size. The general aspect of A. is wild and picturesque, marked by rugged and lofty mountains, deep inland bays, and often precipitous coasts. Some fertile valleys exist. The north part is entirely mountainous, and presents some of the grandest scenery in Scotland, as Glencoe. The highest peaks are (Ord. Trig. Survey)—Bedan-ambran, 3760 feet; Ben Cruachan, 3668; Buachael Etive, 3341—all in Lorn; Ben Ima (end of Loch Long), 3319; Ben More (Mull), 3174; Ben Creach (Morven), 2790; North Pap of Jura, 2567. The chief bays are (going south)—Loch Moidart, Loch Sunart, Linnhe Loch, branching off into Loch Eil and Loch Leven, Loch Fyne, and Loch Long. There are no rivers of any size. The streams are short and rapid, the principal being the Urchvy, running through Glenorchy into Loch Awe, and the Awe connecting that lake with Loch Etive. The inland or fresh-water lochs are Loch Awe and Loch Lydoch. The rocks of A. are mica-slate, which predominates on the mainland; trap in Mull and Lorn; quartz rock in Islay and Jura; granite around Loch Etive and in Knapdale; patches of lias and oolite in many of the isles; and a little old red sandstone west of Loch Fyne and in South Cantire. Lead-mines occur at Strontian (where the mineral Strontianite was discovered, and from which the names of the earth called *Strontia* and the metal *Strontium* are derived), at Tyndrum, and in Islay and Coll. A copper-mine exists in Islay. The Easdale and Ballachuliah quarries supply the best roofing-slates in Scotland. Coal occurs near Campbelton; fine marble in Tiree, &c.; excellent granite near Inverary; and limestone in most parts of the county. The fertile parts of A. lie along the arms of the sea and the mountain streams. The soil is mostly a light, sandy, and gravelly loam, along the coast and the sides of rivers, and gravelly, with a till bottom, on the hillsides. Sheep and cattle rearing are the chief occupations of the farmer. More sheep are reared in A. than in any other Scotch county, and nearly a million acres are in permanent pasture. In number of cattle, A. yields only to the counties of Aberdeen, Ayr, and Perth. In 1872, A. had 24,246 acres under corn, and 12,305 under green crops, as well as 54,967 acres under permanent pasture, exclusive of heath or mountain-land. A. abounds in deer and game. Loch Fyne is famed for its herrings. Loch Awe abounds in salmon and trout.

In many parts of A. the peasantry are still very poor, notwithstanding that steamers now connect every portion of the coast with the commercial centre of Scotland. The manufactures are unimportant, the chief being whisky, in Campbelton and Islay, and coarse woollens for home use. The chief towns and villages are Inverary, Campbelton, Oban, Duncon, Appin, Lochgilphead, and Tarbert. The three former unite with Ayr and Irvine in

returning one member to parliament; the county returns another. Pop. in 1871, 75,679, represented as mostly using the Gaelic language. This exhibits a considerable decrease since 1831, which has chiefly resulted from emigration. This extensive county is divided ecclesiastically into not more than fifty parishes, which contain only two royal burghs, Inverary and Campbeltown, the former of which is a station of the Circuit Court of Justiciary. The principal proprietors are the Duke of Argyle, the head, and the Marquis of Breadalbane, a branch of the Campbell family. Among the antiquities of A. are the ruins of Iona and Oronsay, and many *duns*, or circular forts, along the coast. In Cantire formerly lived the Macdonalds, or Lords of the Isles, whose power was weakened by James III.

ARIA (AIR), in Music, a rhythmical song, as distinct from recitative. The term was formerly applied to a measured lyrical piece either for one or several voices; but is now commonly applied to a song introduced in a cantata, oratorio, or opera, and intended for one voice supported by instruments. ARIETTA, a short melody. ARIOSO, a passage in the style of the A., often introduced into recitative. A. BUFFO, a comic song, &c.

ARIA'DNE, daughter of Minos, king of Crete, by Pasiphaë. When Theseus, with the offerings of the Athenians for the Minotaur, landed in Crete, A. conceived a passion for the beautiful stranger, and gave him a clew by means of which he threaded the mazes of the labyrinth, and was enabled to slay the monster. For this service, Theseus promised to marry her, and she escaped with him, but was slain by Diana on the island of Naxos. —According to another tradition, A. was left by Theseus at Naxos, where she was found by Bacchus returning from his triumph in India, who was captivated by her beauty, and married her. At her death, he gave her a place among the gods, and suspended her wedding-crown as a constellation in the sky. A., as left forsaken by Theseus, and as married to Bacchus, has been a favourite subject with artists.

ARIA'LDUS, a deacon of the church of Milan, who flourished during the 11th c. He took a prominent part in the ecclesiastical contentions of his times. The Catholic Church in the north of Italy was then very corrupt, a wide-spread licentiousness, originating from the unnatural institution of priestly celibacy, prevailed. Great numbers of the clergy kept concubines openly. Such as looked earnestly in those days at this flagrant evil, were disposed to consider the strict enforcement of celibacy the only effectual cure. Chief among these reformers stood A., whose life was one continued scene of violent controversy. Although successively sanctioned by Popes Stephen X., Nicholas II., and Alexander II., he found little sympathy among his brethren, and used to complain that he could only get laymen to assist him in his agitation. Having at length succeeded in obtaining a papal bull of excommunication against the Archbishop of Milan, a fierce tumult ensued in the city, whose inhabitants declared against A. and his coadjutors. A. now fled to the country; but his hiding-place being betrayed, he was conveyed captive to a desert isle in Lake Maggiore, where he was murdered by the emissaries of the archbishop, and his remains thrown into the lake, June 28, 1066. He was afterward canonised by Pope Alexander II.

ARIA'NA. See ARYAN RACE.

A'RIANS. See ARIUS.

A'RIAS MONTA'NUS, BENEDICTUS, a Catholic divine noted for his great linguistic attainments, was born, 1527, in the village of Frexenal de la Sierra, situated amongst the mountains separating Estremadura from Andalucia. He studied first at Seville, and afterwards at Alcalá de Henares, where he distinguished himself by the ardour he manifested in the acquisition of the oriental languages, Arabic, Syriac, and Chaldee. He next proceeded on a tour through Italy, France, Germany, England, and the Netherlands, in the course of which he obtained a knowledge of various modern tongues. He was present at the celebrated Council of Trent; but on his return to his own country, he resolved to retire into seclusion, and dedicate his whole time to literature. In 1568, however, Philip II. persuaded him to repair to Antwerp and superintend the publication of the famous edition of the 'Polyglot Bible,' executed in that city at the suggestion of the printer, Christopher Plantin. After four years' labour, the work was issued under the title *Biblia Sacra, Hebraice, Chaldaice, Græce, et Latine, Philippi II. Regis Catholici Pietate et Studio ad Sacrosanctæ Ecclesiæ Usum Chph. Plantinus excudebat.* It was received with universal applause. The Jesuits, to whom A. was sincerely and strenuously opposed, alone attempted to fasten the charge of heresy on the author, who made several journeys to Rome to clear himself of the accusation. Philip II. rewarded him with a pension of 2000 ducats, besides bestowing on him various other emoluments. He died at Seville in 1598. His literary works are very numerous. They relate principally to the Bible and to Jewish antiquities; but he also wrote a poem on Rhetoric, and a History of Nature.

ARI'CA, a seaport of Moquega, the southerly department of Peru, in lat. 18° S. long. 70° 24′ W. Though it has merely a it affords safe anchorage to shipping, of the chief outlets of the trade of Boli connected with La Paz in that republic by path which leads across the west Co Andes. Its exports mostly consist of alpaca, wool, and guano. A. has fre fered from earthquakes; a most occurred in 1868. In 1872, 222 v tons, entered this port, and 221, v 257,024, cleared it. The climate is salu thermometer ranging from 86° F. in summer, in winter.

ARICHAT, a seaport of Cape Breton in the province of Nova Scotia, with a h for the largest vessels. It is near the Gut of the most southerly of three channels of com cation between the Gulf of St Lawrence Atlantic. The town has about inl. is largely engaged in fishing, and its harbour a lead mine has recently be

ARIÈGE, or ARRIÈGE, a river France, rises in the department of the flows through a beautiful vale. and Garonne near Toulouse.—The which lies along the northern slopes formed a part of the old county of tory of Couserans, and the province is bounded N. and W. by Haute Garo Aude, S. by the republic of Andorra and It contains some of the highest mou in France, such as Fontargente, 9164 9592 feet; Montcalm, 10,513 feet feet; Montvalier, 9120 feet. nevertheless, has a mild climate. miles. Pop. (1872) 246,298 e agriculture, pasturage, iron mines, the ture of woollens, linen, pottery, &c. arrondissements are Foix, Pamie Chief towns—Foix, Pamiers, St

A'RIES, the Ram, one of the

…the …legrees of the ecliptic measured …ve …equinox, or that point where the …the sun across the equator takes …l equinox, or, as it is also called, …, is constantly changing its posi… …fixed stars, in consequence of the … …equinoxes, moving westward at the …2 annually. It is from this circumstance …sign A. no longer corresponds with the …tion A., which was the case about 2000 …when the ecliptic was divided into 12 …d signs, each named after the group …ars which it passed. The present sign …llation Pisces, about 30° west of … and although the sun at the …ll always be at the first point of … …000 years will elapse before that …coincide with the beginning of the …A.

ARIL (*arillus*), a peculiar covering of the seed …plants, formed by an expansion of the …(the cord which attaches the ovule to the …), or of the placenta itself. This expansion …place after fertilisation, and sometimes invests …entirely, sometimes only partially. In the …the A. forms what is called *mace*. In the …tree (*Euonymus Europæus*), it forms the …range-coloured covering of the seed.

ARINOS, a river of Brazil, which after a north…course of 700 miles, enters the Tapajos, itself an …the Amazon, in lat. 9° 30′ S., and long. …

ARION, a celebrated lute-player, a native of …, in Lesbos, about 700 B.C., was regarded …cients as the inventor of the dithyrambic …According to a tradition first given by …ntus, and afterwards decorated by the poets, …sent by Periander, ruler of Corinth, to Sicily …, and at Tarentum won the prize in a poeti…. As he returned laden with gifts in a … the avaricious mariners determined …d seize his wealth; of this the poet… forewarned by Apollo in a dream. … permission to try his skill in music; … playing on his lute, threw himself …deck into the sea. Here several dolphins, …by his music, had assembled round the …On the back of one of them the musician …d to the promontory of Tænarus, where …, and journeyed on to Corinth. The …who arriving afterwards, assured Periander …dead, were confronted with him, when …their guilt, and were crucified. The …shin were raised among the constella… …and story became a favourite theme with … A. Schlegel, in one of his best poems, … of A.

ARIOSTO, LUDOVICO, one of the greatest of …ets, was born at Reggio, September 8, 1474, …eldest son of the military governor of that …was bred to the law, but abandoned it … However, at an early period of life, he … to exert himself for the support of a …, left as a burden on him at the death of … His imaginative powers were developed … In 1503, after he had written two …with several lyrical poems in Latin and …was introduced to the court of the Car… …tus d'Este, who employed him in many … Here, in Ferrara, in the space of …years, he produced his great poem *Orlando* …, which was published in that city, in one …, in 1516, in forty cantos. After the …the cardinal, the duke, his brother, … post to his service, and acted to him with great kindness and liberality. In the early part of 1521, a second edition of his poems was published, the *Orlando Furioso* being still in forty cantos. Shortly after, he was commissioned by the duke to suppress an insurrection which had broken out in the wild mountain-district of Garfagnana; a task which seems more like a punishment than a mark of honour. A., however, succeeded in this arduous undertaking; and after remaining three years governor of the quarter, he returned to Ferrara, where he lived comfortably, nominally in the service of his patron, but in reality enjoying what he highly prized—an abundant leisure for prosecuting his studies. It was at this time that he composed his comedies, and gave the finishing touch to his *Orlando*. At length, in the latter part of 1532, that poem made its appearance in a third edition, enlarged to its present dimensions of forty-six cantos. He now became seriously ill of a painful internal distemper, of which, after a few months of suffering, he died on the 6th of June 1533, in his fifty-ninth year, and was buried in the church of San Benedetto, at Ferrara, where a magnificent monument indicates the resting-place of his remains. A. is described as a man of noble personal appearance and amiable character. His *Orlando Furioso* is a romantic, imaginative epic, marked by great vivacity, playfulness of fancy, and ingenuity in the linking together of the several episodes. It takes its name and its theme from a chivalrous romantic poem by Boiardo, the *Orlando Innamorato*. That poem treats of the wars between Charlemagne and the Saracens, confounded as they were by tradition with those of Charles Martel, wherein Orlando, or Roland, stood forward as the champion of Christendom. Orlando is the hero of Boiardo's piece, and falls in love with Angelica, a clever and beautiful oriental princess, sent by the Paynim to sow discord among the knights of the Christian armies. The story of this lady being left unfinished in the *Orlando Innamorato* is taken up by A., who makes her fall in love herself with an obscure juvenile squire, on which Orlando gets furious, and long continues in a state of insanity. Besides his great work, A. wrote comedies, satires, sonnets, and a number of Latin poems, all more or less marked with the impress of his genius. In 1845, Giamperi, a librarian of Florence, announced that he had discovered at Argenta, near Ferrara, an autograph manuscript by A., containing a second epic, *Rinaldo Ardito*, describing, like the *Orlando*, the battles of Charlemagne and his paladins against the Saracens. The manuscript had been mutilated, and contained in a complete form only the cantos 3, 4, 5, while 2 and 6 were imperfect; and it was stated that the entire poem had consisted of twelve cantos. The work was published under the title *Rinaldo Ardito di L. Ariosto, Frammenti Inediti Pubblicati sul Manuscritto Originale* (Florence, 1846). In genius and style, it has been found by critics by no means to accord with the *Orlando*. Of the *Orlando* there are three several translations into the English language: the first, by Sir John Harrington, appeared in the year 1634; the second, by John Hoole, in 1783; and the third by W. Stewart Rose, in 1823 and following years. In the last only is there to be found a fair representation of the feeling and spirit of the original.

ARIOVISTUS (probably the Latinised form of the German *Heer-fürst*, army-prince), a German chief, leader of the Marcomanni and other German tribes, was requested by the Sequani, a Gallic people, to assist them in a contest against the Ædui. Having gained a victory for the Sequani, A. was so well pleased with their fine country (now Burgundy), that

he and his followers determined to abide there. Many other Germans followed him into Gaul, where he soon collected an army of 120,000 men. The Gallic people turned now for help towards the Romans, and Cæsar demanded an interview with A., who proudly replied, that 'he did not see what Cæsar had to do with Gaul.' After another message from Cæsar had been treated in the same scornful manner, the Roman forces under Cæsar advanced and occupied Vesontium (now Besançon), the chief city of the Sequani. A furious engagement took place (58 B.C.), in which Roman discipline prevailed over the German forces, which were utterly routed. A., with only a few followers, escaped over the Rhine into his own country. His subsequent history is unknown.

ARI'SPÉ, the capital of Sonora, the extreme north-west department of the Mexican Confederation. It is situated in the Sierra Madre, the western range of the Rocky Mountains, on the banks of the Sonora, which is said to lose itself in an inland lake. Its population has been estimated as high as 7600. The surrounding district abounds in the precious metals, as also in cotton, wine, grain, and live-stock.

ARI'STA AND ARI'STATE. See AWN.

ARISTAE'US (from a Greek word signifying *the best*), an ancient divinity whose worship in the earliest times was widely diffused throughout Greece, but whose myth is remarkably obscure. According to the common tradition, he was the son of Apollo and Cyrene, the latter the grand-daughter of Peneius, a river-god of Thessaly. She is said to have given birth to A. on the coasts of Libya, in Africa, whence the region is alleged to have derived its name of Cyrenaica. Hermes placed the child under the protection of the Horæ, the fosterers of cities, culture, and education. According to another tradition, A. was the son of the nymph Melissa, who fed the infant with nectar and ambrosia, and afterwards intrusted his education to Chiron. The great diversities in the legend were probably caused by the fusion into one of separate local divinities, whose functions were similar, and whose histories were, in consequence, carelessly commingled. After A. left Libya, he went to Thebes, in Bœotia, where he was taught by the Muses the arts of healing and prophecy, and where he married Autonoë, the daughter of Cadmus, by whom he had several children. After the unfortunate death of his son Actæon (q. v.), he went to Ceos, where he liberated the inhabitants from the miseries of a destructive drought by erecting an altar to Zeus *Icmæus*—i.e., the rain-maker. He now returned to his native land; but shortly after, set out a second time on a voyage of beneficence. He visited the islands of the Ægean Sea, Sicily, Sardinia, and Magna Græcia, leaving everywhere traces of his divine benignity. At last he went to Thrace, where he was initiated in the mysteries of Dionysus; and after a brief residence in the vicinity of Mount Hæmus, he disappeared from the earth.

This myth is one of an extremely pleasing character, from the invariable beneficence which is attributed to A. It is less disfigured by anthropopathic errors than most of the myths of Greek divinities. A. was especially worshipped as the protector of vine and olive plantations, and of hunters and herdsmen. He also trained men to keep bee-hives, and averted the burning heats of the sun from the open fields. Later mythology often identified A. with the higher gods Zeus, Apollo, Dionysus.

ARISTA'RCHUS, OF SAMOS, a celebrated ancient astronomer, of the Alexandrian school, who flourished 281–264 B.C. All his writings have perished, excepting a short essay on the sizes and distances of the sun and the moon. In this he shews the method of estimating the relative distances of the sun and the moon from the earth, by the angle formed by the two bodies at the observer's eye at that moment when the moon is exactly half luminous. It will be obvious from a glance at the annexed figure that the three bodies must then form a right-angled triangle, of which the moon is at the right angle. The angle MES, then, being observed, it is easy to find the ratio between EM and ES. This is quite correct in theory; but the impossibility of determining when the moon is exactly half-illuminated, renders the method useless in practice. Besides, in the days of A., there were no instruments for measuring angles with anything like accuracy. A. estimated the angle at E at 83°, and determined EM to be $\frac{1}{20}$ of ES; the truth being that the angle at E differs only by a fraction of a minute from a right angle, and that EM, the distance of the moon from the earth, is about $\frac{1}{400}$ of ES, the distance of the sun. According to some accounts, A. learned from the Pythagorean school, that the earth moves round the sun; but this seems to be a mistake. Vitruvius speaks of A. as the inventor of a kind of concave sun-dial.

ARISTARCHUS, OF SAMOTHRACE, a grammarian, who lived, about 150 B.C., in Alexandria, where he founded a school of grammar and criticism, and educated the children of Ptolemy Philometor. His life was chiefly devoted to the elucidation and restoration of the text of the Greek poets, especially of Homer. The form in which we now have the Homeric poems preserved is in a great degree owing to his judgment and industry. The soundness of his critical principles has made his name a general term for a severely just and judicious critic. Being afflicted with an incurable dropsy, he terminated his life by voluntary starvation at the age of 72. The fragments of his writings that have been preserved are to be found scattered through the Scholia on Homer, first published by Villoison (Venice, 1788).

ARI'STEAS, an entirely fabulous character, who may be styled 'the Wandering Jew' of Greek tradition in ancient Greece. First we hear of him teaching Homer; then, some ages after, he was born at Proconnesus, an island in the Sea of Marmora. It is stated that having visited the Arimaspæ, the gold-watching griffins, and the Hyperboreans, he died on his return home; but, soon afterwards, a traveller declared that he had been met and accosted by A. The neighbours searched the house where A. was supposed to be lying, but it was empty. Seven years afterwards, he appeared as author, and wrote a poem entitled *Arimaspeia*, in three books, giving accounts of Northern and Central Asia, which were copied by Herodotus and others. After thus establishing himself, he vanished again; and after 340 years he reappeared at Metapontum, where he advised the people to build Apollo, and an altar to [illegible] ing them that, when Apollo visited Metapontum (A.), in the form of a raven, he had assisted in the ceremony. The controversy of the Christian Church, has often quoted this tale of A. as a counterpart to the miracles recorded in the New Testament.

ARISTI'DES, surnamed '[illegible] of Lysimachus, and descended

n A . . He was one of the ten leaders
the Persians at the battle of
. . had been arranged that each
egos) should hold the supreme com-
. . ay; but A., who saw the folly of this
unity, induced his companions to give up
ns, and make Miltiades commander-in-chief,
oved the means of winning the battle. In
ving year, A. was chief archon, and in this
as in every other, secured the general
f the citizens. Some years later, probably
e had opposed the plans of Themistocles,
rupulous leader brought about the banish-
A. It is said that when an illiterate
who did not know him personally, requested
rite his own name on the voting shell, he
a man whether A. had injured him. 'No,'
voter; 'but I am weary of hearing him
tyled "the Just."' A. submitted to the
with dignity, praying to the gods, as he
city, that the Athenians might not have
repent of their decision. Only three years
erxes, with an overwhelming force, had
Greece. A., hearing that the Greek fleet
ded by that of the Persians, hastened
. . o apprise Themistocles of the danger, and
. After taking a prominent part in the
. . lamis, A. was restored to popular favour,
afterwards aided greatly in achieving the
at Platæa, in which he commanded the
. In 477 B.C. he introduced a change
onstitution, by which all citizens, without
n of rank, were admitted to political offices.
ing the confidence reposed in A., it is related
mistocles having announced that he had a
ery advantageous for Athens, but which he
t disclose in a public assembly, A. was
to consult with Themistocles on the subject.
a was to secure the naval supremacy of
y burning all the vessels of the other Greek
er allies, then lying in a neighbouring
A. reported to the people that nothing
more advantageous than the plan of
cles, but nothing could be more unjust; and
er was immediately rejected by the people.
ariety of other public services, A. died in
and universally respected, 468 B.C., so poor
said his funeral had to be provided for by
ic. He left a son and two daughters, for
ovision was made by state bounty.

IPPUS, the founder of the Cyrenaic school
phy among the Greeks, was the son of
, **a wealthy** gentleman of Cyrene, in Africa,
born in that city about the year 424 B.C.
ame over to Greece to attend the Olympic
n heard so much of Socrates, that he was
an eager desire to see the sage, and
. . **ns, where he became one of his pupils.**
. **with Socrates up nearly to the last**
great teacher, though he does not at
. . **n to have followed his doctrines or**
We know that subsequently he was
strong dislike, both to Plato and to
. . **the Stoic. He passed a considerable**
life in Syracuse, at the court of Dionysius,
. . **where he acquired the reputation of a**
ne voluptuary. That his manners must
n at once extremely graceful and accom-
in clear from the saying of his opponent,
declared that 'A. was the only man he
. . **could wear with equal grace both fine**
and rags.' Diogenes Laertius records a
of his *dicta*, some of which take the form
sets, and indicate a sharp, cutting, lively,
f-complacent nature. A. also lived at
in intimacy with the famous courtesan
Lais, but towards the close of his life, he is supposed to have retired to Cyrene. His daughter Arete seems to have been a person of superior abilities, inasmuch as her father imparted his leading doctrines to her, and she to her son, A. the Younger (hence called *Metrodidaktos*, 'taught by the mother'), by whom they are supposed to have been systematised. A., in all probability, published nothing during his life. He prided himself more upon spending his days in what he conceived to be a philosophical manner, than in elaborating a philosophical system for the benefit of the race.

The Cyrenaic school, all the teachers of which were probably imbued with the spirit of A., and merely carried out his doctrines to their legitimate results, professed a great contempt for speculative philosophy, and for physical and mathematical knowledge. They confined their investigations to morals, and formed an ethical system completely in harmony with the gay, self-possessed, worldly, and sceptical character of their master. The chief points of the Cyrenaic system were: 1. That all human sensations are either pleasurable or painful, and that pleasure and pain are the only criterions of good and bad. 2. That pleasure consists in a gentle, and pain in a violent motion of the soul. 3. That happiness is simply the result of a continuous series of pleasurable sensations. 4. That actions are in themselves morally indifferent, and that men are concerned only with their results. Wieland in his historico-philosophical romance, *Aristipp und einige seiner Zeitgenossen* (A. and Some of his Contemporaries), presents us with a charming picture of the life and opinions of the great philosophic sensualist, who stood out in strong relief against the gloom and austerity of Antisthenes and the Cynical school. See Wendt's *De Philosophiâ Cyrenaicâ* (Gott. 1842).

ARISTOBULUS, an Alexandrian Jew who lived under Ptolemæus Philometer about 175 B.C., and was considered by the early Fathers as the founder of the Jewish philosophy in Alexandria. He was long considered the author of the *Exegetical Commentaries on the Books of Moses* which went under his name, but it is now admitted that the work in question was the composition of a later period. Only fragments of it remain. It was intended to shew that the oldest Greek writers borrowed from the Hebrew Scriptures; and to support this theory, numerous quotations were professedly taken from Linus, Musæus, Orpheus, &c., of which the Christian apologists made abundant use. These, however, have long been considered forgeries, inasmuch as they do not exhibit a trace of the antique Greek spirit, but make the writers speak in the tone and style of the Old Testament. See Valckenaer's treatise, *De Aristobulo Judæo* (Leyden, 1806).

ARISTOCRACY (Gr. *aristocratia*, from *aristos*, best, and *kratos*, power) means etymologically the power or government of the best, noblest, or most worthy; and in the sense which it originally bore, A. had reference not to a social class, but to a form of government in which the sovereignty was placed in the hands of a minority of the citizens of the state, exclusive altogether of the slave population, which generally existed in antiquity. It is in this sense also that we use it when we speak of the Italian states of the middle ages as aristocracies. In order to constitute an A., it was further necessary that the minority which composed it should consist of the highest class, in point not of wealth alone, but of birth and culture; the government of a minority in numbers simply, being known by the more odious name of an *oligarchy*. Were the whole government

of England intrusted to the House of Lords, even though that body were to become vastly more numerous than it is, so long as it did not include half of the whole adult males, and were not elective, but hereditary, we should be ruled by an A., and our rulers would be aristocrats in the antique sense of the term. In this, its political sense, the term A. has never been acclimatised in England, because the thing which it signifies has always been unknown. Our territorial nobility, though possessing great influence in the government of the country, has, at every stage of its career, been controlled either by the Crown from above or the Commons from below; and thus it is that, though more important as a social influence than in any other country, the English A. has never assumed the form of a ruling-class. When used with reference to English society, the term A. has two significations—a narrower and a wider one. According to the first, it is nearly synonymous with *nobility*. In this sense, it will be treated of under that head, and its relative subdivisions. According to the second, it is synonymous with *gentry*, and includes the whole body of the people, titled and untitled, above a certain very indefinite social line. Perhaps the nearest approximation which we shall make to a definition of A. in this, its proper English sense, will be by adopting that which Aristotle has given not of *aristocratia*, but of *eugeneia*, or good birth. 'Good birth,' he says, 'is ancient (long inherited) wealth and virtue.' (*Politic.* lib. iv. c. 7.) The question as to the extent to which either of these qualities is requisite to constitute a claim to admission into the ranks of the A., is one to which probably not two persons, either within or without the pale, would return the same answer; but that the absence of either would be a ground of exclusion, is a point on which there will be little difference of opinion. No amount of mere wealth will, in general, confer it either on a tradesman or his immediate descendants (see GENTLEMAN); and scarcely any deeds, however noble, will give it to him who is not the possessor of inherited fortune. Neither Burns the gauger, nor Shaw the life-guardsman, has ever been regarded as an aristocrat, though nobody denies that the one was a poet, and the other a hero. But when the claim to recognition as an aristocrat has been inherited, it will scarcely be lost by the individual himself, however adverse may be his worldly circumstances, or however ignoble his conduct; and it is not difficult to imagine an elevation of moral tone which would confer it even on a beggar.

ARISTOGEI'TON. See HARMODIUS AND ARISTOGEITON.

ARISTOLO'CHIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Aristolochiaceæ* or *Asarineæ*. This order, which is dicotyledonous or exogenous, consists of herbaceous plants or shrubs, often climbing shrubs, and contains upwards of 130 known species, chiefly natives of warm climates, and particularly abundant in the tropical regions of South America. The leaves are alternate, simple, stalked, often with a stipule; the flowers axillary, solitary, hermaphrodite, of a dull colour; the perianth at its base adhering to the ovary, tubular, sometimes regular, but generally very irregular; the stamens 6—12, epigynous (or inserted upon the ovary), distinct, or adhering to the style; the ovary is generally six-celled, with numerous ovules; the style simple, the stigmas radiating, as numerous as the cells of the ovary; the fruit dry or succulent; the seeds with a very minute embryo at the base of fleshy albumen. —The genus *A.* is distinguished by a tubular oblique perianth, generally inflated at the base, the mouth dilated on one side, and by stamens adherent to the style, so that it is included in the Li class *Gynandria*. The species are mostly sh and natives of tropical countries, some of climbing to the summits of the loftiest trees. S are found in the south of Europe; one onl common BIRTHWORT (*A. Clematitis*), occurs up continent as far north as about lat. 50°, an doubtful native of England. It is a perennial with erect, naked, striated stem—heart-shaped green leaves on long stalks—the flowers stalke growing to the number of sometimes seven to from the axils of the leaves, the tube of the pe about an inch long, and of a dirty yellow c It grows chiefly in vineyards, hedges, abou borders of fields, among rubbish, and in places. It has a long branching root, with pleasant taste and smell, which, with the roots *rotunda* and *A. longa*, two herbaceous species, a

Aristolochia Clematitis.

of the south of Europe, was formerly medicine, being regarded as of great of difficult parturition, whence the E These roots possess powerful stimulating and those of the southern species are stil emmenagogues. The root of *A. Indica* is the same way by the Hindoos.—*A. serpenta* GINIAN SNAKEROOT, is a native of most United States, growing in woods. It ha stem, 8—10 inches high, bearing h acute leaves. The flowers are on from the root; the orifice of the peria gular. The root has a penetrating re and a pungent, bitter taste. It has b fancied remedy for the bite of It possesses stimulant and t forms an article of export from Europe, and bears a high price, as a medicine in certain kinds of fev tion as a cure for serpent-bites is shar species, particularly *A. anguicida* and *A.* Guaco of Colombia), natives of the wa of America. The juice has certai the stupifying, and even of killing ser said that a number of species are jugglers, in order to their hand impunity.—Several South A also to possess medicinal pro those of the Virginian snakeroot.— ing shrub, of 15—20 feet in height, southern parts of the Alleghany Mount quently planted in the United States in on the continent of Europe, to

very large heart-shaped leaves (a foot in
of a beautiful green. The flowers hang
nairs, on long stalks; the tube of the
oked in its upper part, inflated at the
d with reddish-brown veins, having a
nce to the bowl of a tobacco-pipe, for

Aristolochia serpentaria:
a; b, a flower not open, shewing the parts of fructification, c; d, the stamens; e, the stigmas.

h reason the shrub is sometimes called Pipe-shrub,
pevine, or Dutchman's Pipe.—The tropical species
d for their beauty and the peculiar
flowers. Some of them are much
nts of our hot-houses.
ural order *Aristolochiaceæ* belongs also
ASARUM.

ARISTOPHANES, the only writer of the old
dy of whom we possess any entire works,
of one Philippus, and was born at Athens
r 444 B.C. We know very little of his
to, in his *Symposium*, relates that he
pleasure—a statement which it is easy to
we consider the tendencies of his profes-
s. It seems equally clear, however,
and consistent expression of his
various works, and from the fear-
which he assails the political vices of
was possessed of an honest and inde-
He appeared as a comic writer in
r of the Peloponnesian war (427 B.C.).
ch he produced was entitled *Daitaleis*
), and received the second prize.
the follies of extravagance, and, like all
nt works, was pervaded by a contempt
and an admiration of the sentiments
earlier generations. Next year,
Ionians, in which he satirised
demagogue, so sharply, that the
ured to deprive him of the rights of
insinuating that he was not a real
, in all probability, gave rise to the
s of A. having been born in Rhodes,
fragments of these plays remain. In
Acharnians obtained the first prize. It
s to expose the madness of the war
between Athens and Sparta, and
selings of the 'peace-party' in the
It is still extant. In 424 appeared
Knights or *Horsemen*. It was the first
met produced in his own name, and
boldness of the author. It
is levelled against Cleon, and presents us with a striking picture both of a vulgar and insolent charlatan, and of the fickle, cunning, credulous, and rather stupid mob over whom he precariously despotises. It is related of this piece that, when no actor would undertake to play the part of the influential Cleon, A. himself impersonated the demagogue. Unfortunately for the character of Cleon, as well as that of the Athenian democracy, these caricatures and misrepresentations of A. have been received as historical pictures. How far they are from the truth, has been clearly shewn by Grote in his *History of Greece*. See CLEON. In 423, A. produced the *Clouds*, which, along with the *Knights*, are the two most famous of his comedies. They exhibit in overflowing richness that fancy, wit, humour, satire, and shrewd insight which characterise this greatest of all Greek comic writers. The *Clouds*, however, displays at the same time the weaknesses and limitations of A.'s mind. Its aim was to deride the pretensions of the new sophistical school, and to point out its pernicious tendencies. So far well. But A., who was no philosopher, demonstrates his own incapacity to appreciate the highest range of thought and character, by selecting no less a person than Socrates as the most perfect representative of a sophist. A., who was both religiously and politically conservative, had apparently no clearer conception of abstract truth than is involved in reverence for the sanctities of the past, the old gods, old traditions, old manners, and old sentiments. He had an instinctive hatred of innovations, and considered all equally pernicious. As he had represented Cleon the reformer as a vulgar innovator and demagogue, ruled by the lowest considerations, he makes the innovating views of Socrates also proceed from corrupt motives, veiled perhaps with more craft. Alcibiades is caricatured in this brilliant comedy as a wildly extravagant youth, whose career of ruin is accelerated by the insidious instructions of Socrates; and a hint is thrown out towards the end of the piece, which unfortunately proved to be the 'shadow' of a 'coming event.' A. represents the father of Alcibiades as about to burn the philosopher and his whole *phrontisterion* (subtlety-shop); and there can be little doubt that this dramatic vilification of the purest of heathen moralists led to that persecution which, twenty years later, culminated in his condemnation and death. In 422 appeared the *Wasps*, still extant, in which the popular courts of justice are attacked; and three years later, in his *Peace*, he returns to the subject of the Peloponnesian war, which is ridiculed with great cleverness. In 414 he produced two comedies, *Amphiaraus* and the *Birds*, both of which caricature, in the liveliest manner, the Sicilian expedition, then being meditated, but which proved so utter a failure. The *Lysistrata* belongs to the year 411, and exhibits a civil war of the sexes, as the monstrous issue of that in the Peloponnesus. In his *Plutus* and *Ecclesiazusæ*, which respectively appeared in 408 and 392, true to his mission as the enemy of innovation, he assailed the new passion for Doric manners and institutions, and ventured to ridicule Plato, in that, however, in which the philosopher is weakest—namely, his political theory. Euripides, also, as the sophist among poets, is severely handled in the *Frogs*, which belongs to the year 405.

A. wrote fifty-four comedies, of which only eleven are extant. He is acknowledged to stand far above all his contemporaries or successors of the middle and new comedy in wealth of fancy and beauty of language. His choruses sometimes exhibit the purest spirit of poetry; and Plato himself says that the soul of A. was a temple for the Graces. The

ingenuity which he displays in the mechanical artifices of verse is not less wonderful. Frogs are made to croak choruses, pigs to grunt through a series of iambics, and words are coined of amazing length—the *Ecclesiazusæ* closes with one composed of 170 letters. It only remains to be added, what might naturally be expected, that the personalities in which A. indulged descend at times into coarseness and indecency, and that even the gods whom he undertook to defend are treated with levity, and placed in the most ludicrous lights.

The comedies of A. have been edited by Brunck (1781—1783), Dindorf (1794—1826), Bekker (1829). They have all been translated into German by Voss (Brunswick, 1821), and there are several translations of single plays into English.

ARISTOTE'LIA. See MAQUI.

A'RISTOTLE was born at the Grecian colonial town of Stageira, on the west side of the Strymonic Gulf (now the Gulf of Contessa, in Turkey in Europe), in the year 384 B.C. He belonged to a family in which the practice of physic was hereditary. His father, Nikomachus, was the friend and physician of Amyntas II., king of Macedonia, father of Philip, and grandfather of Alexander the Great. A. lost both parents while he was quite young, and was brought up under the care of Proxenus, a citizen of Atarneus, in Asia Minor, who was then settled at Stageira. It is to be conjectured that his education, such as it was, would take the direction of preparing him for the family profession, and that whatever knowledge and power of manipulation attached to the practice of physic at that time, would rank among his early acquisitions. In after-life, he occupied himself largely in the dissecting of animals, and was acquainted with all the facts that had been derived from this source by others before him. It seems probable, however, that he early abandoned the intention of following physic as a profession, and aspired to that cultivation of universal knowledge for its own sake, in which he attained a distinction without parallel in the history of the human race.

In his 18th year (367 B.C.) he left Stageira for Athens, then the intellectual centre of Greece and of the civilised world. Plato, on whom he doubtless had his eye as his chief instructor, was then absent at Syracuse in that extraordinary episode of his life, connecting him as political adviser with the two successive Syracusan despots—Dionysius the Elder, and Dionysius the Younger—and with Dion. A., therefore, pursued his studies by books, and by the help of any other masters he could find, during the first three years of his stay. On the return of Plato, he became his pupil, and soon made his master aware of the remarkable penetration and reach of his intellect. The expressions said to have been used by Plato imply as much; for we are told that he spoke of A. as the 'Intellect of the School.' Unfortunately, there is a total absence of particulars or precise information as to the early studies of the rising philosopher. He remained at Athens twenty years, during which the only facts recorded, in addition to his studying with Plato, are, that he set up a class of rhetoric, and that in so doing, he became the rival of the celebrated orator and rhetorical teacher, Isocrates, whom he appears to have attacked with great severity. It was in the schools of rhetoric that the young men of Athens got the principal part of their education for public life. They learned the art of speaking before the Dikasteries, or courts of law, and the public assembly, with efficiency and elegance; and incidentally acquired the notions of law and public policy that regulated the management of affairs at the time. We can easily suppose that A. would look with contempt upon the shallowness—in all that regarded thought or subj
common rhetorical teaching, of wh
prevailing excellence would lie in the form of
address, being artistic rather than profound
erudite. One of the disciples of Isocrates,
his master against A., wrote a treatis
allusion is made to a work (now lost) on p
the first recorded publication of the philosop

The death of Plato (347 B.C.) was
of A.'s departure from Athens. It w
ordinary or unreasonable that A. should
succeed his master as the chief of his school,
the Academy. We now know that no other
then existing had an equal title to that pre-emin
Plato, however, left his nephew Spensippus a
successor. We may suppose the disposi
thus arising to have been the principal cir
that determined A. to stay no l
but there are also other reasons
assigned, arising out of his rela
Macedonian royal family at a
Athenians and Philip had come into open

Whatever may be the explanation, he
his thirty-seventh year, after a stay of near
years in Athens, to the Mysian town of A
in Asia Minor, opposite to the island of L
Here he lived with Hermeias, the ch
town, a man of singular energy and a
had conquered his dominion for
Persians, at that time masters of
Minor. A. had taught him rhetoric at
he became in return the attached friend
of his teacher. For three years the
together in the stronghold of Atarneus;
treachery and false promises, the Rhodian
an officer in the Persian service, got
of the person of Hermeias, put him to d
became master of all the places h
accordingly fled, and took refuge i
chief city of the neighbouring island of
also took with him Pythias, the sister o
and made her his wife. In a noble o
commemorated the merits of his friend
to him through the treachery of a Greek
His wife, Pythias, died a few years
in Macedonia, leaving him a d er o
name. His son, Nikomachus, to
his chief work on ethics—called, in
Nikomachean Ethics—was born to
period of his life by a concubine.

After two years' stay at Mitylene, he
(in the year 342 B.C., age 42) by Philip to
to educate his son Alexander, then in his
year. What course of study Alexander
to go through, we cannot state. He
teaching of A. for at least three y
a strong attachment to his pupil
afterwards converted into bitter
parted finally when Alexander
expedition into Asia (334 B.C.), and
Macedonia to Athens, having recommended
future conqueror, as a companion in his
the philosopher Callisthenes, whom he
along with Alexander. Now at
he entered on the final epoch of
a school called the 'Lyceum,'
to the temple of Apollo Lyceius.
of walking up and down in the
lectures, arose the other name
sect, the *Peripatetic*. It would appe
his habit to give a morning lecture to
on the more abstruse subjects, and one in
of a more popular kind to a general a
may now be supposed to have composed
writings; but, unfortunately, th is
of the dates of any of them.

lasted twelve years. After the death of
r, the anti-Macedonian party at Athens ob-
ascendency, and among other consequences,
on was prepared against A., the pretext
ety. With the fate of Socrates before his
ose a timely escape, and in the beginning of
C., took refuge at Chalcis in Eubœa, where, in
autumn of the same year, he died, aged 62. He
long been afflicted with indigestion, and ulti-
ly sank under this malady.

philosophy of A. differed from that of Plato on
ints, especially in the fundamental doctrine
Theory of Ideas. The Platonic 'ideas'
were conceived as real existences, impart-
at is common to the particular facts or
instead of being derived from them by an
of the mind. Thus, the actual circles
derive their mathematical properties from
existing 'idea,' or circle in the abstract;
ctual men owe their sameness to the ideal man.
was opposed to this doctrine throughout, although
always speaks of its author with respect, and
imes with affection. The whole method of A.
marked contrast to the Platonic handling of
hical subjects: he was a most assiduous
r and collector of facts, from which he drew
s with more or less accuracy. Plato, on
and, valued facts merely in criticising the
s he was bent upon demolishing, and not
of establishing sound theories.

tings of A. may be said to have embraced
e circle of the knowledge of his time. Many
s are lost; those that remain refer principally
following departments.

nomy, Mechanics, Physics, were treated
at some length; but here his failure
ete, if we look at his writings from
of view now acquired. He was the
capricious fancies, based upon doctrines
among his contemporaries, accepted by
rinciples of reasoning, and conducting him
most unsound conclusions. His theory of
ion of the sphere, the necessary perfection
r motion, of the impossibility of a vacuum,
like, did more to confuse than to explain
nomena of nature. Nor can it be said that
was not ripe for putting these subjects on a
basis; for he was very shortly followed by
of men, who both observed and reasoned
especting them, and laid the foundation of
subsequent progress namely, Euclid,
, Archimedes, Eratosthenes, and Hippar-

fteen books called Metaphysics contain
sound thought, but are obscure and de-
arranged; indeed, neither the actual
t of the books, nor the title which they
e ascribed to A. himself. The subject to
ey are devoted is Ontology—the science
quatenus Ens—which he terms *Philosophia*
and sometimes Theology. He distinguishes
anches of theoretical philosophy. 1. Physics
dy of sensible material particular things,
which differs from every other, and all of
have in themselves the principle of change
otion. 2. Mathematics that of geometrical
numerical entities, known by general definitions,
not neither of change nor of movement,
being considered and reasoned upon apart
r, but not capable of existing apart
3. The First or Highest Philosophy—
the essences of things eternal, un-
ible, and apart from all that change, move-
and differentiation which material embodi-
involves.

he Metaphysics, or First Philosophy, does in fact deal with the extreme abstractions or generalities of all sciences. It is a collection, partly of doubts and difficulties, partly of attempted solutions, upon these last refinements of the human mind. It includes many valuable comments on the philosophy of Plato and others anterior to or contemporary with A. The general terms and subtle distinctions which this treatise first brought to view, were highly prized throughout all the philosophy of the middle ages.

He appears in a very different light in his great work on Animals. He has here amassed a stock of genuine observations, and also introduced a method of classification which continues to this day as the most approved groundwork of zoological classification. In this work we see perhaps in the most advantageous light, the two great qualities of his mind, rarely coupled in the same individual the aptitude for observation, and logical method. The excellence shewn in his various writings generally depends upon one or other of these qualities.

His Organon or Logic is his complete development of formal reasoning, and is the basis and nearly the whole substance of syllogistic or scholastic logic. This science he almost entirely created. Mr Grote observes (*History of Greece*, part ii. chap. lxviii.) that 'what was begun by Socrates, and improved by Plato, was embodied as a part of a comprehensive system of formal logic by the genius of A.; a system which was not only of extraordinary value in reference to the processes and controversies of its time, but which also, having become insensibly worked into the minds of instructed men, has contributed much to form what is correct in the habits of modern thinking. Though it has now been enlarged and recast by some modern authors (especially by Mr John Stuart Mill in his admirable System of Logic) into a structure commensurate with the vast increase of knowledge and extension of positive method belonging to the present day—we must recollect that the distance between the best modern logic and that of A. is hardly so great as that between A. and those who preceded him by a century—Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and the Pythagoreans; and that the movement in advance of these latter commences with Socrates.'

A considerable portion of his writings relate to the Human Mind and Body. In one of these, a short treatise on Memory and Recollection, he gave the first statement of the laws of Association of Ideas.

His treatises on Rhetoric and Poetics were the earliest development of a Philosophy of Criticism, and still continue to be studied. The same remark is applicable to his elaborate disquisitions on Ethics.

Perhaps one of his greatest works is his Politics, based upon a collection made by himself of 158 different Constitutions of States; the collection itself being unhappily lost. Here we see the spirit of the inductive observer, which indeed is no less apparent in the works mentioned in the last paragraph. It is, however, a singular fact, that he gives no evidence of having read the historian Thucydides; and his only reference to Herodotus is on a point of natural history. Yet the narratives and descriptions contained in the works of both these writers are probably of as much value, and as much in point, in a Political Philosophy, as the very best observations made by himself.

The great current distinctions of Matter and Form, Substance and Quality, Actuality and Potentiality, are due to A. See Grote's *Aristotle*, 1872.

ARISTOXENUS, of Tarentum, a pupil of Aristotle's, and one of the oldest writers upon music, flourished about 330 years B.C. He was extraordinarily active and versatile in his literary studies, and is said to have composed upwards of 450 treatises

on music, history, and philosophy. On the death of Aristotle, he fully expected to be appointed his successor, and is said to have been deeply mortified when Theophrastus was preferred; but this statement is discredited by many. He founded a school of musicians, who were called after him, Aristoxeneans, and whose distinguishing characteristic was that they judged of the notes in the diatonic scale exclusively by the ear, while the Pythagoreans determined these mathematically. Except his *Elements of Harmony*, in three books, which we still possess, only a few fragments of his writings survive in later authors.

ARITHMETIC is the science that treats of numbers (Gr. *arithmos*). It is sometimes divided into theoretical and practical; the former investigating the properties of numbers and their combinations, the latter applying the principles so established, in the form of rules, to actual calculations. Some restrict the term A. to this art of reckoning, assigning the investigation of the principles to analysis.

Among the ancient Greeks and Romans, A. made little progress, owing to their clumsy modes of notation. Few of their writings on the subject have come down to us; the most important are those of Euclid (7—10 B. of the *Elements*), Archimedes, Diophantus, and Nicomachus. After the introduction of the decimal system and the Arabic or Hindu numerals (see NUMERALS), about the 11th c., A. began to assume a new form; but it was not till the 16th c. that the Double Rule of Three, or Compound Proportion, was discovered, and decimal fractions were introduced. The invention of Logarithms in the 17th c. is the last great step in advance that the art has made. Passing over the elementary operations of Addition, &c., the chief heads, such as FRACTIONS, DECIMALS, PROPORTION, LOGARITHMS, &c., will be noticed in their proper places.

ARITHMETICAL MEAN is that number that lies equally distant between two others: thus, the A. M. between 11 and 17 is 14, which is found by taking half their sum.

ARITHMETICAL PROGRESSION is a series of numbers that increase or diminish by a common difference, as 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, 22; or 12, 10½, 9, 7½, 6. To find the sum of such a series, multiply the sum of the first and last terms by half the number of terms. The series of natural numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c., form an A. P., of which the difference is 1.

ARITHMETICAL SIGNS are arbitrary marks or symbols used to denote the operations to be performed on numbers, or the relations existing between them. *Ex. gr.*, $7 + 5$ indicates that 7 and 5 are to be *added* together; $7 - 5$, that 5 is to be *subtracted* from 7; 7^5 that 7 is to be raised to the fifth *power*; $7 + 5 = 15 - 3$, that when 7 and 5 are added together, the result is *equal* to the difference between 15 and 3. The same signs are also used in Algebra; and an enumeration and explanation of them may be found in almost any treatise on Arithmetic or Algebra.

A'RIUS, the celebrated founder of Arianism, was a native of Libya, and is generally supposed to have been born shortly after the middle of the 3d c. About the year 306 A. D., Alexandria was thrown into confusion by the violence of its religious disputes, and in these A. was largely mixed up. At first, he took part with Meletius, Bishop of Lycopolis, in Upper Egypt, a man who was strenuously opposed to certain notions of discipline entertained by Peter, Bishop of Alexandria; but afterwards he became reconciled to the latter, who made A. a deacon. The reconciliation, however, was brief. A. once more took the part of Meletius, and was excommunicated by Peter in consequence; b latter dying soon after, Achillas, his suc restored A. to his office, and even advanced the dignity of a presbyter, 313 A. D. His ne tion required that he should interpret the Sc and, as he possessed an abundance of na united with great learning, it is not w his preaching should have become po peculiarities of opinion been vehemen The first time, however, that A. was in collision on a point of doctrine with his eccles superiors, was in 318 A. D. Alexander, Bis Alexandria, and successor of Achillas, havin public assembly of clergy, while speaking Trinity, said that it contained one su or indivisible unity of substance, A. such a conception was impossible to mind, and accused Alexander of Sabel of destroying the distinction of persons. pute grew hot, and a conference which was settle it only embittered the disputants. In taining his ground, A. went beyond his ment of the absolute distinctness of person the Father and the Son; he maintained th Son was not co-equal or co-eternal with the F but only the first and highest of all finite created out of nothing by an act of God's that he ought not to be ranked with

A. was successful in securing the ad numbers both of the clergy and laity in and Asia Minor. In 321 a synod of held at Alexandria. These deposed and excom cated A., and active measures were taken to h decision be known over all the Christian chu Alexander himself wrote numerous l rs (t which are still extant), exhorting the receive the 'heretic.' In consequence o steps, the breach was widened between To escape persecution, A. retired to Pal he wrote a letter to his friend Eusebius, Bishop of Nicomedeia, a city of Bithynia, fro from Constantinople. Eusebius, one of th influential Christians of his time, warmly sy with him; wrote in his behalf to Paulinus Tyre, and others; absolved him from drian synod's excommunication; and vened another synod in Bithynia, favourably on A. He even enlisted the side of the latter, to this extent the half-pagan emperor addressed both Alexander and A., assuring them in dispute was a trifling one, and ought voke a serious quarrel. While A. was res Nicomedeia, he wrote a theological work and prose, called *Thaleia*, some fr remain, and indicate an earnest mind, but at the same time contain e could not but pain a believer in Christ. The *Thaleia* is said to have by the Arian neophytes, who thus passions of their adversaries, and increa virulence of the contest. The comedians, pagans, took advantage of the occasion the Christian religion in the theatres. of the emperor in several cities wished this profane temerity, but the i created greater confusion.

It now became impossible for the remain neutral or indifferent, with ea self, or to the tranquillity of the empire. Bishop of Corduba, whom he had mediator betwixt Alexander and A., took the former, and reported unfavoura result was, that Constantine, in order to effect a final settlement of the qu the memorable Council of Nicæa

A. D. Three hundred and eighteen
[illegible] all parts of the Christian
[illegible]y from the east, were present,
[illegible] priests, deacons, and acolytes.
[illegible]d and defended his opinions.
[illegible] unambiguous manner that
[illegible] of God was created out of nothing; that
[illegible] not always existed; that he was not immut-
[illegible]er impeccable; that it was through his free-
[illegible]he remained good and holy; that if he had
[illegible]. he could as easily have sinned as not; in a
[illegible]it he was a mere creature and work of the
He further affirmed that the Son of God
[illegible]t of the same substance with the Father; that
[illegible]ot the 'Word' or 'Wisdom,' properly speak-
[illegible]d that the Scriptures only attribute these
to him as they do to other created intelli-
[illegible]. These propositions were listened to with
[illegible] calmness by the bishops, but the inferior
or at least a majority of them, manifested
[illegible]t violent opposition. The document con-
his confession of faith was torn to pieces
[illegible]is [illegible]s. Arguments, however, of a more
[illegible] were also employed. Alexander was
[illegible]d by the young deacon, Athanasius, the
[illegible] eloquence, and in the power of his logic.
[illegible]ally by the reasonings of Athanasius
[illegible]council was persuaded to define, in the
[illegible]ame manner, the doctrine of the Godhead—
[illegible] absolute unity of the divine essence, and the
[illegible]e equality of the three persons. All the
[illegible]subscribed it except two, Theonas of Mar-
and Secundus of Ptolemais, who had the
[illegible](for it must be considered such) to follow
[illegible] A. into Illyricum.

[illegible]edict was now issued commanding the
[illegible]s [illegible] to be burned, and threatening with
[illegible]nishment all who should be convicted of
[illegible]m. This change in the emperor's senti-
[illegible] importance of the doctrine at issue is
[illegible]d by some writers to his recognising the will
[illegible]n in the harmonious consent of so many
A[illegible]re probable explanation is, that he
[illegible]utmost social confusion from the col-
[illegible]ns, and resolved to crush that which
[illegible] youngest and the weakest, hoping
[illegible]remove the ground of disturbance. He
[illegible]ken, however. At Alexandria, the Arians
[illegible]in a state of open insurrection, and began
[illegible]themselves with other condemned sects, for
[illegible]ses of mutual defence. The great influence
[illegible] was also exerted on behalf of the exiled
[illegible] well as that of Constantia, the sister
[illegible]eror, who had herself embraced Arian
in 328, permission was granted him to
Illyricum. Constantine was very gra-
[illegible]m because he thought the chances of
[illegible]ng restored to the community were now
[illegible]for it had been represented to him by
[illegible]t the doctrines of A. did not essentially
[illegible]se of the Nicene Council. In 330 A. D.,
[illegible]rview with the emperor, and succeeded
[illegible]h[illegible]hat Eusebius had only spoken the
[illegible]an [illegible]confession of faith which he pre-
[illegible]declared his belief that the Son was born
[illegible]r before all ages, and that as the 'Word,'
[illegible]made all things both in heaven and earth.
emperor was satisfied, and sent orders to
[illegible]ius, now Bishop of Alexandria, to receive A.
communion of the church. This Athanasius
[illegible]a to do, and a series of tumults was the con-
[illegible]s. [illegible]bius was greatly irritated. He called
[illegible]s at Tyre, in 335 A. D., which pro-
[illegible]Athanasius. The emperor was even
[illegible]n to remove the latter to Gaul, though he
[illegible]as his reason, that he wished to deliver him
from the machinations of his enemies. In the same year, another synod met at Jerusalem, which revoked the sentence of excommunication uttered against A. and his friends. Still the majority of the Christians of Alexandria clung to the doctrines of Athanasius, and resolutely resisted every effort to establish the new opinions among them. Disappointed in his expectations, A., in 336 A. D., proceeded to Constantinople, where he presented the emperor with another apparently orthodox confession of faith; whereupon orders were issued to Alexander, Bishop of Constantinople, to administer to Arius the holy communion on the Sunday following. This was considered a grand triumph by Eusebius and his friends, and when the day arrived, they escorted A., as a guard of honour, through the streets of the metropolis. When about to enter the temple in which it was intended that he should be received with solemn pomp, he retired a moment to relieve nature, but fainted, and died of a violent hemorrhage. His disciples declared that he had been poisoned, while the orthodox devoutly affirmed that God had answered the prayers of Alexander.

A. was exceedingly handsome, but the harassing cares of a life spent in a continual struggle with his adversaries, is said to have given him a worn and haggard look. His manners were graceful and modest; he was noted for even an ascetic abstinence, and the purity of his moral character was never challenged by a single enemy. A. is said to have composed songs for sailors, millers, and travellers, in popular measures, for the purpose of spreading his peculiar tenets; but no traces of these survive.

After the death of A., his followers rallied round Eusebius, now Bishop of Constantinople (338), from whom they were styled Eusebians. The reconciliatory middle party of Eusebius of Cæsarea (died 340 A. D.), who wished to end the great controversy by abstaining from all strict dogmatic assertions on the matter, soon dwindled into insignificance between the two contending parties. Constans, who ruled the West after the death of Constantine (337), and Constantius, in the East, made an essay towards reconciliation; but it failed at the synod of Sardeis (347), where the occidental bishops gathered themselves round Athanasius in support of the *Homoousian* doctrine (identity or *sameness of substance*), while in a separate council at Philippopolis, the oriental bishops asserted the *Homoiousian* doctrine (implying merely *similarity of substance*). Slight as might appear the verbal difference between the two parties, the bitterness of the controversy was intense, and pervaded almost all departments of public and private life. Constantius having, by the death of Constans (350) and conquest over Magnentius (353), gained dominion over the west, the Arian cause, which he favoured, triumphed at the synod of Arelate or Arles (353) and at that of Milan (355). These victories, however, were more apparent than real. The Nicene doctrine had still strong support on its side, and was strictly maintained by the banished Athanasius and his friends, while the Antinicæans, soon after their triumph, were divided into at least three parties. The old Arians, also styled Anomœi, or Heterousians, asserted, in the boldest style, their doctrine of 'distinct substances.' The semi-Arians (a large majority in the Eastern Church) maintained the Homoousian doctrine of similar substances. A third party held the same doctrine with some qualification. Morally, the victory was leaning to the side of the Nicæans. Julian the Apostate (361–363), in his hatred of the Christian religion, left all parties at liberty to contend as they pleased with one another, so that they did not interfere with his plans. Jovianus and his followers in the west, Valentinianus I., Gratianus, and Valentinianus II.,

extended full toleration to both parties. Arianism, at last, was virtually abolished in the Roman empire, under Theodosius in the east (379—395), and Valentinianus II. in the west. Among the German nations, however, it continued to spread through missionary efforts. Bishop Ulfilas, the translator of the Bible into the Mæso-Gothic language, had been the means of converting the West Goths to Arian Christianity as early as 348; and they adhered to it until the synod of Toledo in 589. The East Goths, Vandals, Burgundians, the Suevi in Spain, and the Longobards also adopted Arianism; but in all these instances the Nicene doctrine ultimately prevailed, most slowly among the Longobards, who retained the Arian creed until 662. The Arian controversy has never excited any great interest in modern times, though in England it was revived for a time by the writings of the learned Dr Samuel Clarke (1675—1729), and also by Whiston, who died in 1752. More recently, a part of the Arian doctrine, the denial of 'the eternal sonship,' was broached in the Wesleyan Methodist Society by Dr Adam Clarke and a few followers; but it was soon suppressed by the Conference. Pure Arianism can hardly now be said to exist. It has gradually lapsed into Unitarianism. See UNITARIANS.

ARKA'NSAS, one of the larger states of the American Union, taking its name from the river A. Throughout its entire length, it occupies the right bank of the Mississippi, being separated by that stream, towards the east, from Tennessee and the north half of Mississippi. Its boundaries to the south, west, and north are purely arbitrary and conventional, and are best learned from a map. With a length of 240 miles, and a breadth of 224, the area of A. is 52,198 square miles, being pretty nearly the same as that of England proper. In 1870, out of the equivalent 33,406,720 acres, only 1,859,821 were cultivated, very little more than $\frac{1}{17}$ of the whole, or than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the lands liable to taxation as being allotted and occupied. The principal products of this cultivated land were 740,000 bushels of wheat, 13,382,145 bushels of Indian corn, 529,000 bushels of oats, and 247,968 bales of cotton. A. had in 1820 only 14,273 inhabitants; in 1870, the pop. was 484,471. Though nominally colonised by the French in 1685, yet in 1803 it was still virtually a wilderness, when, as a portion of Louisiana, it came by purchase into the possession of the United States; while it was only in 1819 and 1836 respectively that it became first a territory, and then a state of the Union. The towns of A. are small, the principal being Little Rock, the seat of government, with 12,380 inhabitants, which is about four times as populous as any other place in the state; Camden, Fort Smith, Pine Bluff, Van Buren, and Arkadelphia.

In climate and productions A. occupies, as it were, an intermediate position between the states of the west and those of the south. A. is rich in minerals, particularly in manganese, zinc, and gypsum. It also contains the principal varieties of coal—cannel, anthracite, and bituminous. It likewise possesses lead-ores, which are said to contain a large proportion of silver. The manufactures of the state are comparatively insignificant.

The internal improvements of A. are confined chiefly to plank-roads and levees or embankments against the Mississippi. Of a projected railway of 155 miles from Little Rock to Memphis in Tennessee, only 29 miles appear to have been actually completed. In fact, the state is comparatively independent of works of this description, penetrated as it is by so many navigable rivers—the A., the White River, the St Francis, the Red River, the Washita, &c.

In 1870, the public indebtedness of A., contr mainly in support of banks, amounted to 4,15 dollars, nearly half of it representing 'interes crued and unpaid.' The taxation for the same was 2,866,890 dollars, chiefly the result of a assessment on property of almost every descri —lands, houses, furniture, horses, mules, c stock-in-trade of all trades, gold watches, j lery, &c.

The state legislature meets only once To the Lower House of Congress, A., tion of its population, sends four repr while, like every other state, it has two s the Upper House.

ARKA'NSAS RIVER, next to the M largest affluent of the Mississippi. It is long, rising in the Rocky Mountains on of Utah, and joining the 'Father of Waters' i 33° 54′ N., and long. 91° 10′ W. Flowing g ally through a level country, it presents but obstacles to navigation. The principal difficul connected with its periodical rise and fall- difference between season and seas being less than 25 feet. Notwithstanding how the A. is practicable for steamboats, months of the year, to a distance of from its mouth. It divides the state wh its name into nearly equal parts, varying i within the limits of the same from 3 furlong half a mile. Its banks also, in its lower co contain a good deal of stone-coal.

A'RKLOW, a seaport town in the south- corner of Wicklow county, in lat. 43° 40′ and long. 4° 38′ W., at the mouth of the Avoca, which is crossed here by a br of teen arches. It consists of an upper we and a lower, inhabited by fishermen. are employed in the herring and c Near the town is Shelton Abbey, the Earl of Wicklow. Sand-banks unfit the h ships of any size, and extensive sand-dunes the adjacent coast. In 1798, a bloody en took place here between the royal troops and United Irishmen. Pop. (1871) 5214.

ARK OF THE COVENANT, ARK OF T TESTIMONY, or **ARK OF JEHOVAH**, o the most important parts of the furniture of tabernacle, which, by divine direction, the Isra constructed in the wilderness, and after the temple built by Solomon at Je description of it is to be found in Ex the command given to Moses for its c and also in Exodus xxxvii., from which that it was a chest of shittim-wood (very g supposed to be the wood of a species of acac by some regarded as more probably that wild-olive), overlaid with gold within and two cubits and a half in length, one cubit and in breadth and in height—that is, according to common estimate of the length of the cubit, 3 9 inches in length, and 2 feet 3 inches and height—the lid being formed e gold, with a crown or raised bor about. Within the ark was dep 'mony,' consisting of 'the two tables the stone tablets upon which the ten co were inscribed. The golden lid of the ark was the *mercy-seat* or *propitiatory*, and above it *cherubims* (q. v.), made of the same piece o it, and between them was the place of the or manifestation of the Divine presence. had also golden rings, through which of shittim-wood, overlaid with gold, fo in the journeyings of the which very particular

, iv.1. Whilst being carried from one place
er. was covered first with a 'covering
' and above this with 'a cloth
, and in the tabernacle and temple
nt. o the 'most holy place,' into which
alone was to enter upon the 'day of
he ark was called the A. of the C.,
was the appointed symbol of the presence
a the God of Israel, and of his covenant
people. The things of the Jewish dispen-
i regarded as typical, and the Jewish
essentially one with the Christian, the
nly regarded as a type of Christ; the
unchangeableness of the moral law,
tes, by the place assigned to it within the
. however, sprinkled with the blood of
ice, was interposed between it and
s, having transgressed it, were exposed
rse; and the mercy-seat, in like manner
with the blood of sacrifice, was interposed,
a, between the law and God, who is repre-
the Old Testament as 'dwelling between
abims,' and thence shining forth as the
rer. favourable to his worshippers. A
ny is thus made out between these
types and Christian theology.—It is
of notice, that sacred arks or chests
a connected with the worship of various
nations, and have been placed as the most
ings in the innermost parts of the temple,
nly the priests were permitted to enter.
ion of these to the ark of the Jews has
subject of much learned inquiry, but has
e ed thorough and satisfactory elucida-
e appears not to have been brought
aylon, and so never to have been in
a temple. No figure of it appears among
l vessels of the temple represented on the
Titus.

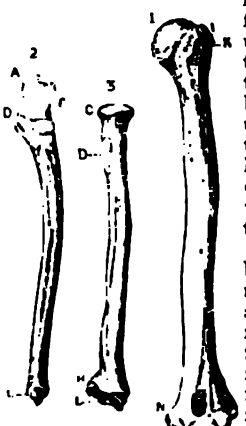
)NA, the north-east promontory of the
Rügen, in the Baltic, almost the most
extremity of Germany. Its steep cliffs
nsist of mixed chalk and loam, with hori-
ins of flint; there is a small deposit of pure
wards the east. Myriads of sand-martins
the clefts of these cliffs. The view from
mmit extends to the coast of Jasmund on
, on the left to the islands of Hiddensöe
n. The name A. is very ancient. In the
s of Saxo Grammaticus we find it written
but its derivation is quite uncertain. On
side is the famous wall or fortified enclo-
which stood the temple of the Wend
antewit. King Waldemar I. of Denmark,
loody conflict, took possession of the fortress
burnt the idol and its temple, and carried
treasures to Denmark. On its site, a light-
feet high, was built in 1827.

WRIGHT, Sir Richard, celebrated for his
s in cotton-spinning, was born at Preston,
shire, Dec. 23, 1732. Of humble origin, the
of thirteen children, and bred to the trade
er, his early opportunities of cultivation were
gly limited. In 1760, he gave up his business
ber in Bolton, and became a dealer in hair.
process for dyeing hair, said to have been
d by himself, increased considerably the
his trade. Very little is known regarding
nts of his mind in the direction of
cation. His residence in the midst of
sing population naturally led him to
est in the processes used in that manu-
t the development of his mechanical
was not, however, due to circumstances, is
ly proved by the fact, that his first effort
was an attempt to discover the perpetual motion. Having no practical skill in mechanics, he secured the services of a watchmaker, named Kay, to assist him in the construction of his apparatus. About 1767, he seems to have given himself wholly up to inventions in cotton-spinning. In the following year he removed to Preston, where he set up his first machine, the celebrated *spinning-frame*, consisting chiefly of two pairs of rollers, the first pair moving slowly in contact, and passing the cotton to the other pair, which revolved with such increased velocity as to draw out the thread to the required degree of fineness. No previously invented machinery had been able to produce cotton-thread of sufficient tenuity and strength to be used as warp. An invention, indeed, by Mr Charles Wyatt of Birmingham, which was patented in 1738, but never succeeded, deprives A. of the honour of having been the first to use rollers in spinning; but there is no reason to believe that he owed anything to this previous attempt. The first suggestion of the idea, he said, was derived from seeing a red-hot iron bar elongated by being made to pass between rollers. At this time A. was so poor that he needed to be furnished with a suit of clothes before he could appear to vote at an election as a burgess of Preston. Soon after, he removed to Nottingham, to escape the popular rage, which had already driven Hargreaves, the inventor of the *spinning-jenny*, out of Lancashire. Here he fortunately fell in with Mr Jedidiah Strutt of Derby, the celebrated improver of the *stocking-frame*, who entered into partnership with him, in conjunction with his partner Mr Need. In 1769 A. set up his first mill, driven by horses, and took out a patent for his invention. In 1771 he set up a larger factory, with water-power, at Cromford, in Derbyshire. The remarkable capabilities of his mind were strikingly evinced in the management of the great business which now demanded his undivided attention. Without personal experience, and with no model to guide him, he introduced a system of management so admirable that it was afterwards universally adopted, and has never been materially improved. In 1775 he took out a fresh patent for various additional improvements in machinery. The success attending these undertakings stimulated rivals to invade his patent; and to such an extent did other cotton-spinners use his designs, that he was obliged, in 1781, to prosecute at once nine different manufacturers. The first action against Colonel Mordaunt, backed by a strong combination of Lancashire manufacturers, was lost, solely on the ground that his description in his specification was not sufficiently clear and distinct. The other actions were abandoned; and, in the following year, A. published a pamphlet containing a statement of his case. In a new trial, in 1785, he obtained a favourable verdict. The whole question, however, was brought finally before the Court of King's Bench, a few months after, when A.'s claim to the inventions patented was for the first time called into dispute. On the doubtful evidence of a person named Highs, or Hayes, combined with that of A.'s old assistant Kay, the jury decided against him, and his patent was annulled. This was but the formal outcome of an opposition which had from the beginning marked out A. as an object of hostility. The manufacturers at first combined to discountenance the use of his yarn. When the yarn was made into calicoes, and parliament was petitioned to lessen the duty on that cloth, they strenuously opposed the measure, but in vain. Popular animosity was also excited against the man who abridged labour, but in reality increased its sphere; and on one occasion, a large factory belonging to A. was destroyed in the presence of a powerful military and police force,

without a word of interference from the magistrates. The energy and good sense of A., however, triumphed over all opposition; and at the time of his death, in 1792, the value of his property amounted to about half a million sterling. In 1786 he was appointed high-sheriff of Derbyshire; and on the occasion of presenting an address to the king, congratulating him on his escape from the knife of the maniac Margaret Nicholson, he received the well-merited honour of knighthood. A severe asthma had pressed upon him from his youth; and a complication of disorders, the result of his busy sedentary life, terminated his honourable career at the comparatively early age of sixty.

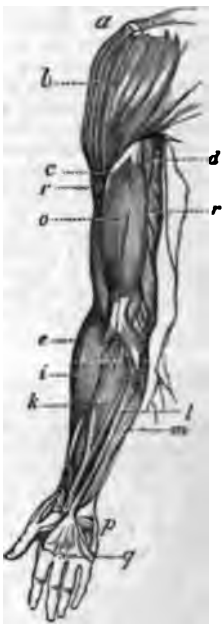
ARLES (anciently, Arelate), one of the oldest towns in France, situated on the left bank of the principal branch of the Rhone, after it has divided into a delta, in the department of Bouches du Rhone. Pop. of the municipality, 23,997; of the town, 15,120. A. carries on a considerable trade. It has manufactures of silk, hats, tobacco, brandy, &c., and forms a market for the productions of the surrounding country. It also possesses a college, a naval school, a public library, and a superb museum of antiquities in natural history. The marshes which rendered the district so unhealthy for a long time, have been considerably drained, and a canal has been formed which connects it with the south coast. Railways also bring it into easy communication with Marseille, Avignon, Nîmes, Montpellier, &c. Under the Romans, it was the seat of a prefect; afterwards, for some time, the residence of the Gothic king, Eurich; and, in 879, was the metropolis of the kingdom of Arelate (see BURGUNDY). In the early Christian times, several important synods were convened here (314, 354, 452, and 475 A. D.). Among the antiquities of A. are a magnificent amphitheatre, which could contain between 20,000 and 30,000 spectators; the ruins of a theatre, also of a palace of Constantine the Great; an obelisk of granite, dug up from the mud of the Rhone in 1389; a burial-place (the Elysian Fields) used by the Romans; and a medieval cathedral, in the old Roman style, with a splendid portal arch.

ARM, the upper extremity of the human body, consists of two portions—the *A.*, strictly so called, and the forearm; the former having one bone, the humerus (1), which moves freely by a globular head upon the scapula, forming the shoulder-joint; and the latter having two bones, the radius (3) and ulna (2), which move on the lower end of the humerus, forming the elbow-joint, and below, with the carpus, forming the wrist.



Bones of the Human Arm.

The humerus is attached by a loose capsular ligament to the scapula, allowing great freedom of motion; and were it not for the muscles passing into I and K, would be frequently dislocated, but it is supported by these muscles on all sides except underneath or opposite the armpit, into which the head of the bone is often driven. The roundness of the shoulder is due to the head of the humerus, so that any displacement is accompanied by a flattening, which at once suggests the nature of the accident. On the shoulder is a large t gular muscle, the deltoid, which lifts the A. the side. At the back is the triceps, which the forearm; in front are two muscles v bend it—the biceps, and the brac on each side below are musc forearm and hand; while on e great muscle of the back (latissimus of the chest (the pectoralis major) are inserte each side of a groove, wherein lies one of the dons of the biceps (q. v.). The motions of the are flexion or bending effected by the biceps, extension or straightening by the brachialis an and the triceps, its projections D and A h received in these movements into corr depressions on the humerus. the hand are principally due to of which rolls at C and H upo L, thereby turning the palm dow or restoring the palm upwards (supination),



Human Arm:

abc, deltoid muscle; *d*, coraco brachialis muscle; *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *i*, extensors of wrist and long supinator of the hand; *k*, flexor of fingers and radial and ulnar sides of the wrist; *l*, palm of the hand, or palmaris longus; *p*, palmaris b *q*, palmar fascia; *o*, biceps.

movements being effected by muscles, two movement, which taking their fixed poi humerus and ulna, pull the radius ro latter. The elbow-joint is ginglymoid or hi and therefore has strong lateral l extremely liable to dislocations. by fracture, especially in the y being followed by severe inf is very apt to stiffen, thereby (ossis) deteriorating from the u limb; it is, therefore, unadvisa limb too long in any one position injury. This joint is also very liab but as this is confined to the of small portions of the latter and cut out, and the arm be mobility in a few weeks.

The upper extremity is

, the continuation of the axillary
collect into large superficial trunks,
the bend of the elbow, at which
is frequently selected for venesection,
to the axillary, on the outside by
on the inner side by the basilic.
nerves pass down as large cords by the side
nerv. and diverge from it to their ultimate
the musculo-spiral soon passing
back to appear on the outside, and
l and posterior interosseous nerves;
behind the internal condyle, N,
obtained the term 'funny bone,'
ric-like thrill which passes along the
nerve is struck or pressed. The
name implies, keeps a middle course
artery.
ands of the forearm, the bleeding is often
, but may be at once controlled by pressure
l artery, on the inner side of the

rds excellent illustrations of some of
of mechanics. The insertion of the
near, as will be seen, to the fulcra or
motion, involves a loss of power in the
of the word; there is, however, a corre-
gain in velocity at the end of the lever; and
of the purposes to which the hand is put,
of far greater moment than dead strength.

In maritime language, besides the obvious
to weapons of warfare, this term is
to each extremity of a bibb, or bracket,
to the mast of a ship for supporting the
sea. The same name is also given to a part
chor. See ANCHOR.—In military language,
stry, the cavalry, the artillery, and the
are each called 'an A.' of the service—
it to branch or department.

A'DA, a Spanish word signifying simply an
rce, but applied specially to the great
leet which invaded England in 1588. The
Spain, Philip II., had resolved to strike a
blow at the Protestant interest, by conquer-
which Pope Sixtus V. had made over
ports of Spain, Portugal, and other
dominions belonging to him, had long
d with the noise of his preparations, and the
inent Catholic soldiers from all parts of
flocked to take a share in the expedition.
rquis of Santa-Croce, a sea-officer of great
n and experience, was destined to command
, which consisted of a hundred and thirty
f greater size than any that had been hitherto
Europe. The Duke of Parma was to conduct
forces, 20,000 of whom were on board the
war, and 34,000 more were assembled in the
nds, ready to be transported into England;
n no doubt was entertained of success, the
ostentatiously styled the Invincible A.
could exceed the terror and consternation
ead all ranks of people in England upon the
this terrible A. being under sail to invade
a squadron of not more than thirty ships of
and those very small in comparison, was all
eth had to oppose it by sea; and it was
impossible to make any effectual resist-
and, as the Spanish army was composed of
disciplined and long inured to danger.
the English fleet was much inferior in
of shipping to that of the enemy, it
nageable, while the dexterity and
ners were greatly superior.
gham, a man of great valour
on him, as lord high admiral,
navy; Drake, Hawkins, and
Frobisher, the most renowned seamen in Europe, served under him; while another squadron, consisting of forty vessels, English and Flemish, commanded by Lord Seymour, lay off Dunkirk, in order to intercept the Duke of Parma. Such was the preparation made by the English; while all the Protestant powers of Europe regarded this enterprise as the critical event which was to decide for ever the fate of their religion. In the meantime, while the Spanish A. was preparing to sail, the admiral, Santa-Croce, died, as likewise the vice-admiral, Paliano; and the command of the expedition was given to the Duke of Medina Sidonia, a person utterly inexperienced in sea affairs; these unexpected circumstances served, in some measure, to frustrate the design. Some other accidents also contributed to its failure. Upon leaving the port of Lisbon, the A. next day met with a violent tempest, which sank some of the smallest of the ships, and obliged the rest to put back into the harbour. After some time spent in refitting, the Spaniards again put to sea, where they took a fisherman, who gave them intelligence that the English fleet, hearing of the dispersion of the A. in a storm, had returned to Plymouth, and that most of the mariners were discharged. From this false intelligence, the Spanish admiral, instead of going to the coast of Flanders, to take in the troops stationed there, resolved to sail directly to Plymouth, and destroy the shipping laid up in the harbour. But Effingham was very well prepared to receive him, and had just got out of port, when he saw the Spanish A. coming full sail towards him, disposed in the form of a half-moon, and stretching seven miles from the one extremity to the other. The English admiral, seconded by Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, attacked the Spaniards at a distance, pouring in their broadsides with admirable dexterity. They did not choose to engage the enemy more closely, because they were greatly inferior in number of ships and guns, as well as in weight of metal; nor could they pretend to board such lofty vessels without manifest disadvantage. In this action, however, two Spanish galleons were disabled and taken. As the A. advanced up the Channel, the English still followed and infested its rear; and as their ships continually increased from different ports, they soon found themselves in a capacity to attack the Spanish fleet more nearly, and accordingly fell upon them while they were taking shelter in the port of Calais. To increase their confusion, Howard selected eight of his smaller vessels, which, after filling them with combustible materials, he sent one after another, as if they had been fire-ships, into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards, taking them for what they seemed to be, immediately bore off in great disorder; while the English, profiting by their panic, captured or destroyed about twelve ships. The Duke of Medina Sidonia being thus driven to the coast of Zealand, held a council of war, in which it was resolved, that, as their ammunition began to fail, as their fleet had received great damage, and as the Duke of Parma had refused to venture his army under their protection, they should return to Spain by sailing round the Orkneys, as the winds were contrary to their passage directly back. Accordingly, they proceeded northward, and were followed by the English fleet as far as Flamborough Head, where they were terribly shattered by a storm. Seventeen of the ships, having 5000 men on board, were afterwards cast away on the Western Isles and the coast of Ireland. Of the whole A., fifty-three ships only returned to Spain, and these in a wretched condition. The seamen, as well as the soldiers who remained, were so overcome with hardships and fatigue, and so dispirited by their discomfiture, that they filled all Spain with accounts of the desperate

valour of the English, and of the tempestuous violence of that ocean by which they were surrounded.

ARMADI'LLO (*Da'sypus*), a genus of mammalia of the order *Edentata* (i. e., toothless)—not, however, truly toothless, but having feeble teeth destitute of true roots, and set apart from each other, and so that those of the one jaw fit into the interstices of those of the other. The number of the teeth is different in different species. The muzzle is elongated, and the tongue smooth and slender, with a glutinous saliva, adapted to the capture of ants and other insects, after the manner of the ant-eaters, but not long and extensile, like theirs. The limbs are short and strong, as are also the claws, and the animals have a great aptitude for digging and burrowing, by means of which they seek to shelter themselves from enemies—burrowing in sand or soft earth with such rapidity that it is almost impossible to dig them out, and indeed it can only be done by persevering till they are exhausted. But that which peculiarly distinguishes the A., and in which this genus differs from all the other mammalia, except the *Chlamyphorus* (q. v.), is the bony armour with which the body is covered, and which consists of polygonal plates not articulated, united on the head to form a solid covering, and similarly to form solid bucklers over the shoulders and the haunches; and between

Armadillo.

these, disposed in transverse bands, which allow of freedom of motion to the body, similar bands in most species protecting also the tail. Armadillos feed not only on insects, but on vegetable and animal food of almost every kind, which by decomposition or otherwise has acquired a sufficient softness. Some of them prefer vegetable food, others delight chiefly in carrion. They are all natives of the warm and temperate parts of South America, in the woods and pampas of which they are found in immense numbers. They are timid and inoffensive, although, when they are incautiously assailed, injury may be received from their claws. Their flesh is esteemed a delicacy, particularly that of the species which feed chiefly on vegetable food. The largest species is fully three feet long, exclusive of the tail; the smallest, not above ten inches. The species are numerous, and the genus has been divided into a number of sub-genera, which some naturalists elevate into genera, naming the family *Loricata* (i. e., mailed). To this family belongs also the genus *Chlamyphorus*, also South American. Fossil remains of gigantic extinct armadillos have been found in the pleistocene strata of South America, forming the genus *Glyptodon* of Owen, so named from the fluted teeth.

ARMADI'LLO is also the scientific name of a genus of *Crustacea* of the order *Isopoda* of Cuvier. This is one of the genera usually included under the popular name of Woodlouse, and one of which (*Porcellio*) is very generally known by that of Slater. The armadillos derive their name from the scaly armour of their body, in which as m found to the mailed quadrupeds of South . They have, in a remarkable degree, the power of rolling themselves into a ball, wl alarmed, so as to expose nothing but plates of the back, and have thence rec the name of Pill Beetles. Like s of the other closely allied *Isopoda*, the were at one time reputed to possess medicinal virtues, now accounted merely imaginary. They were not only used in a dried and pulverised state, but they are said to have been actually swallowed entire as pills. *A. vulgaris* is not uncommon in damp stones, &c., in Britain.

ARMA'GH, a small inland county in U Ireland; bounded N. by Lough Neagh, E. by D S. by Louth, W. by Monaghan and Tyrone greatest length is 32 miles, and breadth 20. 512½ square miles, about four-fifths being ar and a 36th part in woods. The surface is hil the south, and undulating in the centre, attainin Slieve Gullion, in the south-west, the heigh 1893 feet. The other chief heights are Mountains, 1385 feet; the Armagh-bro 1200; and Mullyash, 1034. The country upon Lough Neagh is low and boggy, and plain extends into the south end of A. and cipal rivers, navigable in their lower parts, ar Upper Bann, flowing out of Down north-west miles before it enters Lough Neagh; and the water, which, in its lower part, separates A. Monaghan. The rocks of A. are—Lower the south and middle of the county; Antrim, with the underlying greens Portadown; carboniferous limestone in of the Blackwater, and its tributary t granite in the mountains of the south-ea tertiary strata bordering Lough Neagh. is fertile except in the southern extremit 1872, 172,554 acres were in crop, the principal being oats, potatoes, wheat, and flax. that year was 12,537 horses, 81,227 cattle, sheep, 43,197 pigs. The north and central A. exhibit a dense population, low hills c to the tops, hedgerows, orchards, and thic tered farm-steadings. The county is mostly diocese of Armagh. It returns three mem parliament—two for the county, and one fo city. The chief towns are A., Lurgan, Port and Newry. Pop. (1871) 171,355, of whom are Roman Catholics, 56,154 Episcopalians, 27,776 Presbyterians. The National Schools in numbered 169, with 32,757 pupils.

ARMA'GH, the capital of the county of A. carboniferous limestone district, in the north of the county. It is situated around and gentle eminence, hence its original name, Magha, 'the high field.' It is built of lime The cathedral is built of red sandstone, and is c form—184 by 119 feet—and is supposed to st the site of that erected by St Patrick in It has recently been repaired, chiefly at the (£10,000) of the late Lord Primate, Lord Beres A Gothic Roman Catholic cathedral occupies principal height to the north, and the pri palace that to the south. There is a fever ho for forty patients, maintained by the late pri and a lunatic asylum for four counties. A. is seat of the archiepiscopal see of the Prim Metropolitan of all Ireland, who, before establishment of the Irish church, had an of £12,087 a year. Pop. in 1871. 4693 were Roman Catholics, [illegible] Presbyterians, and the rest o

are is linen-weaving. A., from the
c., was the metropolis of Ireland,
ving at Eamania, 2 miles to the
ci.y. It was then renowned as a school
and literature—its college being the first
After the Reformation, it suffered severely
conflicts between the English and Irish; and
d only three slated houses in 1765.

GNAC (*Ager Armonicus*), the old name
strict in the south of France, which at one
ms to have extended from the valleys of the
to the Garonne. It is now included
nts of Hautes Pyrénées and Gers.
fertile land, producing grain and
descriptions of wine, and also favourable
ge, is cut up into an extraordinary number
estates, and divided among numerous petty
tors. The principal branch of trade is the
ation of the brandy known in commerce as
Armagnac, which rivals those of Cognac and
The ancient capital is Lectoure, on the
, with 2820 inhabitants. To the south of
ch, the chief town of the department of
Pop 9414. The people are noted for their
y, strength, and bravery; but, on the other
y are extremely credulous and ignorant.
ny, their services were highly valued in
war. The A. family, descended from the
rovingian king, Clovis, played an important
French history.

NT is a general name for the weapons
employed in sea and land battles; all the
collectively being called *the* A. of a ship or

ANSPERG, Jos. Ludw., Count of, formerly
dent of the government in Greece, was born in
Bavaria in 1787, and early embraced an adminis-
ive and diplomatic career. On the accession of
ouis to the throne, A., who had already occu-
several important posts, was summoned to
where, rapidly rising from one dignity to
he at length became minister of finance and
affairs. In both capacities he proved active
sful; but he drew upon himself the hatred
Camarilla by his strenuous opposition to
ims of Rome, as well as by his attempts to
himself with the decidedly liberal party.
consequence was that, in 1831, he lost his post,
same year was appointed ambassador to
ut preferred retiring to his family estate.
he could not resist the king's repeated
hat he would undertake the formation of
a government in Greece, and accordingly,
saying young King Otho, A. landed at Nauplia
uary 1833. For four years he was at the head
he affairs, and Greece derived many benefits
administration; but the heat of party
and court intrigues led to his dismissal,
left Greece in March 1837. After that
he lived in retirement upon his property, near
dorf, till his death in 1853.

ATOLES, a body of Greek militia, first
er the reign of Sultan Selim I. about
of the 16th c. They were intended
the fertile plains from the ravages of
Klephts (mountain robbers of Thessaly), who had
been entirely conquered by the Turks. The
elves were originally Klephts, but received
ne honourable designation when the Porte
amorphosed them into a sort of military
The safety of the public roads was intrusted
ir care. The whole of Northern Greece was
ed into sixteen districts (*capitainerica*), each
er the supervision of a chief of these
, however, had himself to receive orders
from a Turkish pasha or Greek bishop. But although the A. frequently suppressed the brigandage of the Klephts, they still regarded them in the light of brothers, inasmuch as they had a common origin and faith; both detested the oppressors of their country; and the sentiment of patriotism overruled every other consideration. This sympathy at last appeared to the Turks so dangerous that they grew alarmed, and desired to substitute for the A. the Mohammedan Albanians, who were the implacable enemies of the Greeks, which resolution did not a little to hasten the insurrection which the Porte ever dreaded. The moment it broke out, the A. pronounced themselves in favour of the national cause, and in the war of independence that ensued, distinguished themselves by their brilliant exploits.

ARMATURE (*armatura*, armour; Ger. *anker*). The term A. is applied to the pieces of soft iron that are placed at the extremities or poles of magnets to preserve their magnetic power. When magnets are allowed to remain any length of time without such appendages, in consequence of the disturbing influence of terrestrial magnetism they lose considerably in strength; but when they are provided with them their magnetism is kept in a state of constant activity, and thereby shielded from this disturbance. The reason of this is found in two facts well known in the science of magnetism—viz., that when a piece of soft iron is brought into contact with the extremity of a magnet, it is itself induced to become magnetic; and that the unlike poles of two different magnets powerfully attract each other. Referring to the figure, the north pole, N, of the horseshoe magnet, NHS, acting on the armature, *sn*, induces it to become a magnet, having its south pole, *s*, next to N, and its north pole, *n*, at the opposite extremity. The pole, S, by virtue of its magnetic affinity, powerfully attracts the north pole, *n*, thus formed, and adds its own inducing influence to heighten the magnetic condition previously induced in the armature by the pole N. The A., from the combined action of both poles of the horseshoe magnet, is thus converted into a powerful magnet, with its poles lying in an opposite direction to that of the primary poles. The original magnet is, in consequence, brought into contact with one of its own making, the exact counterpart of itself—a condition highly favourable to the maintenance of its strength. It is due to the same mutual attractions that a much larger weight can be suspended from the A. thus placed, than what the single poles can together sustain. Bar magnets may be armed in the same way by laying them at some distance parallel to each other, with their unlike poles towards the same parts, and then connecting their extremities by two pieces of soft iron. When a magnet, such as a compass-needle, is free to take up the position required by the magnetism of the earth, the earth itself plays the part of an armature.

ARMED SHIP, in the official language of the Royal Navy, occupies a sort of medium position between a merchant-ship and a man-of-war. It is a private vessel, hired occasionally by the Admiralty for a special purpose, and commissioned for a temporary period. The duty is usually that of guarding some particular coast, or attending on a particular fleet, during a time of war; and while so employed, it is officered and equipped like one of the smaller ships-of-war in the Royal Navy.

ARME'NIA, a high table-land on the southern slope of the Caucasus, stretching down towards Mesopotamia. It has had different boundaries in the various centuries of its history. It is the original seat of one of the oldest civilised peoples in the world, the Armenians, who belong to the Indo-Germanic family of nations. Their oldest records contain nothing certain beyond the facts that, in ancient times, they were governed by independent kings, but afterwards became tributary to the Assyrians and Medes. That dim period which wavers between myth and history begins, in the case of A., about the middle of the 6th c. B.C., when King Dikran, or Tigranes I. of the Haig Dynasty, restored the independence of the kingdom. The last king of this dynasty was slain in battle against Alexander the Great, who conquered the country. After Alexander's death, A. passed through several changes of fortune under the Seleucidæ, who appointed governors over it. Of these, two—Artaxias and Zariadres—made themselves independent of their sovereign, Antiochus the Great, during the time when he was engaged in his contest with the Romans, 223—190 B.C. They divided the province into two districts—Artaxias taking A. Major (that part of the country lying E. of the Euphrates), and Zariadres A. Minor (the part to the W. of that river). The dynasty of Artaxias did not reign long; for about the middle of the 2d c. B.C., we find A. Major in the possession of a branch of the Parthian Arsacidæ, of which the most powerful king was Tigranes the Great, who added to the conquests made by his predecessors in Lower Asia and the region of the Caucasus, Syria, Cappadocia, and A. Minor; defeated the Parthians, and took from them Mesopotamia and other countries. He lost all these territories by his war with the Romans, into which he was led by his father-in-law Mithridates, king of Pontus, in 63 B.C. After this, the assaults of the Romans from the west ever growing more and more vigorous, and those of the Parthians from the east, hastened the downfall of A. Major. The successors of Tigranes became dependent, partly on the one nation and partly on the other, while internally the nobles broke through the restraints of a feeble monarchy, and claimed the privileges of petty kings. Under Trajan, A. Major was for a short time a Roman province. Its subsequent history exhibited an unbroken series of tumults and wars, of violent successions to the throne, despotic reigns, and rapid decay. In 232 A.D. the province was conquered by the Sassanides, who held possession of it 28 years, until Tiridates III., the rightful heir, was restored to the throne by Roman assistance.

It was about this time that Christianity became the religion of A., which was thus the first nation to embrace the new religion. Tiridates himself had been converted by St Gregory the Illuminator as early as about 276 A.D. The old religion of Armenia had for its basis the doctrines of Zoroaster, with a curious intermixture of Greek mythology, and of ideas peculiar to the country. It is certain that the Armenians worshipped as their mightiest gods, Aramazt and Mihir (the Ormuzd and Mithras of the old Persians); but they had also a kind of Venus, whom they styled Anaitis, and several other deities, to whom they offered animal sacrifices. This change of creed, however, made no improvement in the political circumstances of the falling state. The Byzantine Greeks on one side, and the Persians on the other, regarded A. as their prey; and in 428, Bahram V. of Persia made A. a province of the empire of the Sassanides, and with the deposition of Artasir the dynasty of the Arsacidæ was brought to a close. The rule of the Sassanides in A. was marked chiefly by their sanguinary but unsuccessful attempts to extirpate Christianity. In 632, the unhappy country was subjected to another form of despotism under the Arabian califs, and suffered terribly during their contest with the Byzantine emperors. In 885 A.D., Aschod I., of an old and powerful Armenian family, ascended the throne, with the permission of the califs, and founded the third Armenian dynasty—that of the Bagratids. Under them A. was prosperous till the 11th c., when divisions and internal strife began to weaken the country; till at length the Greeks, having murdered the last monarch of the Bagratids, seized a part of the kingdom, while the Turks and Kurds made themselves masters of the rest—only one or two of the native princes maintaining a nominal independence. In 1242, the whole of A. was conquered by the Mongols, and 147[illegible] Persian province. Afterwards [illegible] fell into the hands of the Turkish

The fate of A. Minor was ha[illegible] dynasty founded by Zariadres prevailed [illegible] of Tigranes the Great, sovereign of A. [illegible] conquered the country about 70 B.C. [illegible] A. Minor was subjugated by the Romans, [illegible] a Roman province. On the division of the [illegible] into eastern and western, it became [illegible] former, and shared in all its cha[illegible] until near the close of the 11th c. [illegible] A. Minor—which had long been a place [illegible] for many who had fled from the rage of [illegible] and Persians in the sister province—[illegible] raised to independence by Rhupen (a rel[illegible] A. Major, and descendant of the Bagrat[illegible] successors extended their dominion over Ci[illegible] Cappadocia, and took a prominent [illegible] Crusades. This dynasty ruled pros[illegible] 1374, when A. Minor was conquered by [illegible] sultan Schaban. Since that time [illegible], exception of the parts which Russia has [illegible] present century from Persia, and which [illegible] governed, has remained subject to the des[illegible] the Turks and Persians. Notwith[illegible] Armenians have steadily preserved [illegible] both in its physical and moral [illegible] faith; and even—though only a reli[illegible] culture—a higher civilisation than the[illegible] The political storms which devastated t[illegible] during the middle ages, and the persecut[illegible] Turks, have driven many of the inhabi[illegible] their homes. This is the reason why we [illegible] scattered over all Asia and Euro[illegible] Transylvania, and Galicia [illegible] They are very numerous in [illegible] all in Asia Minor, and in [illegible] Constantinople, where they [illegible].

The greater part of A. is an eleva[illegible] Its area is estimated at 90,000 square miles, about 2,000,000. It is watered by rivers Aras, Joruk, Euphrates, and to a [illegible] the Tigris. The lakes which lie w[illegible] tainous region are Van, Urumiyah, [illegible] Armenian plateau, on the eastern [illegible] the volcanic range of Ararat lifts its central point of several mountain-cl[illegible] Taurus and Antitaurus, the mountains of [illegible] and those which run north to the Black [illegible] exhibits numerous traces of having been [illegible] volcanic agency, and even yet—as [illegible] the severe earthquake of the [illegible] by the total destruction of [illegible] possesses an internal volcanic activ[illegible] in the higher regions is hot in [illegible] winter, but in the valleys it [illegible] The country labours und[illegible] and in some parts is [illegible]

other parts the soil is extremely fertile, ice, hemp, flax, tobacco, wine, cotton, and ties of fruit. Cattle breeding and grazing re than agriculture. The mountains ...ver, lead, salt, and naphtha. The ... of pure Armenian origin ... but there is a large ... ns, Greeks, Jews, Kurds, &c. ... physically to the finest variety ... anic race. Their intellectual remarkable, as is shewn both by their ... their singular dexterity in business. centuries of oppression have exerted a uence on their native strength of ... the mass of those who remain at ... erstition and ignorance. They ... The principal towns in A. are ... v.) (pop. 14,312) and Akhalzikh (both ...o Russia). Akhalzikh has a population ... 15,977, is fortified, and adorned by a ... many Armenian churches. It pos- ... and library, and has trade in silk ...nides these there are in Turkish A., ...an, &c. (q.v.).

AN CHURCH. Christianity appears ... introduced into Armenia as early as ..., according to tradition, Dionysius, f Corinth, wrote an epistle to the Armenian who were then under the authority of a ... Meruzanes. It was first firmly estab- ...ver, about the end of the 3d c. by the exertions of Bishop Gregory (q. v.), who Tiridates (see ARMENIA). The Bible into the Armenian language in the his period great animation prevailed ... Numbers flocked to the colleges at and Constantinople. In the ecclesiastical ... concerning the twofold nature of Armenian Christians held with the (q. v.); refused to acknowledge the Council of Chalcedon; and con- ...es a separate church, which took ...egorian from Gregory himself. For ...es a spirit of scientific inquiry, ... theology, manifested itself among ... ...ar wider extent than in the other churches. Their greatest divine is Nerses ... belonging to the 12th c., whose works ... repeatedly published. The most recent ...ed in Venice, 1833. The Gregorians ... to entertain a deeply rooted aver- ...-called orthodox church. The Roman ...pes at various times, especially (1145, when the Armenians accepted the help against the Mohammedans, tried to ... to recognise the papal supremacy; most part only the nobles consented ... while the mass of the people clung to ...uliar opinions, as we see from the com- Pope Benedict XII., who accuses the A. C. ...rrors of doctrine. There is a sect of *Armenians* in Italy, Poland, Galicia, Persia, Marseille. Since the formation of this ... vigorous and constant attempts, ...y by French influence, have ... ...ecure the acknowledgment of the ...he head of the Roman Catholic portion of ... When this end seemed nearer attain- ...ment over before, the Ultramontane utter- representative, Mgr. Hassun, at the ...ouncil at Rome, 1870, in favour of ... ...ated such a reaction at home as has ...ed for the present the cause of ...-...-...an party. The recent humiliation ... has further weakened the cause of the pro- ...y. In theology the A. C. attributes only *one* nature to Christ, and holds that the Spirit proceeds from the Father alone; the latter doctrine, however, being held by it in common with the 'orthodox Greek Church,' although contrary to the theology of the western churches. With respect to the 'seven sacraments,' it entertains the peculiar notions that at baptism one must be sprinkled three times, and as often dipped; that confirmation is to be conjoined with baptism; that the Lord's Supper must be celebrated with pure wine and leavened bread; that the latter, before being handed round, must be dipped in the former; and that extreme unction is to be administered to ecclesiastics alone, and that immediately after (and not before) their death. It believes in the worship of saints, but not in purgatory. It exceeds the Greek Church in the number of its fasts, but has fewer religious festivals. These, however, are more enthusiastically kept. Divine service is held in Turkey chiefly by night. Mass is celebrated in the old Armenian language; preaching is carried on in the new. Its sacerdotal constitution differs little from the Greek. The head of the church, whose title is Catholikos, resides at Etchmiadzin, a monastery near Erivan, the capital of Russian Armenia. To this place every Armenian must make a pilgrimage once in his life. The monks of this church follow the rule of St Basil. The Wartabieds form a peculiar class of ecclesiastics; they live like monks, but are devoted exclusively to learning. Secular priests must marry once, but none are at liberty to take a second wife.

ARMENIAN LITERATURE. Previous to the introduction of Christianity by Gregory (300 A.D.), the Armenians had adhered to the Assyrian or Medo-Persian system of culture; but excepting a few old songs or ballads, no remains of that early period exist. After their conversion to Christianity, the Greek language and its literature soon became favourite objects of study, and many Greek authors were translated into Armenian. (See Wenrich *De Auctorum Graecorum versionibus Arabicis, Armeniacis*, &c. Leipzig, 1842.) The Armenian language has an alphabet of its own, consisting of 36 letters, introduced by Mesrob in 406. The most flourishing period of A. L. extends from the 4th to the 14th c. The numerous Armenian theological writers and chroniclers of this era supply materials for a history of the East during the middle ages which have hitherto been too much neglected. These Armenian writers generally copied the style of the later Greek and Byzantine authors; but in adherence to facts and good taste, they are superior to the general order of oriental historians. In the 14th c., literature began to decline, and few remarkable works were afterwards produced; but since the time of their dispersion, the Armenians have preserved recollections of their national literature; and wherever they are found - in Amsterdam, Lemberg, Leghorn, Venice, Astrakan, Moscow, Constantinople, Smyrna, Ispahan, Madras, or Calcutta - the printing-office is always a feature in their colonies. The most interesting Armenian settlement is that of the Mechitarists (q. v.), on the island of San Lazaro, near Venice.

The Bible translated into Armenian (the Old Testament from the text of the Septuagint) by Mesrob and his scholars (411 A.D.), is esteemed the highest model of classic style. Translations of several Greek authors, made about the same time, have been partly preserved, and contain some writings of which the originals have been lost namely, the Chronicle of Eusebius; the Discourses of Philo; Homilies by St Chrysostom, Severianus, Basil the Great, and Ephraim Syrus. Several old geographical and historical works have been preserved. Among philosophical and theological writers may be

mentioned: David, the translator and commentator of Aristotle, Esnik, and Joannes Ozniensis. The *Vitæ Sanctorum Calendarii Armeniaci* (Lives of Armenian Saints, 12 vols. Ven. 1814) contains many notices of the history of Armenia. In poetry and fiction, A. L. is poor. Somal, in his work entitled *Quadro della Storia Litteraria di Armenia* (Venice, 1829), gives a general view of the contents of A. L. The Armenian belongs to the Indo-Germanic group of languages, but has many peculiarities of structure. It is harsh and disagreeable to the ear. The old Armenian, the language of literature, is no longer a living tongue; while the new Armenian, split up into four dialects, contains many Turkish words and grammatical constructions.

ARME'RIA. See THRIFT.

ARMFELT, GUSTAF MAURITZ, a celebrated Swede, whose public life was characterised by striking vicissitudes of fortune, was the eldest son of Baron Armfelt, and born at Juva, in the government of Abo, on the 1st of April 1757. Having, as an officer of the royal guard, displayed great activity and zeal in opposing the machinations of the nobles, who were at that period disaffected towards Gustavus III., the latter appreciated the value of his services, and appointed him to a post in the service of the Crown Prince. During the war between Sweden and Russia (1788—90), in which he was commander of one of the three divisions of the Swedish army, he displayed remarkable courage and spirit, and advanced still higher in the good graces of the monarch. He defeated a Russian force at Summa, near Fredrikshamm; and as military representative of Gustavus, had the honour of concluding a peace at Verela on the 14th of August 1790. On the 16th of March 1792, Gustavus was assassinated. His wound, though mortal, did not instantly deprive him of life, and he employed the brief interval that elapsed before his death in drawing up a codicil to his will, by which the regency was intrusted to the king's brother, Charles, Duke of Sudermania, during the minority of Gustavus IV., A. being named governor of Stockholm, and member of the council appointed to advise with the regent. The Duke of Sudermania, however, could not brook the idea of a check being placed upon his liberty of action, and found means to destroy the codicil, the conditions of which he never intended to observe. A. soon became conscious that his influence was rapidly evaporating. He was rarely permitted to see the young king; and at last, after a secret interview with young Gustavus, departed as ambassador to Naples in July 1792. While in Italy, he entered into correspondence with certain parties in Sweden for the purpose of overthrowing the regency, and inducing the States to proclaim Gustavus IV. of age. The correspondence was discovered. A. fled to Poland, and afterwards to Russia. He was condemned, during his absence, for high treason, and stripped of his goods and titles, while one of his associates, the beautiful Countess Rudenskold, was subjected to the most brutal punishment, being publicly declared 'infamous,' exposed on a scaffold for some hours, and imprisoned in a house of correction for life. A. expressed his horror of such an atrocity in language sufficiently emphatic, yet, at a later period, he did not scruple to accept office under Charles, on his election to the throne. In 1799, Gustavus IV. received the crown at the age of eighteen, and A. was restored to all his honours. In 1805, he was appointed governor-general of Finland; and in 1808 he commanded the Swedish army raised for the invasion of Norway; but his plans were so completely frustrated, that he was compelled to witness the invasion of Sweden by the successful Norwegians, and was in consequence recalled and dismissed by the king. In the following year a revolution took place, Gustavus was deposed, the Duke of Sudermania elected in his place, and A. was appointed president of the Military Council. But shortly after, being implicated in the poisoning of the Prince of Augustenburg, he was obliged to fly to Russia, where he lived during the remainder of his life in high honour. The title of Count was conferred on him, he was made chancellor of the university of Abo, president of the Board of Finnish Affairs, and member of the Russian senate. He died at Tzarskoe Selo on the 19th August 1814.

ARMIDA, one of the most prominent female characters in Tasso's *Jerusalem Delivered*. As the poet tells us, when the Crusaders arrived at the holy city, Satan held a council to devise some means of disturbing the plans of the Christian warriors, and A., a very beautiful sorceress, was employed to seduce Rinaldo and other Crusaders. Rinaldo was conducted by A. to a remote island, where, in her splendid palace, surrounded by delightful gardens and pleasure-grounds, he utterly forgot his vows, and the great object to which he had devoted his life. To liberate him from his voluptuous bondage, two messengers from the Christian army—Carlo and Ubaldo—came to the island, bringing a talisman so powerful that the witchery of A. was destroyed. Rinaldo escaped, but was followed by the sorceress, who, in battle, incited seve[illegible] to attack the hero, and at last herself [illegible] the fight. She was defeated by Rinaldo, [illegible] confessed his love to her, persuaded her to [illegible] a Christian, and vowed to be her faithful ka[illegible] The story of A. has been made the subject o[illegible] opera both by Gluck and Rossini.

ARMIES, armed forces under regular military organisation, employed for purposes of national offence or defence. An army may comprise the whole military men employed by the state, or only a portion under a particular commander. When an armed force is under no constituted authority, and imperfect in its organisation and discipline, it cannot be said to be worthy of the name of an army, and may be little better than a horde of banditti. Of this nature are the *fillibustering* expeditions (see FILLIBUSTERS) in which certain portions of the citizens of the United States frequently engage. Through long ages of experience, the principles of military organisation, and the laws to which A. are specially amenable, have gradually reached a high degree of perfection. The primitive wars among barbarous people are always stealthy, depending on the forest and the wilderness for their tactics, and considered successful if an enemy can be attacked unawares, despoiled, and carried into slavery. After a time, war advances to the position of an art, and is conducted by men who have received a certain training. An army becomes an instrument not only for vanquishing enemies, but for seizing countries. Even then the highest position of an army is not reached; for the defence of a country requires more military skill, perhaps, and a better organisation of troops, than an attack.

In the several historical articles in this *Encyclopædia* relating to the chief nations of ancient and modern times, the wars in which these nations engaged are succinctly noticed as elements in the life of each nation; but it seems desirable, in the present place, as a means of rendering intelligible certain minor details scattered through the work, to give a brief description of the chief points in which the A. of different states or countries have differed in constitution.

ANCIENT—*Egyptians.*—The most ex- ueror among the Egyptians, Seson- , lived sixteen centuries before the and although the evidence for his is very questionable, there is reason the organisation of his A. can be ccurately traced. His father, Amenophis, foundation for the military glory of Sesostris. latter was born, Amenophis caused all the n who were born on the same day as his apart as a special body, to be reared for ; they were taught everything that en their bodies, increase their courage, ir skill as combatants and leaders; consider themselves bound as the ents or companions of the young time Sesostris became king of Egypt; he formed a sort of militia, distributed as colonists, each soldier having a portion of maintain himself and his family. When had been drilled to military efficiency, nded them as an army for military con- Asia, and placed the chosen band above as officers over the different sections of

the great days of the Persian er of the army consisted of cavalry, uished for their bravery and impe- ess. The infantry were little better mob. The war-chariots, too, though strike terror when dashing into hostile are available only on level ground. As to bers of men composing the great Persian statements are too wild to be trustworthy. ow all exaggeration, however, it is cer- Persian A. were very large. When opposed to Alexander the Great, his army ared at various numbers—from 7,50,000 to 0 men. The king was in the centre, sur- by his courtiers and body-guard; the Per- Susians were on the left; the Syrians and on the right. The foot-soldiers, forming of the army, and armed with pikes, axes, were formed in deep squares or masses; s were in the intervals between the on the right and left flanks; and the and elephants in front.

nians.—The Greeks introduced many changes in A, both in the organisation manœuvres. Every man, in the earlier country at least, was more or less a ured to a hard life, taught to bear arms, ected to fight when called upon. The lead- ach state paid attention to organisation a way never before seen. It was not a but a sort of national militia, that n, Platæa, and Mycale. So far as arrangement of A., the Lacedæ- invented the *phalanx* (q. v.), a particular grouping foot-soldiers. This phalanx con- eight ranks, one behind another; the front r ranks being composed of picked men, intermediate ranks of less tried soldiers. er of men in each rank depended on the resources of the commander. These men ally armed with spears, short swords, and

ians.—The Athenians made a greater number ctions than the Lacedæmonians in the differ- s of troops forming their A. They had fantry, constituting the men for the phalanx, ed with spears, daggers, corslets, and shields; antry, employed in skirmishes and in cover- phalanx, and armed with light javelins and a sort of irregular infantry, who, with bows and arrows, and slings, harassed the enemy in march, and performed other services analogous in some degree to those of sharpshooters in a modern army. It is recorded that Miltiades, the Athenian hero at Marathon, invented the 'double-quick march,' to increase the momentum of a phalanx when rushing on the enemy.

Macedonians.—Philip of Macedon, the father of Alexander the Great, having the sagacity to see that he could not vanquish his neighbours so long as he adopted the same formation and tactics as themselves, set about inventing something new. He resolved to have a standing army instead of a militia; to have at command a set of men whose trade was fighting, instead of citizens who were traders and soldiers by turn. As a further change, he made the phalanx deeper and more massive than it had been among the Lacedæmonians. He brought into use the Macedonian pike, a formidable weapon 24 feet in length. With a phalanx sixteen ranks in depth, four rows of men could present the points of their long pikes protruding in front of the front-rank, forming a bristling array of steel terrible to encounter. Besides these heavy infantry, there were light troops marshalled into smaller bodies for more active manœuvres. Philip organised three kinds of cavalry - heavy, armed with pikes, and defended by cuirasses of iron-mail; light, armed with lances; and irregular.

Thebans.—This nation introduced the army-formation of *columns*, much deeper than broad, or having more men in file than in rank. A new kind of tactics was introduced in accordance with this formation; the movement being intended to pierce the enemy's line at some one point, and throw them into confusion.

Romans.—These able warriors initiated changes in army matters, which had a wide-spread influence on the nations of the civilised world. About the period 200 B.C., every Roman, from the age of 17 to 46, was liable to be called upon to serve as a soldier; the younger men were preferred; but all were available up to the middle-time of life. They went through a very severe drilling and discipline, to fit them alike for marching, fighting, camping, working, carrying, and other active duties. Every year the Senate decreed the formation of *legions*, or army corps, deputing this duty to the consul or prætor. Magistrates sent up the names of eligible men, and tribunes selected a certain number from this list. See LEGION. The Roman legion, in its best days, had many excellent military qualities—great facility of movement; a power of preserving order of battle unimpaired; a quick rallying-power when forced to give way; a readiness to adapt itself to varying circumstances on the field of battle; a formidable impetuosity in attack; and a power of fighting the enemy even while retreating. The heavy infantry were armed with javelins, heavy darts, pikes, and swords; the lighter troops with bows and arrows, slings, and light javelins; while the defensive armour comprised shields, cuirasses, helmets, and greaves.

Those ancient nations which had no distinctive features in their A., need not be noticed here.

ARMIES, MEDIEVAL. The downfall of the Roman Empire marked the dividing-point between ancient and medieval times in military matters, as well as in other things that concern the existence of nations. The barbarians and semi-barbarians who attacked on all sides the once mighty but now degenerate Empire, gradually gained possession of the vast regions which had composed it. The mode in which these conquests were made gave rise to the *Feudal System* (q. v.). What all had aided to acquire by conquest, all demanded to share in proportions more or less equal. Hence arose a division of the

conquered territory; lands were held from the chief by feudal tenure, almost in independent sovereignty. When European kingdoms were gradually formed out of the wrecks of the Empire, the military arrangements put on a peculiar form. The king could not maintain a standing army, for his barons or feudal chieftains were jealous of allowing him too much power. He could only strengthen himself by obtaining their aid on certain terms, or by allowing them to weaken themselves in intestine broils, to which they had always much proneness. Each baron had a small army composed of his own militia or retainers, available for battle at short notice. The contests of these small armies, sometimes combined and sometimes isolated, make up the greater part of the wars of the middle ages. Of military tactics or strategy, there was very little; the campaigns were desultory and indecisive; and the battles were gained more by individual valour than by any well-concerted plan.

One great exception to this military feudality was furnished by the *Crusades* (q. v.). So far as concerns A., however, in their organisation and discipline, these expeditions effected but little. The military forces which went to the Holy Land were little better than armed mobs, upheld by fanaticism, but not at all by science or discipline. Numbers and individual bravery were left to do the work, combination and forethought being disregarded.

A much greater motive-power for change, during the middle ages, was the invention of gunpowder. When men could fight at a greater distance than before, and on a system which brought mechanism to the aid of valour, everything connected with the military art underwent a revolution. Historically, however, this great change was not very apparent until after the period usually denominated the middle ages. The art of making good cannon and hand-guns grew up gradually, like other arts; and A. long continued to depend principally on the older weapons—spears, darts, arrows, axes, maces, swords, and daggers.

During the greater part of the 14th and 15th centuries, the chief A. were those maintained by the Spaniards and the Moors on one European battle-ground, by the English and the French on another, and by the several Italian republics on a third. In those A., the cavalry were regarded as the chief arm. The knights and their horses alike were frequently covered with plate or chain armour; and the offensive weapons were lances, swords, daggers, and battle-axes. A kind of light cavalry was sometimes formed of archers on smaller horses. As to army-formation, there was still little that could deserve the name; there was no particular order of battle; each knight sought how he could best distinguish himself by personal valour; and to each was usually attached an esquire, abetting him as a second during the contest. Sometimes it even happened that the fate of a battle was allowed to depend on a combat between two knights. No attempt was made, until towards the close of the 15th c., to embody a system of tactics and manœuvres for cavalry; and even that attempt was of the most primitive kind. Nor was it far otherwise with the foot-soldiers; they were gradually becoming acquainted with the use of firearms; but, midway as it were between two systems, they observed neither completely; and the A. in which they served presented very little definite organisation.

ARMIES, MODERN. The formation of *standing* A. may be said to have introduced the modern military system. When the remarkable exploit of Jeanne d'Arc (Joan of Arc) had enabled Charles VII. to check the victorious progress of the English in France, he set about remodelling his army. By gradual changes, and amid great difficulty, he converted his ill-governed forces into a disciplined standing army. During the reign of his son, Charles VIII. (1483—1498), the consequences of this change made their appearance. Charles conducted a well-appointed army into Italy (1494), in support of some pretensions which he had to the throne of Naples.

The change made by Charles VII. was not simply that of substituting a compact standing army for an ill-organised medley of feudal troops and of mercenaries; feudalism itself gave way under the influence of this combined with other reforming agencies. So far as concerned the actual formation and discipline of the standing A. above noticed, a few changes were from time to time introduced: pistols and carbines were given to the cavalry; cuirasses were worn by the heavy troopers; and new evolutions were introduced. During the Thirty Years' (1618—1648), Gustavus Adolphus and [illegible] adopted opposite modes of dealing with a infantry: the former spread them out [illegible] width, and only six ranks in depth; the latter adopted a narrower front, with twenty to thirty ranks. Frederick the [illegible] the next century, introduced a most co system of tactics and drilling; insomuch [illegible] he could manœuvre, he nearly always won battles; but when the result depended on bold unexpected onslaughts, he was more frequently a loser than a winner. The great military leader in the early part of the present century, Napoleon Bonaparte, made a larger use than any previous European general of the method of mov of troops with great celerity, beating the detail before they could combine in one spot.

It is desirable to present, in the most con form, a few statistics of the actual A. of leaving to future articles, under the names several countries, cities, and battle-fields, all concerning special A. and military enc

France.—A law passed in 1872 enact every Frenchman, with a few specified liable to personal service in the army, and substitution. Every Frenchman not de for military service, or specially ex from, must be for five years in (composed of those who have reached 20 years), for four years in the reserve active army, for five years in the territorial and for six years in the reserve of the army. By the law of July 24, 1873, is divided, for military purposes, into 18 each occupied by a corps d'armée, cont divisions of infantry, 1 brigade of cavalry, artillery, 1 battalion of engineers, 1 squadron of the military train. When the present reorgani completed, the *active* army will be compose regiments of infantry (line, light, Zouaves, A tirailleurs, &c.), 25 single battalions, and panies (depots, &c.); making in all, for the 279,986 men; of cavalry, 67 regiments in 3 in Algiers, 13 depots of these regiments cavalry school, comprising 67,888 men; 40 regiments and 17 companies, wit men; engineers, 4 regiments, having 13 of the military train, 11,486 men; in active army, 441,007. On the war number would be increased to 1,104,735. taking account of sanitary corps, gen Including the *territorial* army, its reserve the reserves of the active army, the t force of France is 2,505,000. The budget provided for 454,200 men, including gend &c.

Germany.—By the imperial constitution, April 16, 1871, the Prussian obligation to serve in the

...ded to the whole empire. Every Ger... of bearing arms is bound to be in the ...for seven years, as a rule from the ...ieth to the beginning of his twenty-... Of the seven years, three must be ...e, and four in the reserve. Then he ... five years in the landwehr. The ...d forces of the empire form a ... troops being bound uncon... obey ...e emperor in war and peace. ...of the German Empire consists of 18 ...ée; viz., the corps d'armée of the guard, ...ian corps d'armée (Nos. I—XI., XIV.— ... the troops of Baden—and XV.), the ...ée of Saxony (XII.), of Würtemberg ...ps of Bavaria (I. and II.), and the divi... Hessa. In time of peace the German army ...) of infantry, 146 regiments of the line, 26 ...of chasseurs, with 4687 commissioned and ...ned officers of the landwehr, amount... ...s: (2) cavalry, 93 regiments, con... ...; (3) artillery, 35 regiments of ...12 of foot artillery, having 45,439 men; ...19 battalions, 9568 men. In all, with ...rs, military train, &c., 17,036 officers. On the war-footing, this force is in... ...the following additions: field troops, ...officers, 676,486 men; depot troops, 4431 ...245,793 men; garrison troops, 9599 officers, ...men. Total of the German army in time ...31,006 officers, and 1,276,526 men, with ...horses. The maximum number of troops ...by Germany in the war with France was ...men, and 263,735 horses.

...—The military forces of the Austro... empire are divided into the standing ...landwehr, and the landsturm. Subjects ...are universally liable to service. The ...ice is ten years, three of which the ...spend in active service, being after... for seven years in the army of ...is still further liable to serve two ...landwehr. The regiments of the ...are under the control of the Minister ...empire, while the landwehr is con... Austrian and Hungarian Ministers of ...ence. The emperor-king is the supreme ...the whole of the military and naval forces of ...The Austrian infantry constitutes 80 ...of the line, with 148,320 men; the ...battalions, with 21,451 men; of the ...are 41 regiments (dragoons, hussars, ...men; of artillery, 13 regiments of ...12 battalions of fortress artillery— ...n. The engineers and pioneers ...8837 men. The sanitary troops ...have 5074 men. In connection ...military establishments (schools, ...), there are 8315 men. In all, for ...in time of peace, 268,425 (of whom ...combatants). On the war-footing these ...thus augmented: infantry, 485,440; ...53; cavalry, 58,671; artillery, 71,874; ...07; sanitary troops and military ... Then the Austrian landwehr (in...rs, and cavalry) comprises 2981 men ...143,940 in war; and the Hungarian ...(the Honveds), 170,277 men. The total of ...military forces in peace-time is there... in war, 1,093,079.

...—According to a law of military re... the Russian forces are to be raised by ...ion, to which all are liable who ...their twenty-first year, and are ...incapacitated. Substitution is pro... period of service is fifteen years; six in active service, and nine in the reserve. The Russian military forces are composed of regular and irregular troops. The regular troops comprise 164 regiments of infantry, 281,012 men; cavalry, 52 regiments, 42,444 men; artillery, 33,021 men; engineers, 9819 men; train, 4617 men. Total of field-troops in time of peace, 370,913. In war as follows: infantry, 568,253 men; cavalry, 47,379; artillery, 40,846; engineers, 13,306; train, 21,329—total, 691,113. With local and other troops (in fortresses, &c.), and reserve troops, the Russian army in Europe amounts, on the peace-footing, to 19,103 officers, and 508,674 men; in war, 22,871 officers, and 879,755 men. The army of the Caucasus amounts in peace to 125,643; in war, to 167,841. The army of Turkestan to 22,906; of Siberia, from 25,000 to 27,000. Besides some thousand troops as gendarmes and in various military establishments, there is a grand total for the regular Russian army of 23,693 officers and 676,454 men; on the war-footing, 28,148 officers and 1,091,679 men. In addition there are the irregular troops, comprising about 190,000 men, chiefly cavalry.

Denmark.—All able-bodied young men 21 years of age are liable to serve eight years in the regular army of Denmark, and eight years in the reserve. Denmark has 31 battalions of infantry (guards, line, reserve), comprising 26,750 men; 5 regiments of cavalry, with 2122 men; 2 regiments and 2 battalions of artillery, with 6523 men; 2 battalions of engineers with 580 men. The total, line and reserve, is 1031 officers, 35,975 men; on the war-footing, 52,656 men.

Sweden and Norway.—There are five classes of soldiers in Sweden; the enlisted troops, the national militia (indelta), the conscription troops (bevaering or landvaern), the militia of Gothland, and the volunteers. Of the soldiers of the line there is a total of 35,646 men; of the reserve (landvaern), 86,101; of the Gothland militia and volunteers, 150,830. Norway has an army of its own, divided into the troops of the line, with reserve, military train, the landvaern, the civic guards, and the landstorm. The troops of the line are 12,000 in time of peace; in time of war not more than 18,000 without the assent of the Storthing.

Holland.—The army of the Netherlands is formed partly by conscription and partly by enlistment; and there is besides a militia. The European army has, of infantry, 1122 officers and 43,690 men; cavalry, 184 officers and 4318 men; engineers, 1035 men; artillery, 421 officers and 10,610 men. With the staff, &c., the total force is 62,068 officers and men. There is besides in the East Indies a force of 27,659 officers and men.

Belgium.—The standing army is formed by conscription. Substitution is permitted. The legal period of service is eight years. Belgium has 74,000 infantry (16 regiments), 8848 cavalry (7 regiments and 2 squadrons), 14,513 artillery (6 regiments), 2486 engineers. In all, and without officers, 99,847.

Italy.—The Sardinian law of conscription forms the basis of the Italian military system. The infantry of the line under arms on the peace-footing number 86,017; the bersaglieri, 16,818; depots, 11,560; the cavalry, 18,449; the artillery, 19,732; engineers, 3027; carbineers, 20,915; administrative troops, &c., 7047; giving a total of 183,205. On the war-footing, these several forces are so increased as to give a total of 541,575; and with the addition of the provincial militia, 743,656.

Spain.—The army of Spain was reorganised in 1868 after the model of that of France. The active

army has 60,000 infantry, 9000 cavalry, 2500 engineers, and 8500 artillery, making a total of 80,000 men. The reserves increase this number to 216,000. There is besides an army of 54,500 in Cuba, 9400 in Porto Rico, and of 9000 in the Philippines.

Switzerland.—The federal army has 1269 engineers, 8401 artillery, 1942 cavalry, 6078 tirailleurs, 65,991 infantry, and 364 of a sanitary corps. In all, 84,045. There are besides, of the reserves, 51,102; the landwehr, 65,562; giving a total available military force of 201,578.

Turkey.—In 1871, the Turkish regular army had infantry to the number of 72,000; cavalry, 9000; artillery, 9500; engineers, 1600; with 1200 miscellaneous troops amounting to 93,300. It is meanwhile proposed that by 1878 the regular army should be increased to 152,000. The irregular troops (Bashi-bazouks, Spahis, &c.) are about 70,000. And the contingents which the dependent states are bound to furnish are severally: Upper Albania, 10,000; Bosnia, 30,000; Egypt, 15,000; Tunis and Tripoli, 4000.

United States.—At the commencement of 1861 the United States army consisted only of about 14,000 regular troops. In various successive levies by the president during the civil war (1861—1865), as many as 2,653,062 men had been called out—nearly one-fourth of the entire population of the Northern States. After the war, the standing army was steadily diminished; and by a law passed in 1870, it is provided that there shall be no more than 30,000 enlisted men at one time. That force is distributed amongst 25 regiments of infantry, 10 of cavalry, 5 of artillery, and 1 battalion of engineers. Besides the regular army there is the militia, of which the nominal strength was at the last census, 3,245,000.

A separate and fuller treatment of the army of Great Britain is reserved for BRITISH ARMY; and for that in our Indian possessions see EAST INDIA ARMY. All the various matters relating to the formation, organisation, discipline, arms, equipments, duties, and tactics of A., will be found succinctly treated under appropriate headings.

ARMI'LLARY SPHERE (*armilla*, a ring), an instrument intended to give a just conception of the constitution of the heavens, and of the motions of the heavenly bodies, as seen by an observer on the earth. It consists of a number of rings fixed together so as to represent the principal circles of the celestial sphere, and these are movable round the polar axis within a meridian and horizon, as in the ordinary celestial globe. It was by means of such rings furnished with sights that Hipparchus, Ptolemy, and other ancient astronomers made many of their observations, and we find even Tycho Brahé making most of his planetary observations with the help of such an instrument. The A. S. is, however, now only used as an aid to instruction in astronomy, and in this respect is generally supplanted by the celestial globe. The object aimed at in the A. S. will be better understood by reference to the celestial globe represented in the diagram. Supposing the observer on the earth to be in the centre of the sphere, the earth on which he stands shuts out from his view the lower half of the heavens, or the part lying below the horizon HH. The hemisphere above him may be regarded as divided into two equal portions, an eastern and a western, by the meridian MM, which passes through the pole P, and the zenith Z, of which the eastern half is shewn in the figure. The north pole is supposed to be elevated above the horizon, and its elevation is measured by the arc NP, or the height above the north point; and the heavens appear to rotate round an axis PQ, of which P is one extremity; the south pole, Q, [illegible] being below the horizon. The [illegible] the horizon HH, are the only [illegible] tain a fixed position with regard to [illegible] observer.

Of the other leading celestial circles, the equator or equinoctial LL, extending from the east to the west point of the horizon, the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn, respectively BB and CC, and [illegible] circle AA, although rotating with the [illegible] the same position with regard to the [illegible] the ecliptic, KK, is constantly changing [illegible] and position towards it. Circles which [illegible] pole to pole, cutting the equator at right [illegible] called circles of declination. The circle which through the vernal equinox ♈ (see ARIES), is [illegible] nated the equinoctial colure; and that passing the summer solstice O (see SOLSTICE), the [illegible] colure. The circles just named, together with Antarctic Circle, are represented by corresponding rings in the A. S. If S be a star, the following names given to the arcs which determine [illegible] with regard to these circles: ♈V, Right [illegible] SV, Declination; SP, Polar distance; [illegible] distance; XS, Altitude; (XN + 180°), [illegible] reckoned from the south pole westward.

ARMI'NIUS, JACOBUS, the found[illegible] anism, was born at Oudewater (Old [illegible] His real name in Dutch was James [illegible] in accordance with the prevailing custom scholars in those days, he Latinised it. His was a cutler, and died when A. was a child. a preliminary education at Utrecht, he [illegible] (in 1575) a course of study at newly [illegible] university of Leyden, where he [illegible] years, and where he seems to have [illegible] reputation, for the Amsterdam merchants to bear the expense of his further [illegible] ministry, on condition that he would [illegible] out of their city unless permitted to do [illegible] 1582, he went to Geneva, and received [illegible] tions of Theodore Beza, the most rigid [illegible] Here he made himself odious by the boldness which he defended the logic of Peter Ramus in opposition to that of the Aristotelians of the day, and in consequence had to retire to Basle, where his fame must have preceded him, for he was [illegible] by the faculty of Divinity in [illegible]

tor gratis, which, however, he did not ... except, on account of his youth. At ... studied under Gyrnæus. He subsequently travelled into Italy. On his return to ... lam (1588), he was appointed minister. ... after this, he was commissioned to defend ... trine of Beza, regarding predestination, ... changes which the ministers of Delft had ... to make on it. A. carefully examined both the question, but the result of his study was, himself began to doubt, and at last came to ... opinions he had been commissioned to ... Some time after this change of view, he came, ... of his expositions, upon the Epistle to ... the most explicitly doctrinal in the New ... and the 8th and 9th chapters of which ... been considered the strongholds of ... His treatment of this epistle excited ... isfaction, and involved him in sharp ... with his orthodox brethren. Still his views ... yet, either ambiguously or vaguely expressed, ... at, had not attained to that clear consistency ... sequently acquired, for in 1604 he was made ... of theology in the university of Leyden.

greatest enemy of A. was Francis Gomar, ... ague in the university of Leyden. In the ... the year 1604, the latter attacked his doc- ... ad from that hour to the end of his life, A. ... d in a series of bitter disputes with ... ta. The *odium theologicum* was never ... d in more unmingled purity. Arminius ... in substance, that God bestows forgiveness ... l life on all who repent of their sins and ... Christ; he wills that all men should ... n, and only because he has from ... ern, the belief or unbelief of individuals, ... eternity determined the fate of each. ... hand, Gomar and his party, appeal- ... Belgic Confession and the Heidelberg ... maintained, that God had, by an eternal ... predestinated what persons shall, as being ... vation, be therefore awakened to ... faith and by grace made to persevere ... what persons shall, as being rejected ... left to sin, to unbelief, and to perdition.

NATION, PERSEVERANCE OF SAINTS.

... se fierce disputes were continuing, A., ... destitute either of friends or influence, ... *rector magnificus* of the university, but ... honour on the 8th of February 1606, ... the office only for one year. All the ... Holland now fulminated against him. ... In 1608, A. himself applied to the states ... to convoke a synod for the purpose of ... the controversy; but, worn out with care ... ness, he died, on the 19th of October 1609, ... s was held, leaving seven sons and two ... rs by his wife, Elizabeth Reael, daughter of ... Reael, a judge and senator of Amsterdam.

... can be no doubt that A. himself was much ... than his followers. He had not ... opinions sufficiently to elaborate a com- ... of anti-Calvinistic doctrine, though it is ... that the conclusions at which his ... —as stated in the famous 'Five ... —the logical and legitimate results of ... He always complained, however, that ... were misrepresented; but this is invari- ... of controversialists, and the penalty of ... A. was an extremely good man, as ... mies allow; his abilities were also of a ...; his thinking is clear, bold, and vigorous; ... remarkably methodical, and his scholarship ... ble, if not profound.

... the death of A., his followers gained ..., and boldly asserted their views, but still remained in a minority. In 1610, they presented to the assembled states of the province of Holland a 'Remonstrance'—from which they were styled 'Remonstrants'—which contained the following propositions: 1. That God had indeed made an eternal decree, but only on the conditional terms that all who believe in Christ shall be saved, while all who refuse to believe must perish; so that predestination is only conditional. 2. That Christ died for all men, but that none except believers are really saved by his death. The intention, in other words, is universal, but the efficacy may be restricted by unbelief. 3. That no man is of himself able to exercise a saving faith, but must be born again of God in Christ through the Holy Spirit. 4. That without the grace of God, man can neither think, will, nor do anything good; yet that grace does not act in men in an irresistible way. 5. That believers are able, by the aid of the Holy Spirit, victoriously to resist sin; but that the question of the possibility of a fall from grace must be determined by a further examination of the Scriptures on this point.

This last point, left as an open question, was decided by the Remonstrants in the affirmative soon afterwards (1611). Whereupon the Gomarists (Calvinists) put forth a strong 'Counter-remonstrance,' asserting plainly absolute predestination and reprobation. After several fruitless discussions, the states of Holland, in January 1614, acting under the advice of Oldenbarneveld, a senator, and the learned Hugo Grotius, issued an edict of full toleration for both parties, prohibiting at the same time the continuance of the controversy. The Counter-remonstrants (or Calvinists) refused to submit to this edict, and the strife soon became so furious, that in 1617, or soon afterwards, the Arminians found it necessary to guard themselves from personal violence by appointing a safeguard of militia-men (*Waard-gelders*). The controversy now merged in the strife of party politics. The ambitious Maurice of Orange took advantage of the passions of the majority to crush his opponents of the republican party, whose leaders were adherents of the Arminian doctrines. Several Arminians were put to death—among them the aged senator Oldenbarneveld, May 13, 1619—while Grotius and others were imprisoned. In these circumstances, the Synod of Dort was held (1618—1619), attended by selected representatives from the Netherlands, England, Scotland, the Palatinate, Switzerland, Nassau, East Friesland, and Bremen. From this convocation (January 14, 1619), the thirteen Arminian pastors, with the learned and eloquent Simon Episcopius at their head, were excluded. The doctrines of the Counter-remonstrants were embodied in ninety-three canons; the Belgic Confession and the Heidelberg Catechism were confirmed as authorities for the reformed churches of the Netherlands; and three hundred Arminians (chiefly preachers) were expelled from office. In consequence of this decision, the defeated party sought shelter in France, Holstein, England, &c. Afterwards, under Frederick-Henry, the stadtholder after Prince Maurice (1630), they were again tolerated in Holland, and in 1634 Episcopius opened his theological college in Amsterdam.

Since that time, the Remonstrants (or Arminians) in Holland have inclined more and more towards freedom of thought on religious questions and independence in church government. The rejection of all creeds and confessions; the free interpretation of the Scriptures; a preference of moral to doctrinal teaching; Arian views respecting the Trinity; the virtual rejection of the doctrines of original sin and imputed righteousness, and the view of the sacraments as merely edifying forms or ceremonies: all these and other points of belief display the same tendency

which is found in their church polity. Their annual conference on ecclesiastical affairs is composed of ministers and lay-deputies, and takes place in June, alternately at Amsterdam and Rotterdam. The number of Remonstrants is now only about 5000, and is still decreasing. In 1809, they had 34 congregations with 40 preachers in Holland; but in 1829, only 20 congregations with 21 preachers. The largest society of A. is in Rotterdam, and numbers only 600 members.

Although the Arminians are thus dwindling away as a distinct body, their tenets respecting predestination have been adopted with greater or less modification by several other Christian denominations (see METHODISTS, BAPTISTS); as well as by multitudes of the individual members of those churches whose formularies are Calvinistic (see CALVINISM). They are also very prevalent in the Church of Rome.

A'RMISTICE, a suspension of hostilities between two armies, or two nations at war, by mutual agreement. It sometimes takes place when both are exhausted, and at other times when an endeavour to form a treaty of peace is being made. A particular example will best illustrate the nature of an A. On the 25th of February 1856, the representatives of England, France, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, Turkey, and Russia, met in congress at Paris, to consider the terms of a treaty of peace which should terminate the war at that time going on between five of the above-named powers. The British nation was very unwilling to suspend hostilities during the sitting of the congress—partly on account of the numerous failures of diplomacy in the preceding year, and partly because Russia was suspected of only wishing to gain time. It was agreed, however, at the first sitting, in conformity with the laws of nations and the usages of war, that an A. should be declared, to be announced by telegraphic message to the commanders in the Crimea, and to last until the 31st of March. During that period of about one calendar month, the hostile armies were to remain strictly at peace, but the fleets of the allies were to continue their blockade of Russian ports. The information reached the generals late on the 28th of February. On the morning of the 29th, a white flag was hoisted in the Russian camp outside Sebastopol; several Russian officers assembled around it; and a glittering cavalcade of British, French, and Sardinian officers proceeded thither. The accredited officers compared notes, found the terms of the A. clear, agreed on a boundary-line between the hitherto hostile forces, and formally gave pledges for a cessation of fighting. The courtesy of civilised nations at once succeeded to the horrors of war; the Russian commander gave a magnificent entertainment to the allied commanders, and was entertained in turn; the soldiers 'fraternised,' by little gifts of tobacco, and ludicrous attempts at conversation, across a small stream which formed part of the boundary-line; and a few British officers were permitted to make excursions into the interior of the Crimea. The A. ended on March 31, not by a renewal of hostilities, but by the signing of a treaty of peace.

ARMORICA, the country of the Armorici, i.e., 'the dwellers on the sea' (Celt. *ar*, on or near; and *mor*, sea), the name by which the people occupying the coast of Gaul between the Seine and the Loire were known to Cæsar. At a later period, the name A. was confined to the country afterwards styled Britannia Minor, or Bretagne (q. v.).

A'RMORY may mean a storehouse for arms; but the name is also often applied to a collection of ancient armour and weapons such as those in the Tower of London, in Sir Samuel Meyrick's mansion at Goodrich Court on the Wye, and Castle.

A'RMOUR is a general name for for personal defence, as contradisti arms or weapons of offence. Little o soldiers at the present day, seeing hand conflicts, in which it is especia are rather exceptional in modern before the invention of gunpowder called in England by the name of especially used.

All the ancient nations who occu history were accustomed to adopt o the defensive clothing or implements ively come under the denomination o A. was sometimes worn; but brass, i metals were preferred. Some of the leaders had much silver and gold in th Bible, shields, helmets, breastplates, are mentioned among the articles o worn by the Israelites and their op classical writers—Homer, Xenopho Livy, Tacitus, Varro, &c.—supply dence of the use of A. among the nati whom they wrote.

It is believed that the early Britons no other A. than shields. The Angl more fully provided. At different ti Norman Conquest they appear to cornered helmets; loricæ made of A.; leathern helmets; wooden shield leather; sheep-skin shields; conical c of metal; pectorals or neck-guards; of undressed hide; flat-ringed A. tunics of overlapping pieces of le fitting cuirasses of leather, and someti linen; leg-guards of twisted woollen of various sizes, from half a yard t a half in length; and casques having resemblance to the ancient helmets Danes were in Britain, they had at A. than leathern neck-pieces, which d way over the shoulders and chest: shin-pieces for the legs. In the Knute, however, they adopted a Sir Samuel Meyrick supposes them from the Norsemen or Norwegians. tunic, with a hood and long sleeve which covered feet as well as legs; shaped helmets or skull-caps, with a which hid nearly the whole face ex All these were probably made of leath of the surfaces were strengthened masoles, a perforated net-work of steel

With William the Conqueror came i A. which were at that time prevale knights and soldiers of the continent o which became afterwards more or le the A. previously known in England. occasionally wore a hauberk of of A. was much worn during hi being usually attached to a found One curious variety of ring-A., called had the tunic and breeches all in helmets were generally conical, with a guard descending from the front. A di called *hose*, was often worn on the shield was generally kite-shaped, sm shields carried by the Anglo-Saxo changes in these various portions made between the reigns of Willi John. Under Henry III., we padded hauberks and chaussés, de pourpointerie; suits of ri shin-pieces of steel; poleyns vambraces or arm-guards; jacks, jaqu

and worn over the ring-A.; inter-
mtal invention, not requir-
any garment or foundation;
nd skull-caps of various forms; and
A. for the head and face of horses.
III.'s reign, iron plate-A. was much
, in the various forms of helmet,
ntlet, and greaves. In the 14th c.,
into disuse, and was succeeded by
last-named kind became more and
ded, and reached its greatest pitch of
reign of Richard III. During the
II. and VIII., the A. was some-
orately engraved, and even
with gold. Under James I.,
of the feudal times gave way,
declined; a knight armed *cap-à-*
a rarity. Charles I. tried to revive its use,

Suit of Armour,
presented by the Emperor Maximilian to Henry VIII.

had few followers; and the days of Cromwell
regarded as the last in which A. was worn
considerable extent by the regular soldiers.
and cuirasses are still worn by the three
of Household Cavalry (Life-guards and
ds), but more for show than for service.
f pieces of A. will be found briefly
and illustrated under the proper headings.

URER. The old meaning of this word
passed away with the system to which it
The armour-smiths, or makers of armour,
g the most skilful workers in metal during
l times; but their trade afterwards fell
n the year 1690, the workmen-armourers of
, in a petition to parliament, complained that
ade was well-nigh ruined.

in a somewhat different sense of the
to the British army and navy at
me. There are armourers to every
to make armour, but to repair arms.
to each regiment of cavalry, and one
n of infantry and brigade of artil-
paid 4*s.* 11*d.* a day, besides a small
for certain work performed. There is a
training 'A.-sergeants' at the Small Arms
ld, where the men work, after enlist-
drafted to a regiment; and whither
from time to time to refresh their
ries.

A. is a first-class petty officer,
gunner, charge of all the
cutlasses, boarding-pikes, &c.,
cted to keep clean and in ready
He is
d by certain seamen called the
all are skilled in the general

of offence, may be divided into two great classes—those that act by means of gunpowder, and those that do not. Of arms that act otherwise than by explosion, the greater part have been in use from the earliest times; they include the bow and arrow, sling, pike, spear, lance, dart, javelin, dagger, axe, mace, spiked or knotted club, scythe for chariots, dirk, bayonet, sword, cutlass, &c., together with such artillery as the ballista, catapulta, and battering-ram. Weapons depending on the use of gunpowder are of two kinds—those that can be held in the hand, and those that are too heavy to be portable. In the first class, we find the names of the hand-cannon, hand-gun, arquebus, haquebut, demi-haque, matchlock, wheel-lock, firelock, currier, snaphaunce, caliver, escloppette, petronel, dragon, hand-mortar, dag, tricker-lock, carbine, fusil, fowlingpiece, blunderbuss, pistol, musket or musquet, musketoon, rifle, &c. In the second class, more usually included under the name of artillery, we find the springel, war-wolf, bombard, cart-of-war, culverin, demi-culverin, serpentine, falcon, saker, cannon, howitzer, petard, carronade, mortar, rifled cannon, war-rockets, &c. The more important of these are briefly noticed under the proper headings. It is needless, perhaps, to add that nine-tenths of these are utterly obsolete.

The Surveyor-general of the Ordnance in the British army has the duty of providing and keeping efficient the arms in use by the regular and auxiliary forces, and of maintaining an ample reserve in the Royal Arsenals. Each regiment makes a report on these subjects yearly. If the commanding officer of a regiment ascertains that a new supply of arms is needed for the men under him, or a supply of anything in relation to the arms, he indents upon the Controller of the District for the supply required; which is forthwith made by that officer, subject, however, to a pecuniary fine upon the regiment, if the arms have not lasted a fair time.

ARMS, ARMO'RIAL BEARINGS, or ENSIGNS, are the names given to such devices as when painted on a shield form a coat. These terms in popular speech include all the accompaniments of a shield—viz., the crest, helmet, and where such exist, the supporters, &c. See these terms. See also HERALDRY.

ARMS, ASSUMPTIVE. See HERALDRY.

ARMS, BELLS OF, are tents, mostly of a conical shape, for containing the small-arms for each company in a regiment of infantry. The tent is frequently painted with the colour of the facings of the regimental uniforms.

ARMS, MESSENGER AT. See MESSENGERS-AT-ARMS.

ARMS, SERJEANT AT. See SERJEANT-AT-ARMS.

ARMS, STAND OF. A stand of A. is the complete set necessary for the equipment of one soldier, whether horse or foot.

ARMSTRONG, JOHN, physician and poet, was born about 1709 at Castletown, a pastoral parish in Roxburghshire, of which his father was minister. He studied medicine at the university of Edinburgh, where he took the degree of M.D., February 4, 1732. Soon after, he commenced practice in London, and became known by the publication of several fugitive pieces and medical essays. In 1737 he published a very objectionable poem, *The Economy of Love*, which injured his reputation for a time. His principal work, *The Art of Preserving Health*, a didactic poem in blank verse, extending through four books, appeared in 1744. In 1746 he was appointed physician to the hospital for sick and lame soldiers. In 1751 he published a volume on *Benevolence*; in
al epistle on *Taste*; and in 1758, a
essays of no great merit. In 1760

he was appointed physician to the forces in Germany. In 1761 appeared from his pen *Day, a Poem*. On the peace in 1763, he returned to London, and resumed practice. In 1771 he made a continental tour with Fuseli, the painter, an account of which he published, with the title of *A Short Ramble through some Parts of France and Italy, by Lancelot Temple, Esq.* His last work was a volume of medical essays. He contributed to Thomson's *Castle of Indolence* the four stanzas at the end of the first part, descriptive of the diseases resulting from sloth. Died 7th September 1779. A. was the friend of Thomson, Mallet, Aaron Hill, Dr Young, Wilkes, and the principal wits and literary men of the period. He seems to have been a reserved, indolent, and splenetic man, 'who quite detested talk;' kind-hearted withal, and of frugal habits, having left £3000, saved out of a small and precarious income. His fame rests entirely on *The Art of Preserving Health*, his other works being now only known by name.

A'RMSTRONG, JOHN, an eminent physician and medical writer, was born 8th May 1784, at Ayres Quay, near Bishop-Wearmouth, where his father was the superintendent of some glassworks. He studied medicine at the university of Edinburgh, and in June 1808 took the degree of M.D. He commenced practice at Bishop-Wearmouth, and in 1811 was chosen physician to the infirmary at Sunderland. In 1816 he published a work on *Typhus*, which greatly extended his reputation. His researches concerning the causes and phenomena of febrile diseases having made his name well known in the metropolis, he was induced, in February 1818, to remove to London, where his practice became extensive, and he was elected physician to the Fever Hospital. In 1821, in concert with Mr Edward Grainger, he established a medical school in Webb Street, Borough, where he lectured on the practice of physic. He also delivered a course of lectures on Materia Medica. In 1826 he joined Dr Boot and Mr E. Bennett in establishing a new school of medicine in Dean Street, Soho, but shortly after relinquished his connection with it. He died of consumption, 12th December 1829, aged 45. Exclusively devoted to the duties of his profession, Dr A. was very successful in the elucidation of medical science. His works are numerous, and he contributed various papers to the medical journals. His lectures, inserted in the *Lancet* in 1825, were published in a separate form after his death, with the following title, *Lectures on the Morbid Anatomy, Nature, and Treatment of Acute and Chronic Diseases, by the late John Armstrong, M.D. Edited by Joseph Rix*—one of his pupils. (London, 1834, 8vo.)

A'RMSTRONG, SIR WILLIAM GEORGE, noted for various mechanical inventions, especially in artillery and in water-power machinery, was born in 1810 at Newcastle, where his father was an eminent corn-merchant, and in 1851 filled the office of mayor. A. was educated at the school of Bishop-Auckland; but his peculiar mental powers were chiefly cultivated by the opportunities which his father's tastes gave him at home, of acquainting himself with chemistry, electricity, and mechanics. Though the natural bent of his mind was to some profession in which these sciences would have been available, he readily yielded to his father's wishes, and was articled to Mr Armourer Donkin, an eminent solicitor in Newcastle, who, at the expiration of his time, adopted him as a partner. A high sense of duty enabled A. to give his excellent general powers of mind to business; but he devoted much of his leisure to his favourite pursuits, and his inventive faculty was constantly active. About 1838, observing one day a little stream descending along a height near Newcastle, and driving but a single mill to how much more purpose it might hydraulically, and thus was led into experimenting, which resulted in his much improved hydraulic engine, of whi tion was given in the *Mechanics' M* April 18, 1840. Following up this inve view to practical applications, he gave t in 1845, a hydraulic crane, which has pr eminent utility in raising weights at har warehouses. The discovery of electricity a workman at a fixed engine on the Railway in 1840, had meanwhile led A. path, and in 1842 he brought to perfecti ratus for producing electricity from st was soon after introduced into the Pol stitution in London. The evolution of th depending in reality on the friction s the small quantity of water which acco steam in its discharge, the great merit o tion in this case lay in the form he gav through which the steam passed. Th inventions brought him into prominent was elected a member of the Royal Soci and, shortly afterwards, in conjunction friends, commenced the Elswick E the suburbs of his native town. This is upon a large scale, at first chiefly producing hydraulic cranes, engines, ac and bridges, for use in Great Britain, th and India, but now embracing also wo production of ordnance.

In 1854, while war was raging in the War Office was solicited by many invent trial of new forms of cannon and proj Armstrong, one of the number, attracte tion of the authorities, and was employ explosive apparatus for blowing up the at Sebastopol. This led him soon consider improvements in ordnance, an a form of breech-loading cannon, comb peculiarities in structure and action. encouragement to make a few field-pi new method. He made lengthened exp the strength of iron and steel, on the rel of cast and wrought iron, on the best grooves in rifling, on the best pitch these grooves, on the most convenien loading at the breech of the gun, on the for lessening the recoil, on the best form ture of shot and shells, and on the fuses for igniting the shells during their flight

Most of the early experiments were guns throwing 6-lb. and 18-lb. shot and subsequently 32-lb. shells. The last-nam built up piecemeal, to avoid flaws or fa insure strength, lightness, and durabili made in 3-feet lengths. Bars of wr inches wide, were heated to whiten spirally round a steel bar or core, an other bars were twisted over these in a but with an opposite turn of the spiral; perhaps a fourth were added, according t ness and strength needed. Another whiteness preceded a thorough weldin layers of bars by a steam-hammer. The of these 3-feet pieces were then nicely t adjusted, placed in contact, and bound the enormous pressure of a wrought-iron on while at a white heat. By varying and length of these sections, a gun o could be made. The core was then re the bore of the gun rifled by exquisite The rifle-grooves were so small and upwards of 40 in number; their such as to make a complete cir

breech of the gun was wholly distinct, cted in a different way; it could be ward by unscrewing, and had a hole for introducing the shot or shell At first, the inventor adopted a his gun; but afterwards relied on wrought-iron. The projectile em- this gun might be solid shot, shell, canister-shot; but the shell was that to interest is attached. It was about three n length; and thus a 32-lb. shot or shell ired from a gun of much smaller calibre ere spherical. The shell was built up of parate pieces of cast-iron, very accurately enveloped in an iron sheath. Outside of bands of lead, soft enough to be forced d grooves of the gun, and thus to acquire nt by which the straightness of red. resu.. obtained by a gun such as is ed are almost incredible. An ordinary der weighs 57 cwt.; Armstrong's 32- ighs 26 cwt. The former requires 10 lb. as a charge; for the latter 5 lb. will he former will send a shot or shell 3000 range of the latter exceeds 9000 yards. attached to the shells are so exquisitely the shell can be made to burst either aving the gun, or half-way on its path, strikes an object; in the last-named case, k of shavings will afford the necessary and yet, so close is the structure, that hell has been fired completely through oak without the pieces separating. experiments were made chiefly with a inch calibre, and so light that two v it (without its carriage); this small h 1500 yards with wonderful accu- had a range of 3000 at a certain eleva-

had spent much of his time and thoughts r years on this subject, the government, the strongly expressed opinions of rs of all ranks, proposed to secure the ce experiments for the nation. A. the government, without any stipulation, ll his past inventions, but also all such as hereafter discover. This led to arrange- ich the ministers in parliament character- eral and patriotic on his part; and the suggested were accepted. An office was r him, that of Chief-engineer of Rifled for seven years provisionally; and a cer- of salary was determined on, in con- nce of his past inventions and of his ices. He was knighted by the queen in

ar connection, partaking in some degree of a partnership, between the govern- Elswick firm, underwent changes from and was brought to a close in 1863. nuance, guns of gradually increasin de on A.'s system; 3, 5, and 12 18, 20, 32, and 40 pounders; then ing in calibre, until at length a 600- produced, weighing upwards of 20 tons. ystem of construction, the adoption of a ber of rifle grooves, and the use of the formed segment shell, were continued; de variations in the combination of steel and adopted muzzle-loading for many of Elaborate experiments made by led to a conclusion that the A. many disadvantages for large nding its range, accuracy, ce, easiness to clean, and safety to the gunners while loading, it is neither so cheap nor so simple as the muzzle loader; it is difficult to handle, complicated, apt to get out of order, and not so useful for general purposes. The comparative cheapness has had much to do with the recent preference of the War Office for the Woolwich gun, a muzzle-loader. A. supplies, and has long supplied many foreign governments with his guns, chiefly of large calibre. The manufacture is of the highest order, effected through the medium of machine tools of exquisite construction; but the practical utility of the gun, as compared with the Whitworth, Palliser, and other kinds, is still matter of controversy.

The great reputation and commercial success of A. depend on his skill as a constructor of water-power machinery. Early in his career, in 1847, when a plan was adopted for supplying Newcastle with water, he suggested that the power derived from the descent of the water through pipes from the reservoir, should be utilised for working hydraulic cranes on the quay, and for various mechanical purposes in the town; this was done with marked success. The system has rapidly grown; until, at length, the A. hydraulic machinery is largely adopted in England and abroad for raising, lowering, hauling, and other purposes in connection with railways, canals, docks, piers, harbours, lock-gates, manufactories, warehouses, &c. The fabrication of the machinery employs a very large number of hands at Elswick, where the works are carried on by a joint-stock company. A., who belongs to several scientific societies, was instrumental in bringing about the appointment of the Coal Commission in 1866, by which so much valuable evidence has been collected and published. He has also taken an active part in the inquiries concerning the operation of the Patent Laws, he being very hostile to them in their present forms. The degree of LL.D. has been conferred on A. by the university of Cambridge.

ARMY. Referring to ARMIES (ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL, and MODERN) and to BRITISH ARMY for brief historical notices of national military forces, and leaving to other portions of this work all details concerning the formation and tactics of such forces, it may be well to mention here certain distinctions in the application of the name A. A *Covering A.* is encamped or in cantonments, for the protection of the different passes or roads which lead to the town or other place to be protected. A *Siege A.* is ranged around or in front of a fortified place, to capture it by a regular process of besieging. A *Blockading A.*, either independent of or auxiliary to a siege A., is intended to prevent all ingress and egress at the streets or gates of a besieged place. An *A. of Observation* takes up an advanced position, and by celerity of movement keeps a close watch on all the manœuvres of the enemy. An *A. of Reconnaissance* has a more special duty at a particular time and place, to ascertain the strength and position of the enemy's forces. A *Flying A.* comprises a strong body of horse and foot, moving quickly from place to place, to alarm the enemy, and to protect garrisons. Any one of these may be forced into an engagement in the field; but they are all more or less subsidiary to the *Main A.*, by which the greater operations in the field are usually conducted.

ARMY ADMINISTRATION. The whole of the operations connected with the raising, clothing, paying, maintaining, and controlling of the British army, are included in the term A. A. They are distinct matters from military command and discipline. The Sovereign has the supreme command of the British army; but the Secretary of State for War is her responsible representative in all that concerns

administration—the Commander-in-chief being her representative in matters relating to military command and discipline. The Secretary is the organ through whom the wishes of the Sovereign are reconciled with the wishes and intentions of parliament. Until the war with Russia in 1854, the administrative departments were much scattered; their defective organisation led in great part to the miseries suffered by the British troops in the Crimea; but now they are all consolidated under the Secretary of State for War. See WAR DEPARTMENT.

ARMY AGENT. See AGENT, ARMY.

ARMY ESTIMATES. In the spring of every year, the British government having formed a plan concerning the extent and appliances of the military force for that year, the War Office sends to the Treasury a series of accounts setting forth the probable cost of everything required. These accounts are called the A. E. If they are approved by the Treasury, the Chancellor of the Exchequer adverts to these, along with other estimates, in his annual 'financial statement,' made to the House of Commons in his capacity as guardian of the public purse. In preparing the A. E. the Secretary of State for War applies to the heads of all the departments under him for detailed accounts of their probable requirements. Another functionary then incorporates and adjusts these into a whole; they are submitted to the Treasury; and, if approved, are presented to the House as the A. E. Should the Commons grant the money, the Accountant-general of the War Office makes the requisite drafts or demands from time to time; and the Treasury authorises the Paymaster-general of the Forces to honour these drafts. The money itself is in the Bank of England; this establishment receives a certain annual sum from the government for managing such financial matters.

The A. E. are drawn up in conformity with a model which differs little from year to year. There are certain great headings, each comprising many minor divisions: viz., 1. *Regular Forces* (4 votes); 2. *Auxiliary and Reserve Forces* (4 votes); 3. *Ordnance Establishments and Manufactures, and Purchase of Stores* (4 votes); 4. *Works and Buildings* (barracks, fortifications, &c.); 5. *Educational Establishments* (schools, libraries, &c.); 6. *Administration of the Army*; 7. *Non-effective Services* (half-pay, retiring allowances, pensions, &c.). The various items are more or less sifted by the House of Commons; and any one or more of them can be refused altogether, or granted in diminished amount. The A. E. for 1874–1875, which may be cited here as an illustrative example, refer to the period from April 1, 1874 to March 31, 1875. The total number of British troops provided for in these estimates is 191,834; but as 62,840 are charged to the East Indian treasury, as being required for India service, the House of Commons was asked only to provide for the remaining 128,994. The horses are 26,453, of which 11,325 are for India service. Without going into any details, we will simply give the amounts under the six great headings:

1. Regular Forces—pay and allowances,	£1,752,1[illegible]
2. Auxiliary and Reserve Forces,	1,3[illegible],9[illegible]
3. Ordnance Services (provisions, clothing, arms, stores,	5,042,0[illegible]
4. Works and buildings,	7[illegible],3[illegible]
5. Education,	135,[illegible]
6. Administration,	[illegible],3[illegible]
7. Non-effective Services,	2,1[illegible],5[illegible]
	£14,4[illegible],5[illegible]

ARMY LIST is the name of a publication issued monthly by authority of the War Office. It contains the names of all commissioned officers in the British army. Then come the general and fie the dying-out Indian Army. Next the officers who hold military honours or s ments. The bulk of the work, however with an enumeration of all the reg Queen's army, and all the officers in arranged according to the numerical regiments. To this are added lists of the Rifle Brigade, Colonial Corps, Roy Royal Engineers, Royal Marines, Contr Medical Department; and of officers re pay and on half-pay. Next follow th the Militia, Yeomanry, and Volunteer the Militia and Volunteer officers of colonies. A full index, an obituary, changes gazetted during the past montl new regulations, complete the work. A of similar but non-official character, *Hu* a more condensed arrangement of type, information contained in the official lis in addition.

ARMY SCHOOLS. The colleges and schools relating to military mat country may be grouped into three cl intended to increase the military effic officers and men; those for imparti knowledge to persons not yet in milit and those which bear relation to t school-tuition of soldiers of the rank children. The principal of those in the are the Staff College, the Royal Militar Sandhurst, the School of Military En Chatham, the Department of Artiller Woolwich, the School of Gunnery at S School of Musketry at Hythe, and the lery Institution at Woolwich. The sec represented by the Royal Military Woolwich; while in the third are the tary Asylum (better known as the Dul School) at Chelsea, the Royal Hibernia Dublin, the Regimental Schools, and Schools. Chelsea Hospital is an asy ans, not a school of instruction. See ACADEMY, MILITARY SCHOOLS, SANDHU

ARMY WORKS CORPS. When generals engaged in the Crimean war, months of 1854, knew that the siege need to winter outside Sebastopol, gra were presented to their notice. The the landing-place at Balaklava to the siege-camp was not less than eight mi only road was a mud-track, almost i wet weather. How to get the heavy g and shell, the provisions, and the general the front, was a question not easy of so British soldiers were too few even for military duties, and yet they were cal services of an extra and arduous n these facts became known in England was made that an 'Army Works C formed, to consist of strong and excavators, Cornish miners, and wea these should have with them all the to ances for making roads and digging we they should be accompanied by trav shops and skilled artisans, to effect that require more skill than physical labour diate necessities of Lord Raglan, in reg ing up supplies, were met by the cons railway from Balaklava to the hei Sebastopol, by special contract with and Brassey; but the large amoun labour continually needed for various to the formation of the A. W. C. The organisation of this force were intrusted

...s. As soon as he had obtained 1000 efficient ... sent them out; and their value was so soon ... by Lord Raglan, that other detachments gra... followed, until the corps comprised 3500 men ... months of 1855. The men were paid ... worked well; and as their engage... to the special duties connected ... the country was not saddled ... the need for these services ... not require to be drilled for ... sappers; and they were ready for ... artisans or labourers. There were ... cases of disagreement between the men and ... employers, after the whole of the British had ... from the Crimea, in a matter of wages due; ... was a question of detail, and did not affect ... fulness of the corps. The experience was ..., as shewing the relative advantage and ... vantage of employing civilian labourers in ... operations. As one result, it may be observed ... military authorities have been careful not ... the experiment in later wars.

...AULD, Angélique, a daughter of Robert d'Andilly, was born on the 28th November ... her earliest years, she exhibited an ... force and resoluteness of character, ... ch anxious speculation concerning ... among her relatives. When not ... years of age, she became a nun at ... des Champs, where she had been edu... by her aunt, Marie Jaqueline Angélique sister of the great Arnauld. Nine years was made subprioress; and on removing ... later to Port-Royal de Paris, she held ... A. During the persecution of the Port... A., by her piety and courage, sustained ... of the sisterhood. The whole family, ... female, were determined Jansenists, and more so than Mother Angélique de Saint... her conventual name). She had much to ... but she met misfortunes with earnest intre... A royal order was issued to break up the ... police arrested the inmates, who ... in various convents throughout ... constant efforts were made by the ... induce them to sign the 'Formulary of ... VII.' A. A. was alone exempted from ... their arguments and solicitations, her ... being supposed invincible. At length, ... and of the Archbishop of Paris, the nuns ... lored to Port-Royal des Champs; but for ... they were subjected to a strict surveil... soldiers, who watched all their movements, ... ed them no intercourse with persons out of ... ent. In 1669, however, was issued the edict ... IX. for the peace of the church, which ... and of compromise on this vexed question of ... Jesuitism. The nuns received back ... of which they had been stripped, and ... society anew. A. A. was again ... In 1678, she was made abbess. ... her protectress, the Duchesse de ... d, and the persecution recommenced. ... ion to receive any more novices. Still ... not despair. She consoled the nuns, ... all her influence with persons in power, ... ttle effect. At last she sank under a ... of griefs, and expired on the 29th of ... leaving behind her as bright and ... memory as any of her countrywomen. ... rned without being pedantic, pious with... and gentle to others in proportion as she ... to ... A. A. wrote several works, ... which is *Mémoires pour servir ... rie Angélique Arnauld de ... trice de Port-Royal.*

ARNAULD, Antoine, the greatest advocate of his time in France, was born at Paris in 1560. He was descended from an ancient family of Auvergne, which had distinguished itself both in civil and military affairs. A. was not less remarkable for his eloquence than for his probity. His zealous defence of the university of Paris against the Jesuits in 1594 won for him a wide celebrity. It was reprinted in 1717. He published another work against the Society of Jesus, and several tractates of an earnest political character. The Jesuits accused him of being a Huguenot, but the accusation was unfounded, for he had no personal predilection in favour of Protestantism as a distinct religious system. He had several children, who formed the nucleus of the Jansenists and Port-Royalists. He died 29th December 1619.

ARNAULD, Antoine, known as 'the great A.,' the twentieth and youngest son of the preceding, was born at Paris, February 6, 1612. Although originally intended for the bar, he could not conceal his dislike of the legal profession, and was in consequence dedicated by his mother to the service of the church. Entering the Sorbonne, he became a pupil of Lescot, the confessor of Cardinal Richelieu, and afterwards Bishop of Chartres. Lescot initiated him into the scholastic theology; but his attention having been drawn to the writings of Augustine, he soon conceived an admiration for that profoundest of the early Christian thinkers which he ever after retained. It was Augustine, he himself admitted, who first shewed him the great difference between the two states—that of a nature whole and sound, and that of a nature corrupted by sin. In 1641, the Sorbonne wished to receive him into their society, on account of his extraordinary piety and talents, but Cardinal Richelieu opposed this. In the following year he was ordained a priest, and in 1643 he published a work entitled *De la Fréquente Communion*, which was received in the most favourable manner by all except the Jesuits, who had taken alarm at the virtues of A., and were already attempting to defame one whom they instinctively felt to be a reproach to their order. As a consequence of this publication, he was now admitted 'of the Society' of the Sorbonne. A. not only replied to the aspersions of the Jesuits in his *Avertissement*, but also sent forth a work which was the prelude to a long and fierce contest with his adversaries, *Théologie Morale des Jésuites* (Moral Theology of the Jesuits). But the hatred of the latter was not confined to literary libels; they advised the chancellor of the Sorbonne to carry the dispute to Rome, whither A. would be obliged to follow and defend himself. In this scheme, however, they were defeated.

A. now buried himself in seclusion for twenty-one years, during which period, however, his pen was almost continuously active. In 1644 appeared his *Tradition de l'Eglise sur la Pénitence* (Opinion of the Church on the Doctrine of Penitence). It was a reply to the attacks which the Jesuits had made against his *Frequent Communion*. A. was still entangled in the disputes which arose out of this treatise, when he became involved in another controversy that coloured the whole of his subsequent career, and may be said to have won for him his position in history. This was the great Jansenist controversy. In 1640 had appeared a posthumous work of Jansenius, Bishop of Ypres, entitled *Augustinus; seu Doctrina Sancti Augustini de Humanæ Naturæ Sanitate, Ægritudine, Medicinâ, adversus Pelagianos et Massilienses*. It laid down with a rigour equal to that of Calvin the doctrines of predestination, the corruption of human nature, and the depravity of the will. It was specially intended as a counteractive against the lax principles and

morality of the Jesuits, many of whom, and especially their great champion, Molina, entertained extreme Pelagian views of the freedom of the human will, which they had cunningly interwoven into their 'scarlet-coloured' web of ethics. The work, in the meantime, was condemned by Pope Urban VIII., on the 1st of August 1641. A., who quickly apprehended its vital importance in the existing state of things, boldly ventured to defend it against the censures of the papal bull. He published several pamphlets, closing with a first and second *Apologie de Jansénius*. It is to the honour of the religion of A., however, that it was not always controversial. Whenever a moment of armistice was permitted him, he occupied it in writing such works as *Mœurs de l'Eglise Catholique*, *La Correction*, *La Grâce*, *La Vérité de la Religion*, *De la Foi*, *de l'Espérance*, *et de la Charité*, and the *Manuel de Saint Augustine*. He also varied these occupations by translating into Latin his *Frequent Communion*, and by the composition of his *Novæ Objectiones contra Renat. Descartis Meditationes*, and several smaller tractates. In addition to his literary labours, he undertook the direction of the nuns of Port-Royal des Champs, a convent of which his sister, Marie Jaqueline Angélique Arnauld, was abbess. In this retreat he was surrounded by many friends, thirsting like himself for the quiet pleasures of study, some of whom have left their mark in the world, such as Pascal, Nicole, &c. Here they wrote in common numerous excellent works. A. executed parts of the *Grammaire Générale Raisonnée*, *Eléments de Géométrie*, and *L'Art de Penser*. In 1649 the Jansenist controversy broke out more fiercely than ever. The *Augustinus* of the Bishop of Ypres was again attacked and condemned by the Sorbonne and the pope. A. replied in his *Considérations*. In 1650 appeared what he conceived to be his best work, *L'Apologie pour les Saints Pères*. For the next half-dozen years he was engaged in constant and painful disputes; yet, in spite of the polemical character of his life, the impression of his piety and earnestness was deepened in the mind of the nation; and on reading some of his compositions, even Alexander VII. is reported to have praised the author, and to have exhorted him for the future to despise the libels of his adversaries. During the strife he published *La Concorde des Evangiles* and *L'Office du Saint-Sacrement*. In 1655–56, for prudential reasons, he left his retreat at Port-Royal; about the same time he was expelled from the Sorbonne and the faculty of theology.

In 1656, the war with the Jesuits was renewed—not, however, by A. in person. An unknown knight with closed visor had ridden into the lists—the great Pascal. Under the *nom de plume* of Louis de Montalto, he discharged his scorpion wit against the Jesuits for about a year and a half in the *Provincial Letters*. A. furnished him with materials; but, in 1658, he took the field *in propriâ personâ*, by publishing his *Cinq Ecrits en faveur des Curés de Paris contre les Casuistes relâchés*. In 1662 appeared *La Nouvelle Hérésie* (of the Jesuits); in 1669 the first volume of his *Morale Pratique* (of the Jesuits), the last of which was not published until the year of his death.

A., who was a sincere Catholic after his fashion, next had a theological controversy, properly so called, with the reformed minister Claude, the consequence of which was his volume, *Du Renversement de la Morale de J. C. par la Doctrine des Calvinistes touchant la Justification* (1672). In 1675 he returned to the subject in his *Impiété de la Morale des Calvinistes*. Some years previous to this, A. had enjoyed the peace of Clement IX., which put a stop for the time to the Jansenist controversy. He had been presented to the papal nuncio and to the *Grand Monarque*, both of whom flattered him highly; but the Jesuits, who could not breathe freely in sence, used their utmost efforts to prejudic against him, and at last the king issued an o his arrest. A. hid himself for some time, but withdrew into Belgium. He felt his exile though honoured by many learned and inf persons, and could not rest in one city, bu dered from place to place, ever displaying t astonishing vigour of mind and the same pe tendency. It is strange that this man, wh celebrated amongst his friends for ex gentleness of heart, should have been so controversies, even with his friends, for he against his enemies only, but against Pascal, Nicole, his protector, Pope Innocent XI., and friend, Père Malebranche. So earnest was the truth—which earnestness had no doub greatly intensified by persecution and contro that he could never thoroughly realise the ide there might be truth on the other side als died at Brussels, 8th August 1694. His which amount to upwards of 100 volumes published at Paris, 1775-1783.

ARNAULD, ROBERT D'ANDILLY, the e of Antoine Arnauld, the advocate, and b the great Arnauld, was born at Paris in 1 was a person of considerable consequence French court, where his influence was ever e beneficially. Balzac spoke very highly of hi the age of fifty-five, he quitted the bustle world for the solitude of Port-Royal des C where he devoted himself to religious histo biography. His chief works are translation as those of the *Confessions of St Augustine*, the *History of the Jews*, by Josephus. The work is esteemed more elegant than accurat ever. In 1668, appeared his translation *Lives of the Holy Fathers of the Desert several Saints;* and in 1670, that of of St Theresa. He was likewise the a pieces of religious verse. He died 27 1674.

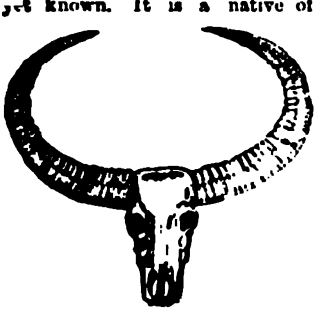
ARND, a German Protestant clergy Ballenstadt, in the duchy of Anhalt, in Lutheran pastor at Quedlinburg, Br elsewhere, and died at Celle, in Han As a man he was remarkable for his piety benevolence; but he is chiefly known for entitled *True Christianity* (Wahres Chr which was translated into most European and is yet popular in Germany. Its objec cation'—the promotion of practical religion is written with great warmth and unction strain of piety bordering on mysticism. It called the Protestant à Kempis, and its Fenelon of the Protestant Church. English translation by W. Jaques (Lond 2 vols.).

ARNDT, ERNST MORITZ, professor in versity of Bonn, and for half a centur the leading political writers of Germany, in the island of Rügen in 1769. He gave clerical profession, for which he was at first i and after travelling over great part of became, in 1806, Professor of History in Gr Here, among other writings, he published his *of Serfdom in Pomerania*, for which he w mally denounced and accused by several nobl his *Spirit of the Times* (Altenb. 1807), he Napoleon with such boldness, that, after the of Jena, he had to take refuge in Stoc Returning under a feigned name, he resum functions at Greifswalde in 1810; but w be imminent, he resigned the follow ...ors became an active co-operator w

…ts, in throwing off the foreign … fugitive writings, full of … contributed not a little to rouse and … of Germany for the war of libera… poems belong to this period, and have become national songs. (Leip. 1850.) His song, *What is the Fatherland?* is sung wherever German is … 1818 he was made professor of modern … the new university of Bonn, but became … 1819 in the prosecutions for what were demagogic movements,' and was suspended. … acquitted on trial, he was made to retire, … his salary. After twenty years' suspen… was restored in 1840. His writings are … we may mention his *Beschreibung und … der Schottland, Inseln*, &c. (Leip. 1826); … of … ive *Schriften an und fur seine …* Leip. 1845); and *Erinnerungen* … (3d'ed. Leip. 1842). He was … the German national assembly … from it along with the whole … party in 1849. He powerfully sup… party who advocated a constitutional … narchy, and took a prominent part in … of the Archduke John as regent, … deputation to Berlin to offer the … of Prussia. After the dissolution … Assembly, A. did not cease in his … to advocate the views of the German … He died 29th January 1860.

ARNE, Augustine, Doctor in Music, … and most genial of English com… born in London, 1710, and received … education at Eton. His father, who … olsterer, intended to educate him for … but the love of music was too strong … d. Young A. became skilful as a … forming his style chiefly on the … lli; and his zeal in the study of … his sister (afterwards celebrated as … to cultivate her excellent voice. He … a part in his first opera, *Rosamond*, … first performed with great success in … followed his comic operetta, *Tom … Opera of Operas;* and afterwards his … which displayed greater cultivation of … married a singer, Cecilia Young (1740); … successful visit to Ireland, was engaged … for Drury Lane Theatre, and wrote … pieces for the Vauxhall concerts. The … air, *Rule Britannia*, which was originally … performance, *The Masque of Alfred*, … osition. He composed also two … *Eliza*, and another, *Artaxerxes*, … style; but his genius was better … le pastoral melody than to great … sations. He died in London, 1778.

ARNA, the largest animal of the … yet known. It is a native of India,



Skull and Horns of Arnee.

and is found chiefly in the forests at the base of the Himalayas and in the north-eastern provinces, never descending to the low plains. It is usually regarded by naturalists as a wild variety of the buffalo; but Mr Vasey thinks 'our information on the subject not yet sufficiently precise

Arnee.
(From an Indian picture.)

to determine this point.' It is named *Bos Arnee*, as a distinct species, by some authors. A pair of horns in the British Museum measure more than six feet each along the outer curve. When the head of an A. is placed with the muzzle on the ground, it requires the outstretched arms of a man to hold the points of the horns. From the manner in which the A. is introduced in Indian paintings, it would seem to have been sometimes tamed.

A'RNHEIM, or ARNHEM, the Roman Arenacum, capital of the province of Guelderland, in Holland, with a population of 18,000, is situated on the right bank of the Rhine, which is here crossed by a bridge of boats; it has a considerable transit-trade between Amsterdam and Germany. The environs of this strongly fortified town are exceedingly picturesque. Its most remarkable buildings are the ancient residence of the Dukes of Guelderland, and the Reformed Dutch Church, which contains their monuments. There are several paper-mills in the neighbourhood. In 1813, A. was taken by storm by the Prussians, under General Bulow, and the way thus prepared for the occupation of Holland.

A'RNHEM LAND, that part of North Australia which lies between Anson Bay on the west and the Gulf of Carpentaria on the east, stretching in E. long. from about 129° to about 137°; in lat. it extends indefinitely southwards from about 12° S. It takes its name from the ship of the Dutch navigators who discovered it in 1618.

A'RNICA, a genus of plants belonging to the natural order *Compositæ*, sub-order *Corymbiferæ*. The flowers of the ray are female and ligulate, those of the disk hermaphrodite and tubular. The receptacle is naked; the pappus hairy. The root, leaves, and flowers of the Mountain A. (*A. montana*), sometimes called Mountain Tobacco, are much valued in medicine, and administered in various forms as a stimulant in paralytic affections, typhoid fevers, and other diseases. They are also applied with much benefit to bruises, to promote the reabsorption of extravasated blood. They contain a peculiar volatile oil, a resin, an extractive matter, and an alkaloid (*Arnicina*). The root is perennial and crooked, the stem about two feet high, simple or little branched, with few leaves, bearing on the summit a head of flowers of a dark golden yellow, often

two inches in breadth. It flowers from June to August, forms an ornament of mountain meadows

Arnica montana.

in Germany and Switzerland, and is found upon the continent as far south as Portugal, and as far north as Lapland, but is not a native of Britain.

ARNIM, ELIZABETH VON, better known as Bettina, wife of Ludwig Achim von Arnim (q. v.), was born in 1785 at Frankfort-on-the-Maine. From her childhood excitable and eccentric, an early and profound impression was made upon her mind by the suicide of her friend, the Canoness von Gunderode. The next great event of her life was her devoted attachment to, and intimacy with Goethe, at that time a man of nearly sixty. Their correspondence, entitled *Goethe's Letters to a Child*, was published in 1835, and translated by Bettina into English. Her letters are poetical, graceful, and fascinating, though often careless and extravagant, and abound in graphic sketches of men of the time. Goethe turned many of these letters into verse. Bettina's later works were semi-political in their character, and like her earlier, full of fantastic beauty. She lived to a good old age, dying in 1859.

ARNIM, KARL OTTO L[illegible] VON, a well-known writer of travels and other works, was born at Berlin 1779. After studying at Halle and Gottingen, he travelled at different times over the most of Europe, and was employed on the embassies at Stockholm and London. His *Flüchtige Bemerkungen* [illegible] *Reisen* (Passing Remarks by a Passing Traveller, 6 vols, Berl. 1807–1809), is recommended for its clear elegant style as contrasted with the inflated and involved writing of the 'Academic' school. A. also wrote in English *Napoleon's Conduct towards France*, Lond. 1814, and published *Germania Nunquid Moriture*, with German and English text, Lond. 1816. He was the author of a play and several poems. He died in 1831.

ARNIM, LUDWIG ACHIM VON, a fantastic but original German writer of romances, was born in Berlin, January 26, 1781. After devoting years to the study of the physical sciences, he his career as an imaginative author with *Revelations*, a romance which, though bas the principles of the new poetic school whic then risen in Germany, indicated, nevertheles the author could strike out a way of his own travels through Germany afforded him an tunity of catching the peculiarities of popular its various provincial manifestations. He was ally interested in the old popular poetry, and up among his countrymen a warmer sym by the publication, along with Clemens *The Boy's Wonderhorn* (Heidelberg, In 1809 appeared the *Winter Garden*, a coun novels; in 1810, the romance, entitled *The Riches, Guilt, and Repentance of the Countess L* in 1811, *Halle and Jerusalem, the Sports Student, and the Adventures of a Pilgrim*, in last his humour took a very saucy turn. In he published the *Crown Guardians*, a work ch terised by its originality, richness of fancy, vivid portraitures. The later years of his life spent partly in Berlin and partly at his estate Dahme, where he died, Jan. 21, 1831.

A'RNO, next to the Tiber the most consi river of Central Italy, rises on Mount Falter offset of the Apennines, at an elevation of 44 above the level of the sea, and 25 miles n Arezzo. It flows through the deep and fertile of Casentino, in a south-east direction; enter richly cultivated plain of Arezzo, where it re the water of the Chiana; then flows in a north and north course through the upper valley o A. (*Valdarno*), one of the most delicious Tuscany; afterwards it receives the Sieve, tributary, and turns its course towa flowing past Florence, Empoli, and town of Pisa. The whole length of about 140 miles. In old times the embo the A. was at Pisa; now it is about f miles distant, in lat. 43° 41′ N., and long. It is navigable for barges as far up as Flore in the summer season even this frequently be impossible. The Italian poets speak of A.;' but, in truth, its water have unpleasant colour of milk and co d The A. is noted for the rapid character of its inundations. The are those of September 1537, w the Valdarno was laid under wate the height of 8 feet in some parts of of 1740, the latter being caused by tinuance of the sirocco, which completely snows on the Apennines.

A'RNOLD, or **ARNALD**, of native of that town, and was the success with which he contended corruptions of the clergy in the the 12th c. He was educated in Abelard, and adopted the mendicant preaching, the people of his native place inveighed against their bishop and the and insurrectionary spirit spread over a part of the country, when he was cited before the Lateran Council, and banished from He returned to France, but experienced the enmity of St Bernard, who denounced him as an enemy to the church. He thereupon took up Zurich, where he settled for several years, while his doctrines exerted a power Rome, which ended in a general the city government, whereupon A. [illegible] endeavoured to lead and direct exhorted the people to

ancient Roman republic, with its consuls, , and equestrian order. But they, provoked herv and opposition of the papal party, d ng themselves, gave way to the . The city, indeed, continued for te of agitation and disorder. Lucius the populace in an insurrection in E III., to escape a similar fate, fled so violent struggles were subdued n IV., who, feeling the weakness of ority, turned to the spiritual, and extreme measure of laying the city unication, when A., whose party be- ged, and fell to pieces, took refuge with influential friends in Campania. On the of the emperor, Frederick I., for his corona- 1155, A. was arrested, brought to Rome, nged, his body burned, and the ashes into the Tiber.

OLD, JOHANN, a miller of Newmark, who the time of Frederick II. of Prussia, and to a remarkable legal process. He com- to the king that his landlord, by making had taken away water from the mill; that had therefore refused to pay rent for the mill, he held a lease; but had been condemned the unanimous decision of two legal The king took up the case, and regarding it pression of the poor, reversed the decisions m. dismissed his high-chancellor, impri- other officers of justice, and gave stitution should be made to the miller. he king died, and under Frederick was more coolly investigated, re that the condemned chancellor al persons were exonerated from all r, and the miller was recompensed ns of time and money.

OLD, MATTHEW, a living English poet, the of the late Dr Arnold of Rugby, was born ember 1822, and educated at Winchester by. In 1840 he was elected scholar of ollege, Oxford; in 1844 he obtained the prize; and in 1845 he was elected a Oriel College. In 1851 he was appointed r Majesty's Inspectors of British Schools. he was elected Professor of Poetry at and in 1859—1860 was sent to the con- y the English government as assistant to the ioners appointed to inquire into the state tion France, Germany, and Holland. In isited the continent to get informa- o the methods of secondary education re.

first known as a poet of classic taste nurity of imagination, but of late years clusively betaken himself to prose. tions in verse are *Poems* (1853), con- r fine pieces, *Sohrab and Rustum*, a scull, *Balder*, and *Merope* (1858), to naturalise in English literature the Greek drama; and *New Poems* (1867). e writings are growing numerous. The his lectures on *Translating Homer* (1861); rt on *Education in France, Germany, and* (1861); *A French Eton or Middle-class and the State* (1864); *Essays on Criticism Lectures on the Study of Celtic Literature Schools and Universities of the Continent* nd *Culture and Anarchy, an Essay in Poli- Criticism* (1869). Recently he has ublic by his piercing and audacious liter criticism to religion, and no his *St Paul and Protestantism* more his *Literature and Dogma* (1872), are meant to work a serious revolution in the national faith.

ARNOLD, THOMAS, D.D., head-master of Rugby School, and the author of a *History of Rome*, was born June 13, 1795, at West Cowes, in the Isle of Wight. In 1803 he was sent to Warminster School, in Wiltshire, but was removed in 1807 to the public school of Winchester, where he remained till 1811, when he was elected a scholar of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. In 1815 he was elected fellow of Oriel College, and he gained the chancellor's prize for the two university essays, Latin and English, for the years 1815 and 1817. As a boy, we are told he was shy and retired; as a youth, disputatious, and somewhat bold and unsettled in his opinions; but before he left Oriel, he had won the good opinion of a college which at that time boasted of such names as Copleston, Davison, Whately, Keble, Hawkins, and Hampden. He took deacon's orders in 1818, and the year after settled at Laleham, near Staines, where he occupied himself in preparing pupils for the university. In 1820 he married Mary, youngest daughter of the Rev. John Penrose, rector of Fledborough, in Nottinghamshire, and sister of one of his earliest school and college friends, Trevenen Penrose. About ten years were spent in this quiet and comparatively obscure life; he was preparing himself for the arduous post he afterwards occupied; he was maturing his opinions, and he had also already commenced his great literary undertaking, the *History of Rome*. It was a period which he himself was accustomed to look back upon with some feeling of regret. His letters at this epoch reveal to us a fine ambitious spirit bending cheerfully to the task of tuition, more useful than glorious; they also prove to us that those views of a religious and political character which afterwards distinguished him, were being matured in the privacy of Laleham. 'I have long had in my mind,' he thus writes to a Mr Blackstone, 'a work on Christian politics, or the application of the Gospel to the state of man as a citizen, in which the whole question of a religious establishment, and the education proper for Christian members of a Christian commonwealth, would naturally find a place. It would embrace also an historical sketch of the pretended conversion of the kingdoms of the world to the kingdom of Christ in the 4th and 5th centuries, which I look upon as one of the greatest *tours d'adresse* that Satan ever played. . . . . I mean that by inducing kings and nations to conform nominally to Christianity, and thus to get into their hands the direction of Christian society, he has in a great measure succeeded in keeping out the peculiar principles of that society from any extended sphere of operation, and insuring the ascendency of his own.' He here expresses, in a somewhat sportive and familiar manner, the great principle which he afterwards contended for with so much earnestness, that there should be a Christian laity, a Christian legislature, a Christian government; by which he did not mean a system of laws or government formed in the manner of the Puritans, out of texts of Scripture, rashly applied, but imbued with the *spirit* of the New Testament and of the teaching of Christ.

It was at Laleham also that A. first became acquainted with Niebuhr's *History of Rome*. This was an era in his life. It produced a revolution in his historical views, and his own *History of Rome* became modelled almost too faithfully on that of the great German.

From Laleham he was called to undertake the arduous duties of the head-mastership of Rugby School. On these he entered August 1828. Our space does not permit us to dwell upon the details of that system of public education which he perhaps

carried to its perfection. We can only take notice of the high tone, moral and religious, which he preserved amongst the boys. He had the tact to make himself both loved and feared. He guided with great dexterity the *public opinion of the school*. 'In the higher forms,' says his biographer, 'any attempt at further proof of an assertion was immediately checked. "If you say so, that is quite enough; of course I believe your word;" and there grew up in consequence a general feeling that it was a shame to tell A. a lie—he always believes one.' On one occasion, when he had been compelled to send away several boys, he said: 'It is *not* necessary that this should be a school of 300, or 100, or of 50 boys, but it *is* necessary that it should be a school of Christian gentlemen.'

But the school was very far from occupying the whole energies of A. The *History of Rome* went on; he took part in all the great questions of the day, political and theological. In politics he was a Whig, without being fettered—as we need hardly say—by the ties of party. In the theological discussions of the day, he was chiefly distinguished by the broad views he had adopted of the nature of a Christian church. As already intimated, it was his leading idea that a *Christian people* and a *Christian church* ought to be synonymous expressions. He would never tolerate that use of the word church which limited it to the clergy, or which implied in the clergy any peculiar sacredness, or any traces of mediatorial function. The *priest* was unknown to him in the Christian community; this placed him at once in antagonism to the High Church party; and even clergymen of the Low Church complained that he did not set sufficient value on their sacred order. But all men, of whatever party, admitted and admired the zeal with which he taught that the full spirit of Christianity should permeate the whole of our civil or political life. If he seemed to lower the altitude of the clergy, it was only because he would raise the general level of the laity. He was convinced that 'the founders of our present constitution in church and state did truly consider them to be identical, the Christian nation of England to be the church of England; the head of that nation to be, for that very reason, the head of the church.' It may be doubted whether this is quite historically correct; but it certainly presents a noble theory to the imagination.

In domestic life, Dr A. was most happy; here he was distinguished by unfailing cheerfulness and amiability. In 1832, he purchased Fox How, a small estate between Rydal and Ambleside, and it was in this charming retreat that he enjoyed in the vacations, amongst the family circle, his own uninterrupted studies. Fox How has become a classical spot to every tourist.

For a brief time he held a place in the senate of the London University; he resigned the seat on finding that he could not introduce some measures which he had at heart. In the year 1842, he received from Lord Melbourne the offer of the Regius Professorship of Modern History at Oxford. This appointment he accepted with peculiar gratification. He delivered some introductory lectures, which were heard with enthusiastic interest; and it was his intention, on his retirement from Rugby, to enter with zeal upon the duties of his professorship. But this and all other literary enterprises were cut short by a sudden and most painful death. The last vacation was at hand, the journey to Fox How was to be taken in a few days, when he was seized with a fatal attack of spasm of the heart. Few biographies end more abruptly or more mournfully; but the sufferer met his death with perfect fortitude and the full hope of a Christian. He died June 12, 1842. His principal works are *five volumes of sermons;* the *History of Rome* (3 vols.), broken off by his death at the end of the second Punic war; and an *edition of Thucydides*. His miscellaneous contributions to literature are too numerous to be mentioned.

ARNOTT, Neil, M.D., was born in 1788 at Arbroath, but his family-home was Dysart, near Montrose, Scotland. He was educated at the Grammar School of Aberdeen, and subsequently at Marischal College in the same city, where he had the advantage of studying natural philosophy under Professor Copland, one of the most successful expounders of mechanical science then living. A. made choice of medicine as a profession; and after going through the medical course at Aberdeen, he went to London in 1806, where he became the pupil of Sir Everard Home, surgeon of St George's Hospital. After spending some years in the naval service of the East India Company, he settled in 1811 as a medical practitioner in London. In addition to his extensive general practice, A. was appointed, in 1815, physician to the French embassy, and afterwards to the Spanish embassy. In 1836, Dr A. was appointed a member of the senate of the University of London, then established by government. He was afterwards elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and then of the Geological Society. In 1837, he was named a Physician Extraordinary to the Queen.

In 1823—1824, Dr A. was induced to deliver a course of lectures on natural philosophy in its applications to medicine. The substance of these lectures formed the basis of his *Elements of Physics, or Natural Philosophy, General and Medical*, published in 1827. Of numerous new applications of physical science to medical practice, and to the alleviation of human suffering in general, invented by Dr A., may be mentioned the Water-bed (q. v.). But it is in connection with improvements in the warming and ventilating of houses that the name of Dr A. is most extensively known. In 1838, he published a treatise on *Warming and Ventilating;* and in 1855, another *On the Smokeless Fireplace, Chimney-valves*, &c. The 'Arnott Stove' and 'Arnott Ventilator,' which, with characteristic philanthropy and disinterestedness, Dr A. refrained from patenting, are noticed under Warming and Ventilation. In 1861, he published *A Survey of Human Progress*, full of interesting and enlightened views on improvement generally. In 1864, appeared Part I. of the long-promised revision of the *Physics;* this was followed by Part II., which contains the subjects of Optics and Astronomy for the first time, and also an interesting supplement entitled *Arithmetic Simplified*. A.'s last publication was a small work on national education. He died in London, March 2, 1874. In the year 1859 he expressed a wish to a friend to make a contribution to Marischal College, Aberdeen, in aid of a course of lectures on natural philosophy, to be available to young men not regular students of the university. The union of the two Aberdeen Colleges interfered with the project; and a few years later he gave £1000 to the united university, to provide a scholarship in natural philosophy. This was followed by the same gift to each of the other three Scottish universities, and, for Aberdeen, a further gift of £500 to the Mechanics' Institution. In London, Mrs Arnott had already given £1000 to each of two colleges for young ladies, to constitute scholarships for natural philosophy. In 1872, Dr A. intimated through Dr Lyon Playfair that he meant to repeat his gift to the Scottish universities; but, in consequence of a fall, his faculties had

manently impaired, and he was no longer of continued thought or decision. An of cold in 1858 had permanently affected ing; but otherwise, his last years were char- d by his usual flow of spirits. A.'s genius itself in a very unusual combination of inven- ver with the art of popular exposition. His mind was strongly towards human improve- every department of thought and conduct.

TTO, ARNATTO, ANNOTTA, AN- , or ROUCOU, also known on the continent e by the name of ORLEAN, is a red colouring h is obtained in South America and the from the reddish pulp surrounding the Arnotto-tree (*Bixa orellana*) by wash- n, fermentation, and subsequent evapo- pears in commerce in cakes or balls of ht, wrapped up in leaves, externally lly of a pale blood-red or yellowish- which have a peculiar animal smell gent taste. Pure A. seldom appears in It is obtained by the mere rubbing off of the red pulpy pellicle which covers ; but that which is thus obtained is very d occurs in small round or angular lozenges. lians rub this colouring matter into the skin whole body, thus intending both to adorn es, and to obtain protection against the mosquitoes. Amongst us, A. is used in for colouring plasters, ointments, &c.; and siderable extent by farmers for giving a our to cheese. It is also used in dyeing, loes not produce a durable colour. It to impart an orange tint to simple It is an ingredient in some varnishes. It in alkalies, producing a brown solution, it is precipitated yellow by acids. It colour to water, but dissolves in and sugar of lead throw down a pitate from the alcoholic solution. America, A. is very extensively mixed date, not only for the sake of the colour, for the improvement of the flavour.—The belongs to the natural order FLACOURT- v.), and is distinguished by complete with simple stigma, a hispid calyx of five and a two-valved capsule. The A. shrub is a tropical America, but has been introduced warm countries. It grows to the height and has heart-shaped pointed leaves, wers of a peach-blossom colour, which clusters at the extremities of the capsules are oblong, and contain eloped in red pulp (the A.). The be cordial, astringent, and febri- ots are used in broth. They have the A. in an inferior degree.

, one of the three departments of ovince of Westphalia (q. v.), having quare miles, and a population (1871) th the exception of the valley of the nose department belongs to the high- Lower Rhine. Only in a few of the re good arable soil; on the other a great deal of good timber, more d of the whole area consisting of forests. rincipal resources of the district are its riches, in coal, iron, lead, silver, &c. water-power has also led to the of numerous factories, mills, &c. chief town of the department, is Ruhr, 44 miles south-east from p. 4500. It has several manufactures, n, broadcloth, potash, &c. In the the castle is still pointed out the spot where the famous Femgerichte (q. v.) of A. was held.

ARNSTADT, the chief town in the principality of Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen, is situated in a picturesque country on the banks of the Gera, twelve miles south of Erfurt, and has a pop. (1871) of 8603. It is one of the oldest Thuringian cities, its existence being traceable as far back as 704 A.D. Formerly it was the chief emporium for the trade in fruit and timber between the fertile lowlands and the Thuringian forest region, but is now a manufacturing town, employing a very considerable number of hands in weaving, glove-making, brewing, pottery, &c. A rich vein of rock-salt has been recently discovered in the neighbourhood of the town, and a new copper-mine opened.

AROMA, a term sometimes employed to designate those substances the extremely minute particles of which are supposed to affect the organ of smell so as to produce particular odours, and frequently as synonymous with *odour*. The particles diffused through the atmosphere, and affecting the olfactory nerves - if the theory of particles of matter so diffused be correct—must indeed be extremely minute, as odoriferous substances such as musk, the smell of which is felt at a considerable distance, continue to diffuse their odour, and according to this theory, these particles, for years, without sensible diminution of weight. See SMELLING. The term A. is usually employed only with reference to particular kinds of odours, not easily defined or distinguished in words. Thus, we speak of the *A.* of roast-meat, and of the *A.* or *aromatic* smell of hyssop, mint, and other plants. Aromatic smells are very characteristic of some natural orders of plants, as *Labiatæ* (Mint, &c.) and *Compositæ* (Milfoil, &c.). They have been very generally supposed to depend upon essential oils, but resins are often equally aromatic.

AROMATIC VINEGAR differs from ordinary vinegar (which is acetic acid diluted with water) in containing certain essential oils which impart an agreeable fragrance. It is generally prepared by adding the oils of cloves, lavender, rosemary, and *Acorus Calamus* (and sometimes camphor) to crystallisable acetic acid, or by distilling the acetate of copper in an earthen retort and receiver, and treating the liquid which passes over with the fragrant oils mentioned above. A. V. is a very pleasant and powerful perfume; it is very volatile, and when snuffed up by the nostrils, is a powerful excitant, and hence is serviceable in fainting, languor, headache, and nervous debility. A. V. is generally placed on a sponge in a smelling-bottle or in a *rinaigrette*; it can also be purchased as a liquid in phials; and a drop or two allowed to evaporate into a sick-room, overpowers, but does not destroy any unpleasant odour. The liquid must, however, be cautiously dealt with, as it is a very corrosive substance.

ARONIA. See CRATÆGUS.

AROOSTOOK, a river which, rising in the north of Maine, falls into the St John in New Brunswick, after a course of about 120 miles. It possesses a historical interest from its connection with the long-agitated question of the north-east boundary between British America and the United States.

ARPAD, the national hero of Hungary, was the son of Amos, the leader under whom the Magyars first gained a footing in Hungary. He was chosen duke on his father's death in 889, and by a course of incessant and mostly successful warfare with the Bulgarians, Wallachians, Moravians, &c., extended the first conquests of the Magyars on all sides. He also made more than one successful incursion into

Italy about 900, and returned laden with booty. He died in 907, leaving his son in possession of the supreme command. The A. dynasty became extinct in the male line with Andreas III. in 1301. A. yet lives in the popular songs of the country, and his history, even in the oldest chronicles, is mixed up with a deal of legendary matter.

ARPE'GGIO, in Music, a chord of which the notes are given, not contemporaneously, but in succession. From any one chord, several forms of A. may be produced. Bass-chords thus treated form an *Alberti Bass*, so named from Domenico Alberti (1730—1740), a popular singer and player, who often played the bass in this style.

ARPENT was the old French land-measure, corresponding to our acre. The name is from the ancient Gallic *aripennis*, which was identified by Columella with the Roman *actus*, or half *jugerum*. Almost every parish had an A. of its own. The comparative value of the three most in use will be seen in the following table:

	French Hectares.
Acre, English imperial or statute,	0·40466
Arpent, of Paris, ...	0·32400
" d'ordonnance, . . .	0·48400
" common, ...	0·40000

ARPI'NO, the *Arpinum* of the ancients, a town of Southern Italy, the birthplace of Cicero and Caius Marius, is situated in the province of Caserta, 65 miles north by east of Naples. It stands on the lower ridge of a lofty hill, some 6 miles to the left of the river Garigliano, the ancient Liris. The old town, in early Roman times, was built on the top of a steep rock, forming part of the territory of the Volscians. Many remains of the ancient structures are still to be seen, especially a cyclopean wall, which runs along the northern brow of the hill occupied by the present town, and extending to the ancient citadel. About the year 188 B.C., the citizens received the freedom of the city of Rome, with all its privileges, and Arpinum, during the later years of the republic, was a flourishing municipal town.

The population of A. is about 11,500. Manufactures of woollen cloth, parchment, paper, and leather are carried on. The town has a charming appearance from the highly picturesque character of the surrounding woods and mountains. Iron, white marble, variegated red marble, and marble of a yellowish colour, are got in mines and quarries in the neighbourhood.

A'RQUA, a village in the province of Padua, Venice, 12 miles south-west of Padua, in the heart of the Euganean Hills. Pop. 1200. Petrarch's furniture is still preserved in the house in which he died here (July 18, 1374), and his monument of red marble is to be seen in the churchyard.

A'RQUEBUS, or **HA'RQUEBUS**, was the first form of hand-gun which could fairly be compared with the modern musket. Those of earlier date were fired by applying a match by hand to the touch-hole; but about the time of the battle of Morat, in 1476, guns were used having a contrivance suggested by the trigger of the arbalest or cross-bow, by which the burning match could be applied with more quickness and certainty. Such a gun was the A. Many of the yeomen of the guard were armed with this weapon, on the first formation of that corps in 1485. The A. being fired from the chest, with the butt in a right line with the barrel, it was difficult to bring the eye down low enough to take good aim; but the Germans soon introduced an improvement by giving a hooked form to the butt, which elevated the barrel; and the A. then obtained the name of the *haquebut*. Soldiers armed with these two

Arquebusier.

of weapon were designated *arquebusiers* and *buttes*—the former were common in the army in the time of Richard III., the latter that of Henry VIII.

ARRACA'CHA (*Arracacha esculenta*), a plant of the natural order *Umbelliferæ*, a native of the elevated table-lands in the neighbourhood of Santa Fe de Bogota and Caraccas, and of regions of similar climate in other parts of tropical America. It is much cultivated in its native country for its roots, which are used as an esculent. The root divides into a number of parts, which resemble cows' horns or large carrots. When boiled, they are firm and tender, with a flavour not so strong as that of a parsnip. The plant is very like hemlock, and has a similar heavy smell. Humboldt, indeed, referred it to the genus *Conium* (Hemlock), but it has since been made the type of a new genus. The flowers are in compound umbels, and are of a dull purple. The A. was at one time very strongly recommended as a substitute for potatoes; it was introduced into Britain through the exertions of the Horticultural Society, and its cultivation persevered in for a time, but it has been found unsuitable for the climate of Britain and of other parts of Europe where it has been tried, perishing on the approach of the frosts of winter without having perfected its roots. The dry weather of summer is also unfavourable to it. The climate of the south of Europe is not that of its native regions more than any of the British Islands. It seems to require a moist temperature and constant moisture. In Australia, and probably some parts of the British colonies in India, the A. would be found a very valuable plant. On deep loose soils, it yields a great produce. It is generally propagated, like skirret, by offsets from the crown of the root. By rasping the roots and washing, a starch, similar to arrowroot, is obtained.—There is another species of the genus, *A. moschata*, a native of the same countries, of which is uneatable.

Arracacha.

ARRA'CK, RACK, or **RAKI**, is the Indian name for all sorts of distilled

nors, but chiefly to that procured from toddy or
e fermented juice of the cocoa and other palms,
d from rice. The palms in other tropical
untries furnish a fermented beverage similar to
e toddy of India, and in a few instances also it is
tilled, but arrack essentially belongs to India
d the adjacent countries. The cocoa-nut palm
coos nucifera) is a chief source of toddy or palm
. and is obtained from trees ranging from twelve
en years old, or in fact at the period
begin to shew the first indication of
After the flowering shoot or spadix
in its spathe is pretty well advanced, and
ar is about to open, the toddy-man climbs
e tree and cuts off the tip of the flower-shoot; he
ties a ligature round the stalk at the base of
e spadix, and with a small cudgel he beats the
wer-shoot and bruises it. This he does daily for
fortnight, and if the tree is in good condition, a
nsiderable quantity of a saccharine juice flows
om the cut apex of the flower-shoot, and is caught
a pot fixed conveniently for the purpose, and
ied every day. It flows freely for fifteen or
n days, and less freely day by day for another
r more; a slice has to be removed from the
he shoot very frequently. The juice rapidly
and in four days is usually sour: previous
is a favourite drink known in India by
natives as callu, and to the Europeans as toddy.
our, it is distilled and converted into
ter to the Hindus by the name of
and by the Cingalese as Pol or Nawasi. A
ar spirit is made pretty largely from the
nificent fan-leaved palm, *Borassus flabelliformis*,
also from the so-called date-sugar palm, *Areuga*
saccharifera. Large quantities of arrack are made
om fermented rice prepared as malt—both in
ndia, Ceylon, and Batavia; in the last-mentioned
lace, sugar and molasses are also added to the
ice.

It is probable that the use of arrack is more
idely diffused among the human race than the
roduce of the vine (wine and brandy) and of barley
whisky, beer). The date-palm of the Sahara, the
il-palm of West Africa, and the cocoa-nut palm of
Pacific Islands are made to yield it.

unscientific method of preparing these
lcoholic spirits renders them generally very dis-
steful to European taste, the process of rectifica-
ion being rarely if ever employed. Some care-
ully prepared samples of great age, however, find
avour, and are used in making punch and other
rinks, not only in India and Java, but small
uantities also find their way to Britain, for the
ratification of palates trained in India. The cocoa-
ut tree is especially valuable for this industry,
ecause it bears twelve times in the year after it
nce begins, and continues to do so for as much as
orty years. It is the rule, therefore, to pre-
ent undue exhaustion of so valuable a tree, to dis-
ontinue the collection of juice at intervals, and
llow the natural process of fruit-bearing to go on:
n this way, it is usual to divide the year between
he two crops. Of late years a considerable amount
f rum has been produced in the East Indies from
he sugar-cane, and the molasses yielded by it. This
s often called arrack by the natives, and leads to
rrors as to the statistics of the latter material.
The word Saki, used by the Japanese for rice spirit,
eems only an alteration of *Raki* or arrack. An imi-
ation A. is prepared by dissolving benzoic acid
n rum, in the proportion of 20 grains of the former
o 2 pounds of the latter.

ARRAGONITE, a mineral essentially consisting
f carbonate of lime, and so agreeing in chemical
omposition with calcareous spar (q. v.), but differing from it in the form of its crystals, of which the primary form is a rhombic prism with angles of 116° 16′ and 63° 44′, the secondary forms being generally prismatic and pyramidal. The effects of heat on them shews another difference, A. being reduced to powder by a heat in which calcareous spar remains unchanged. Such differences between minerals of the same chemical composition appeared very improbable, and when Stromeyer, in 1813, detected the presence of a little carbonate of strontia in A., they were immediately ascribed to this as their cause; but it has since been shewn not only that the quantity of strontia is very small, variable, and therefore to be regarded as accidental, but also that the differences between the two minerals may be accounted for by difference of temperature when crystallisation was taking place. A. appears to be the product of a crystallisation taking place at a higher temperature than that in which calcareous spar is produced; and accordingly it is frequent in volcanic districts and in the neighbourhood of hot springs, as at Carlsbad. It is frequently found in trap-rocks, as in Scotland. It derives its name from the province of Aragon in Spain. It sometimes occurs stalactitic. Its crystals are sometimes prisms shortened into tables, sometimes they are lengthened into needles. Twin crystals (*macles*) are very common. *Satin Spar* is a variety of it, in which the crystals are of a fine fibrous silky appearance, and combined together into a compact mass. *Flos ferri* (i. e., flower of iron) is a name given to a coralloidal variety which sometimes occurs in iron mines.

A'RRAH, a town in the district of Shahabad and the presidency of Bengal, in lat. 25° 31′ N., and long. 84° 43′ E. It is situated in a fertile country, and contains, according to the census of 1871, a pop. of 39,386. It is on the route between Dinapore and Ghazeepore, 25 miles W. of the former, and 75 E. of the latter. During the mutiny of 1857, A. became in variety and intensity of interest second only to Cawnpore, Delhi, and Lucknow, connected as it was with a heroic defence, a heavy disaster, and a brilliant victory. The defence was that of an isolated house, for eight days, against 3000 sepoys with 2 field-pieces, the garrison consisting of less than 20 whites, all civilians, and 50 Sikhs, whose fidelity perhaps was doubtful till proved by trial. The disaster was the nocturnal surprise in the jungle of a detachment almost entirely European, sent to the relief of the beleaguered dwelling—the loss having been 290 out of 415. The victory was won by a force of 172 men, 12 of them mounted volunteers, and 3 guns, over a host numbering nearly 20 to 1. In fact, A., happily with the exception of the cold-blooded massacre of women and children, presented, in miniature, nearly all the phases of the most formidable and eventful insurrection on record. For a detailed account of these events, see *Chambers's History of the Indian Revolt.*

ARRAIGN'MENT, in the practice of the criminal law in England, means calling a prisoner by his name to the bar of the court to answer the matter charged upon him in the indictment. And having the presumption of innocence in his favour, it is the law, and so laid down in the most ancient books, that, though charged upon an indictment of the highest nature, he is entitled to stand at the bar in the form and in the garb of a free man, without irons or any manner of shackles or bonds, unless there be evident danger of his escape, or of violence at his hands. When arraigned on the charge of treason or felony, the prisoner is called upon by name to hold up his hand, by which he is held to confess his identity with the person charged. This form, however, is not an essential part of the proceedings at

the trial, and it is sufficient for the prisoner, when arraigned, to confess his identity by verbal admission or otherwise. When thus duly arraigned, the indictment is distinctly read over to the accused in the English tongue, and he then either confesses the fact—that is, admits his guilt—or he puts himself upon his trial by a plea of *Not guilty*. Formerly, one of the incidents of the A. was the prisoner *standing mute*, as it was called—that is, refraining from, or refusing, a direct answer to the indictment; in which case the court proceeded to inquire whether the silence was of malice on the part of the prisoner, or was produced by the visitation of God, and to deal with him accordingly. But by the 7 and 8 Geo. IV. c. 28, s. 2, it is enacted that where a prisoner shall stand mute of malice, it shall be lawful for the court to order the proper officer to enter a plea of 'Not guilty,' on which the trial shall proceed, as if the plea had been actually pleaded by the prisoner himself. Where there is reason to doubt, however, that the prisoner standing mute is sane or not, a jury consisting of any twelve persons who may happen to be present is forthwith charged to inquire whether he has intellect enough to plead and to understand the course of the proceedings. If they find the affirmative, the plea of 'Not guilty' is entered, and the trial goes on; but if the negative, the insane person will be ordered by the court to be kept in strict custody during Her Majesty's pleasure, according to the 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 94, s. 2.

By 19 and 20 Vict. c. 16, facilities are provided for the trial of prisoners in the Central Criminal Court, although the offence may have been committed out of the jurisdiction of that tribunal, and it directs the A. to take place in the ordinary form.

In the Scotch criminal law, the expression *Calling the Diet* corresponds to A. The prisoner is called upon by name by the presiding judge to attend to the indictment against him, which is read aloud by the clerk, and the prisoner is then required to plead, which he does, as in England, by a plea of 'Guilty' or of 'Not guilty;' in the event of which latter, the trial proceeds—the prisoner, either by himself or his counsel, having always the last word before the court and before the jury. In this respect, it is only so in England in some cases.

According to Sir Matthew Hale, the term A. is derived from *arraisoner, ad rationem ponere*, to call to account or answer, which in ancient French law would be *ad-resoner*, or, abbreviated, *a-resner*. See TRIAL, INDICTMENT, INFORMATION, PROSECUTION, PLEA, VERDICT, NOT PROVEN.

A'RRAN, an island in the mouth of the Firth of Clyde, Scotland, about 5 miles south-west of Bute, 13 west of Ayrshire, and 4 east of Cantire, from which it is separated by Kilbrennan Sound. It is of an oval form, about 20 miles long and 12 broad; area, 165 sq. miles, about 15,000 acres, or a seventh part, being cultivated. Pop. (1871) 5234. The general aspect of A. is mountainous and heathy, and in the north, the jagged peaks are singularly grand. Around the coast is a low belt of ground, with lofty cliffs on the south and south-west shore, from which the country rises abruptly. The highest point is Goatfell (an English corruption for Goath-Bhein, 'Wind Mountain'), an obtuse pyramid, 2865 feet high, and a prominent feature in the island. From its sides slope the romantic glens of Rosa and Sannox, and at its base to the south-east opens Brodick Bay, at the head of which lay, until lately, Brodick village. The houses which composed it have now been removed, and a new village has sprung up on the opposite side of the bay, called Invercloy, where there is a spacious hotel. To the south of this, round a bluff headland, is Lamlash Bay, the chief harbour of A., and the best on the Firth of Clyde, sheltered by Holy Island, once the seat of a monastery. A picturesque mass of columnar basalt, 900 or 1000 feet high, succeeds. Further south lies Whiting Bay, near which are two cascades 100 and 50 feet high respectively. At the south-east point of A. is Kildonan Castle, opposite which is the small isle of Pladda, crowned by a light-house. Large caverns occur in the cliffs of the south and south-west coasts. In one of these, the 'King's Cave,' in the basaltic promontory of Druimodune, Robert the Bruce hid himself for some time. Shiskan Vale, opening into Druimodune Bay, is the most fertile part of A. Loch Ranza, a bay in the north end of A., runs a mile inland, and is a herring-fishing rendezvous. There is daily communication with A. by means of steam-boats from the Clyde, the ports touched at being Brodick and Lamlash.

The geology of A. is almost unique, and displays a greater succession of strata than any other part of the British Isles of equal extent. The south-east half of A. consists of Devonian sandstone, extending from the east coast 4 or 5 miles inland, and running south-west from Brodick beyond the centre of the island; and of trap rocks and carboniferous strata, which occupy the middle and western portions. The north-west half consists of a central granite nucleus, including Goatfell, bordered on the west by a tract of mica-slate, and on the north, east, and south by lower Silurian rocks, which, again, have a run of Devonian sandstone on the east and south. Lias and oolite lie on the mica-slate. There are only rivulets in A., and one of them tumbles over a precipice 300 feet high. Some level parts in the south half of A. are fertile. The chief crops are oats and potatoes. Cattle, sheep, fish, and oats are exported. The greater part of A. belongs to the Duke of Hamilton, whose seat is Brodick Castle. A. forms part of the county of Bute, and contains two parishes. Many antiquities occur, such as cairns, unhewn obelisks, monumental stones, and Druidical circles. Several stone coffins were found in a cairn 200 feet in circumference. Loch Ranza Castle, now in ruins, was formerly a residence of the Scottish kings.

A'RRAN, SOUTH ISLES OF. These are three small islands lying N.E. and S.W. across the entrance to Galway Bay, about 4 miles off the W. coast of Ireland, and 27 west of Galway city. They form the barony of A., and give the title of Earl to the Gore family. Total area, 11,287 acres. The principal or west island, Inishmore, is 7 miles long and 2 broad; Inishmaan, or 'Middle Isle,' comes next; and then Inishere to the S.E. Pop. in 1871, 3050, of which number 2122 inhabited Inishmore, 433 Inishmaan, and 495 Inishere. Of the total pop. all but 57 were Roman Catholics; 504 could read and write, 143 could read only, and the rest were illiterate. The islands consist of the carboniferous limestone of the bed of Galway Bay, and rise to the height of 100 to 200 feet on the west side, ending in cliffs facing the Atlantic. Most of the land is rudely cultivated. The chief crops are rye, oats, and potatoes. Most of the inhabitants engage in fishing; and the *corragh* or wicker-work skiff is still to be seen here. They are subject to famines from parching rainless west winds in August destroying the potato-crop. These islands contained at one time 20 churches and monasteries. Inishmore was the centre of these, still known as Aran-na-naomh, or 'Arran of the Saints.' Many pilgrims still visit the old shrines and relics scattered through the islands. St Kenanach Church, built in the 7th c., still exists, all but its stone roof, as well as the stone oratories and little bee-hive stone huts of the monks of the 6th and 7th centuries. There are nine circular cyclopean fortresses of unknown

stones (portions of the walls still being
posed to have been built in the 1st
or Belgæ. The largest of these,
ff in Inishmore, 220 feet high, is
ficent barbaric monuments in

GING, a term in Music which means
of a piece of music so as to be performed
nt or instruments different from those
s o nally composed, as when orches-
con ons are set for the piano-
An arrangement is often a
sition of the original, the only
ing the mechanical possibility of
this kind are most of the piano-
of the orchestral works of Mozart,
partly from the arranger working
ire, and partly from a mistaken reverence
of altering, the original. It is different
anger, who thoroughly comprehends the
a al, takes advantage of the peculiar
ssion afforded by the new form of
to reproduce as much as possible the
In this last respect, the arrange-
Liszt have excelled all others,
cases he may have overstepped
s propriety. See POT-POURRI and

(the ancient *Nemetacum*), a fortified
capital of the department of Pas-de-
was formerly of the province of Artois,
It is situated on the banks of the
lly on an eminence, and partly on a
nsists of four divisions—the city, upper
town, and citadel. It is a principal
French Northern Railway, distant
y this route 134 miles, and from Brus-
e pop. in 1872 was 21,447. The houses
stone, and in the lower town they are
built and uniform; the streets straight
t off with several fine squares, and many
iblic buildings. Among the principal
the Cathedral of Notre Dame, the resi-
prefect, the town-hall, the theatre, and
brary.
s a fortified town of the third class, its
being the first that were constructed
brated Vauban, according to his own
has been the seat of a bishop since 390
o ecclesiastical councils have been held
1025, the other in 1490.
market of A. is the most important in
France. Its principal manufactures are
oollen and cotton goods, hosiery, lace,
leather. Its trade, which is consider-
rn and flour, oil, wine and brandy, with
l products of the city.
s from the writings of Jerome that A.
able for its woollen manufactures in his
fterwards, during the middle ages, it was
its tapestry; indeed, the name of the
ansferred to this article of manufacture,
as the name given in England to the
d hangings that adorned the halls of the
barons.
with Artois was ceded by the states of
ds to Louis XI. of France; but the
aving revolted, the king laid siege to
rned it, and slew or expelled the people,
placed by others brought from all parts
ions, ordering the city to be thencefor-
Franchise, to obliterate the very name
n rs ds (1493) it was ceded to
of and was possessed by the
House of Hapsburg till 1640,
when Louis XIII. of France took it after a long siege.
By the treaty of the Pyrenees, it was finally ceded to
France. A. suffered much in the time of the first
French revolution, especially in the year 1793.
Robespierre, the Terrorist, was a native of the town.

ARRAYER, a title given to certain military
officers in England in the early part of the 15th c.
There were two of them in each county, sometimes
called Commissaries of Musters. Their duties were
set forth in an ordinance of Henry V., from the
terms of which it appears that the arrayers were
army inspectors, or, rather, militia inspectors, and
in some sense precursors to the modern lords-
lieutenant of counties.

ARREST is a legal term used both in criminal
and civil process. Criminal A. has already been
sufficiently considered under the word APPREHEND
(q. v.); and in civil procedure it may be simply
defined to be the execution of a judicial or preroga-
tive order, by which the liberty of the person may
be restrained, and obedience to the law compelled.
In the practice of the Court of Chancery, a defendant
may be arrested for his contempt in not putting in
his answer to a bill filed against him; and persons
in all the superior courts may be arrested or
attached for contempt. But in its ordinary legal
acceptation, A. is used to signify the enforcement
of the judgment or order of a court of law, in order
to satisfy justice. In the execution of such judg-
ment, the party against whom it has been given
may be arrested by means of a writ of *capias ad
satisfaciendum*, or a *ca. sa.*, the purpose of which
is to imprison the body of the debtor till he pays
the debt or damages and costs. It is directed to
the sheriff, commanding him to take the body of the
debtor, and have him at Westminster immediately
after execution thereof, to make the plaintiff satis-
faction for his demand. This writ might, at one
time, issue for a judgment debt of any amount;
but by very recent statutes it was provided
that it shall not issue in the case of a debt not
exceeding £50, exclusive of costs; subject, however,
to this proviso, that where such debt should appear
to the judge trying the cause (being a judge of the
superior courts, or a barrister or attorney) to have
been incurred under false pretences, or with a fraud-
ulent intent, or without a reasonable assurance of
being able to pay or discharge the same, it shall be
lawful for such judge to order the defendant to be
taken and detained in execution upon such judg-
ment, as if the act had not passed. This has since
been adopted as the general law applicable to debts
of any amount, and the abolition of imprisonment
for debt was effected by the Debtors Act, 32 and
33 Vict. c. 62. No person, after 1869, can be im-
prisoned in England for making default in payment
of a sum of money except in a few rare cases; such
as when a court has ordered a sum of money to be
paid, and it is not paid, and the debtor has since
acquired the means to pay it, but refuses. In such
cases, the judge may order the debtor to be com-
mitted to prison for six weeks or less until the
money is paid. So that under this statute of 1869
none can be imprisoned for debt except for some
special cause resembling fraud; and even then the
imprisonment is limited to one year.

A defendant may also be arrested under a writ of
capias ad respondendum, which issues as follows—
where a plaintiff swears by affidavit that he has a
cause of action against a defendant to the amount
of £50 or upwards, or has sustained damage to that
amount, and that there is reason for believing that
the defendant is about to quit the country, an order
is made by a judge—and such order may be made at
any time between the commencement of the action

and final judgment—when the writ in question issues, directing the sheriff to arrest the defendant, who remains in custody until he has given security in respect of the plaintiff's demand. But this imprisonment cannot exceed six months in any case. Formerly, a defendant might be arrested on what is called mesne process, that is, process issuing at the commencement and during the progress of a suit; but by recent statutes, such A. is abolished, excepting as above explained.

Under such and similar authority, A. may be made of the person. There are classes, however, who are exempted by privilege from A.—thus, ambassadors and other diplomatic representatives of foreign courts; all members of the peerage, Scotch and Irish as well as English; all members of parliament; all persons connected with a cause before a court of justice, and attending in the course of it, such as witnesses, attorneys, and barristers—although in regard to the latter (barristers), it may be more correctly stated that they are entitled to the privilege only when attending the *superior* courts; and Mr Archibold, in his Practice of the Common Law, refers to a case where a barrister was discharged who was arrested on circuit. The Queen may also, by her writ of protection, privilege any person in her service from A. during a year and day, a prerogative, however, which is seldom, and, at the present day, scarcely ever exercised. In regard to parliamentary exemption from liability to civil process, however, the privilege does not preclude the process from issuing, it only protects the *person* of the member himself; for by 10 Geo. III. c. 50, it is enacted that any action or suit may at any time be brought against any person entitled to privilege of parliament; and that no such process shall at any time be impeached or delayed by pretence of any such privilege, except that the person of a member of the House of Commons shall not thereby be subjected to any arrest or imprisonment. It is likewise provided by the Bankruptcy Act, 1869 (32 and 33 Vict. c. 71, s. 120), that if a person having privilege of parliament commits an act of bankruptcy, he may be dealt with as if he had no privilege. When he is adjudged a bankrupt, he will for one year following be deemed incapable of sitting in parliament unless he satisfy the creditors, and if he do not, then his seat becomes vacant. But now, as all persons, including peers, may be made bankrupt, none is liable to arrest unless he in some way thwart the proceedings in bankruptcy or abscond.

In the Scotch law, the word A. is not a technical term for process against the person. But see ARRESTMENT, and ARRESTMENT FOR FOUNDING JURISDICTION.

ARREST OF JUDGMENT, in the practice of the English common law courts, was an expedient after verdict on the part of an unsuccessful defendant, who endeavoured to get the judgment arrested or withheld, on the ground that there was some error which vitiated the proceedings; and if this objection succeeded, it was fatal, no amendment being allowed after trial. But as this rule was found to be productive of great inconvenience, expense, and often injustice, it has been considerably modified by the Common Law Procedure Act of 1852 (the 15 and 16 Vict. c. 76), under which, omitted facts or other matter may, by leave of the court, be suggested, by which the error may be corrected. See JUDGMENT.

ARRESTMENT, in the Scotch law, is the legal process or diligence, as it is called, by means of which a debtor, where the debt is of a personal nature, is prohibited from making payment or delivery to his creditor until another debt or claim due to the person making use of the arrestment by such creditor is secured or paid. Thus, if A owes £100 to B, but B, again, is indebted to C, arrestment may be used by C in the hands of A; the effect of which is to prevent A paying to B until C's claim has been satisfied. A, the party in whose hands the arrestment is laid, is called the arrestee; C, the user of the arrestment, is called the arrester; and B, the arrester's debtor, is called the common debtor. The arrestment, however, has not the effect of transferring the debt or subject arrested. For that purpose, a particular form of action, called *an action of furthcoming*, is necessary, decree in which operates as a complete transfer to the arrester. This process may be sued out either by authority of the Court of Session or by that of an inferior judge. The procedure is now regulated by the 1 and 2 Vict. c. 114, ss. from 16 to 22 inclusive.

The corresponding English term is ATTACHMENT OF DEBTS (q. v.).

ARRESTMENT FOR FOUNDING JURISDICTION. This is a form of proceeding in the practice of the Scotch law, and it is of an extremely important nature, for, by means of it, a foreigner, or one beyond the jurisdiction of the courts of Scotland, who happens to have any property in that country, may be sued in the Scotch tribunals. It is a personal remedy, and the mode of procedure is thus: The summons (or declaration, as it would be called in England), which is executed by [illegible] a copy in the proper office in Edinburgh, [illegible] in express terms a warrant to arrest *ad fundandum jurisdictionem;* and when served on the [illegible] having possession of the foreigner's property, [illegible] warrant has the effect of attaching it, so as to give the court jurisdiction over the foreigner himself. This manner of founding jurisdiction is said to [illegible] been borrowed by the Scotch from the [illegible] the Netherlands, and it can be traced [illegible] practice of the Scotch courts for [illegible] century. In a recent case, however, [illegible] by appeal to the House of Lords from Sc[illegible] attempt was made to shew, that for this [illegible] A. there was no sufficient authority in [illegible] that country, and it was represented to the [illegible] as a barbarous contrivance of comparatively introduction. But their lordships had no hes[illegible] in affirming the judgment of the Court of S[illegible] A like practice exists in London, called attachment, but is peculiar to the city.

ARRESTMENT OF WAGES is supp[illegible] exercise a baneful influence on some of the w[illegible] classes in Scotland, by putting th[illegible] greedy and oppressive dealers. [illegible] ledge of the power they thus p[illegible] give credit to working-people, [illegible] them in extravagance. It was the much complaint in Glasgow, that a inquiry was instituted into its operat[illegible] That inquiry developed a sad amount of gance and folly, but did not afford a hope mere alteration in the machinery of [illegible] remedy a deep-rooted social evil. features were found in the f[illegible] population, the younger of wl[illegible] avidity for fine clothes, were t[illegible] ful organisation of dealers, on wha[illegible] ticket system. It is not, however, arrest wages in summonses for small [illegible] under £12. Moreover, the wages of all and workpeople were declared by [illegible] Vict. c. 63, to be exempt from [illegible] except where there was a surpl[illegible] per week. In England, wages cannot be for debt except in one or two exceptio[illegible]

ATHERUM, a genus of Grasses, SOFT-GRASS) and *Avena* (see

OAT), and distinguished by a lax panicle, 2-flowered spikelets with two glumes, the lower floret having stamens only, and a long twisted awn above the base; the upper floret perfect, with a short straight bristle below the point.—The name A. is from the Greek *arrhen*, male, and *ather*, an awn. *A. avenaceum* (*Avena elatior* of Linnæus, also known as *Holcus avenaceus*) is a common grass in Britain. It is sometimes called OAT-LIKE GRASS, from the resemblance to the coarser kinds of oats in the general appearance of the panicle. In France, it is very much cultivated for fodder, and is often called FRENCH RYE-GRASS. It has, however, no affinity to the true Rye-grass (*Lolium*). It is a tall perennial grass, 2–3 feet high, becomes luxuriant early in the season, and continues long productive. It is, however, a rather coarse grass, and has a somewhat bitter saline taste; it is not so acceptable to cattle as many other grasses, and is therefore generally regarded by as unworthy of cultivation on it is found suitable for some situations, and to form a coarse in plantations.—A variety or ing from it in having a knotted to the stem, instead of a simple fibrous by some botanists *A. bulbosum*. It is in Britain, but is a very inferior grass, the character of its roots, difficult of on lands in which it appears as a weed.

rum:
a; b, root and
alm, reduced;
kelet, natural

US, FLAVIUS, a native of Nicomedia, in about 100 A.D. He became a disciple the Stoic philosopher, and, under his warm advocate of that system. On to the public the earliest products of his ed men of Athens were highly pleased nd honoured him with the freedom of had chosen Xenophon as his model of hence the Athenians called him phon. In 124 A.D. he was introHadrian in Greece, who conedom of the eternal city. He prefect of Cappadocia in the year Antoninus Pius, the successor of promoted to the consulship. But some four years afterwards, he appears to have retired from public life, and devoted himself to literature in his native place. As the pupil and friend of Epictetus, he edited the Manual of Ethics (*Encheiridion*) left by his master, and wrote the *Lectures of Epictetus*, in eight books, of which only four have been preserved—to be had in Schweighäuser's *Philosophiæ Epicteteæ Monumenta*, vol. iii. (Paris, 1827). He wrote also *The Conversations of Epictetus*, a work which has been lost, except a few fragments. The most important work by A. is the *Anabasis of Alexander*, or *History of the Campaigns of Alexander the Great*, which has come down to us entire, all but a gap in the 12th chapter of the 7th book. This book is our chief authority on the subject of which it treats, and is a work of great value. In close connection with it, A. wrote his *Indian History*, giving an account of the people of India. Other writings by A., his letter to Hadrian on *A Voyage round the Coasts of the Euxine Sea*, and another, *A Voyage round the Coasts of the Red Sea*, are valuable with regard to ancient geography. There is still another work by our author—a Treatise on the Chase (*Kynegeticos*)—in which, as well as in the *Anabasis*, he has imitated Xenophon.

A. was one of the best writers of his day. His works bear the marks of care, honesty, and correctness; and they were numerous, though several have not been handed down to our time. All that we are possessed of appear to have had translations into Latin. There is a good French translation of the *Anabasis* by Chaussard, with commentary, 3 vols. (1802), and also a good one of the *Lectures of Epictetus* by Thurot (1838). The best critical edition of A. is that by Müller (Paris, 1846).

ARRO'BA, a weight commonly used in Spain, Portugal, Brazil, and in the principal Spanish and Portuguese colonies. In the first of these countries, it is equivalent to the English quarter of a cwt., or 28 lbs.; it is nearly the same in Portugal, &c. In Spain, the A. is also a measure for wine, brandy, &c., and contains four of our quarts.

ARRONDISSEMENT (from the French *arrondir*, to make round), the subdivision of a French Department (q. v.).

ARROW. See BOW AND ARROW.

A'RROWHEAD (*Sagittaria*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Alismaceæ*, distinguished by unisexual flowers, having three herbaceous sepals and three coloured petals, numerous stamens, and numerous carpels, which are compressed, one-seeded, and on a globose receptacle. They are aquatic plants, natives of very different climates, from the tropics to the cold regions of the world.—The COMMON A. (*S. sagittifolia*) is a beautiful aquatic, a native of England, with arrow-shaped leaves which rise above the surface of the water. It is one of those plants which have enjoyed an undeserved reputation as cures for hydrophobia. The corms (or solid bulbs), dried and powdered, have sometimes been used for food, but have an acrid unpleasant taste.—The CHINESE A. (*S. Sinensis*) is a native of China, and has long been cultivated in that country and Japan for its eatable corms, which, in a fresh state, are somewhat acrid, but abound in starch. It has arrow-shaped acute leaves, and a branched polygonal scape (leafless stem). It is grown in ditches and ponds. It is one of the plants sometimes cultivated in tanks in the hot-houses of Britain.

ARROW-HEADED CHARACTERS. See CUNEIFORM.

ARROW-HEADS. See ELF-ARROW-HEADS.

A'RROW-ROOT is a variety of starch extracted from the roots of certain plants growing in tropical

countries. It is a fine starchy farina, much valued as a delicacy, and as an easily digestible food for children and invalids. It is obtained from the tuberous roots—or more correctly, the root-stocks (*rhizomes*)—of different species of the genus, *Maranta*, belonging to the natural order *Marantaceæ*, and characterised by solitary ovules, a fleshy style curved downwards, branching stems, and white flowers. The species chiefly yielding it is *M. arundinacea*, a native of tropical America, cultivated in the West India Islands, and growing about two feet high, with ovato-lanceolate somewhat hairy leaves, clusters of small flowers on 2-flowered stalks, and globular fruit about the size of currants. The roots (or rhizomes) contain a large proportion of farina. They are often more than a foot long, of the thickness of a finger, jointed, and almost white, covered with pretty large paper-like scales. They sometimes curve so that the points rise out of the earth, and form new plants. They are dug up when a year old, washed, carefully peeled, and reduced to a milky pulp. Mills for this purpose have been introduced; but in Jamaica the roots are usually reduced by beating in deep wooden mortars; in Bermuda, by means of a wheel-rasp. The pulp is then mixed with much water, cleared of fibres, by means of a sieve of coarse cloth or hair, and the starch is allowed to settle to the bottom. The water dissolves, and so removes the greater part of the albumen and salts, the starch

Arrow-root (*M. arundinacea*).
a, tubers; *b*, leaf and flowers; *c*, stamen and style.

quickly settling down as an insoluble powder. Successive washings are employed for further purification. The A. is finally dried in the sun or in drying-houses, great care being taken, by means of gauze, to exclude dust and insects. The careful peeling of the roots is of great importance, as the skin contains a resinous matter, which imparts a disagreeable flavour to A. with which it is allowed to mix. Great care is taken to preserve the A. from impurities; and the knives used in peeling the roots, and the shovels used in lifting the A., are made of German silver. The West Indian A., most esteemed in the market, is grown in Bermuda; the next, and almost equal to it, in Jamaica. The East Indian A. is not in general so highly valued, pe

because substitutes for the genuine A. quently receive that name. The *Maranta ar* is now, however, cultivated to some exten the East Indies and in Africa. *M. Indic* was supposed to be distinct from *M. arund* now regarded as a mere variety of it, with smooth leaves. It is cultivated both in Indies and in Jamaica. A. is obtained *M. Allouyia* and *M. nobilis* in the West I from *M. ramosissima* in the East.

The amount of fecula or starch presen roots of the *Maranta* varies according to runs from 8 per cent., in those of the you to 26 per cent. when full grown. The la is reached when the plant is 10 to 12 mo and the roots then present the following c in 100 parts:

Starch, fecula, or arrow-root,	. .
Woody fibre,	. . . . .
Albumen,	. . . . .
Gummy extract, volatile oil, and salts,	
Water,	. . . . .

A. is exported in tin cases, barrels, carefully closed up. It is a light, opaq powder, which, when rubbed between th produces a slight crackling noise, like th when newly fallen snow is being made ball. Through the microscope, the seen to be convex, more or less ellip obscurely triangular, and not very The dry farina is quite inodorous, solved in boiling water, it has a slight smell, and swells up into a very perf Potato-starch, with which it is often ad may be distinguished by the greater si particles, their coarser and more distinct ri their more glistening appearance. Refined s is used for adulteration, many of the pa which have a truncated extremity, and thei is irregular or tuberculated. A. is also s adulterated with rice-starch and with the starch of wheat-flour.

Not less than 400,000 lbs. of A. are imported into the British Isles. As an diet, it is often prepared for invalids and by merely dissolving it in boiling-water and ing with sugar, lemon-juice, wine, &c. It is a prepared with milk, made into puddings, &c most simply prepared, it forms a light mea however, is not very nutritious. See NUTRI

A farina somewhat similar to A., an known by the distinct name of *Tous-le* obtained from some species of the allie *Canna* (q. v.). But East Indian A. is obtained from the tubers of *Curcuma ang* Other species of *Curcuma* (see TURMERIC *Zerumbet*, *C. leucorhiza*, and *C. rubescens*, a a similar farina; the same tubers which, whe yield a beautiful and pure starch, yielding when old. In Travancore, this starch is a part of the food of the inhabitants. Th tubers of the Galangal (q. v.), (*Alpinia G* another plant of the same natural order (*Sci* are another source of this farina.—A fa what resembling A., and often sold under is obtained from different species of order *Cycadaceæ*, as from the dwarf f of *Zamia tenuis*, *Z. furfuracea*, and *Z. pum* West Indies, and from the large seeds of *D* in the lowlands of Mexico.—The starch Cassava, Manihot or Manioc (see MANIOC), times imported into Europe under Brazilian A. Potato-starch, care is sometimes sold as English A.; obtained from the roots of the *A*

...s Portland A. Otaheite A. is the starch ... v.) *pinnatifida*.—All these, as well as ... Chicago corn-flour—the starch of maize ...—are so nearly allied to true A. as not distinguishable by chemical tests; ... the granules differ, so that they can ... d by the microscope.

... A. is commonly said to have had its ... of the fresh roots by the South ... as an application to wounds to ... the effects of poisoned arrows; and the ... juice has been recently recommended as ... to poisons, and a cure for the stings and ...monous insects and reptiles. But it is not ... that the name is really another form of ... name.

...RO MOLINOS, a village in Estremadura, ... the scene of General Girard's com... re by Lord Hill on the 28th October ... Girard had been sent out by Soult ... foray with 5000 men, when he was ... on the morning by Lord Hill, who ... ague off at Alcuescar; the natives of ... the good sense not to betray the presence ...rers. With a couple of regiments, the ... the English general dashed through ... the enemy, who fled in all directions, ... everything, arms, packs, &c. 1300 ... taken; the whole artillery, colours, French historians (Thiers, &c.), how... t the battle was 'undecided,' and ... n only retreated in good order, ... of much larger forces.

...ISLANDS, a group belonging to the ... about 80 miles to the south of the ... New Guinea. S. lat. from 50' 20' to ..., from 134' 10' to 134' 45'. The largest ... is 70 miles long and 20 broad. The ..., many of them said to be Christians, are ... race of Malays and Melanesians or oriental ... British goods, to the annual value of £30,000, ...ted into Dobbo, a mart on the island of ... mostly by Dutch and Chinese merchants ... being chiefly pearls, mother of-pearl, and ... which abound on a coral-reef to the east. ... and formation, these islands appear to be ...stralian than East Indian. Pop. 13,000.

...CES, a name common to several Parthian ...sian kings. The accounts concerning ...ch have been transmitted to us by the ...rians are exceedingly vague, confused, ...ory; and modern criticism has found ... reconcile or simplify the conflicting ... The two most important members of ... of the Scythian Arsacidæ were A. I. ...

...s I., the founder of the Parthian monarchy, ...d in the 3d c. B.C., under the reign of ...Theos. An atrocious insult offered to ... Tiridates by Phereeles or Agathocles, ... rap of the country, is said to have ..., and driven him to rebel. The Mace... expelled, 256 B.C. Antiochus, embroiled ... with Egypt, could not immediately find ... attempt the recovery of this portion of ...ions. Seleucus, the son of Antiochus, ... unsuccessful expeditions against the insur... in the last of which he was taken ... A. I. now acquired regal power, built a ... Dara, on the mountain Zapaortenon, ... the internal resources of his new king... savoured to organise it; and, after the ... several countries, died at a great age. ...ost, is the account given by Posidonius, ...Arrian states that A. died after a reign of two years, and that his brother Tiridates succeeded him, under the name of A. II., and ruled for thirty-seven years, whence we may conclude that many of the acts attributed to the founder of the Parthian kingdom were the work of his successor.

ARSACES VI., or MITHRIDATES I., flourished about the middle of the 2d c. B.C. He enlarged the territories of the Parthians by the conquest of Bactria; and is even supposed to have penetrated into India, and subdued the nations between the Hydaspes and Indus. In the year 138 B.C., he defeated and took prisoner Demetrius Nicator, king of Syria, whom, however, he treated generously, bestowing on him his daughter in marriage. He was a just and merciful prince, and an enemy to luxury.

A'RSENAL is the name given to a great military or naval repository, where the munitions of war are to some extent manufactured, but more particularly stored until required for use. Every royal dockyard, every magazine, every armoury, is to some extent an A.; and therefore the meaning of the word is not quite definite. In France, the chief arsenals are at Cherbourg, Brest, and Toulon. In England, although Deptford is a considerable storehouse for naval clothing and provisions, and Weedon and the Tower great repositories for military stores, the only establishment vast enough to deserve the name of A. is at Woolwich. This is truly a remarkable and important place. In the spring of 1859, when war was raging in Italy between the French and Sardinians on one side, and the Austrians on the other, and when an uneasy feeling pervaded our own country, there were for a short time more than 10,000 men employed in Woolwich A. There were at that time nearly 12,000 pieces of iron ordnance in store, of which 7000 were of modern make and of heavy calibre. This store was supplementary to that which is always kept at the dockyards of Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Pembroke. There were resources at the A. for bringing forward, fitting, and issuing these reserve guns at the rate of 200 per week, or double this number on an emergency; and many hundreds were within a brief period shipped thence, to strengthen our forts in the Mediterranean, in the colonies, and around the coasts. All the shot and shell used down to the period of the Crimean war, were ordered of private makers; but the charge was so enormous during the early months of that war, that the government resolved to try the manufacture at Woolwich; this was done, with a very manifest saving of expense. It has been calculated that the A., when at full work, could produce large shot and shell with six times the rapidity with which those missiles were used by the British outside Sebastopol during the eleven months' siege. These observations do not apply to rifles or muskets; none of these weapons are made at Woolwich. There have been times, however, during the year 1859, when nearly a *hundred million* rifle-bullets were in store at the A. The Arsenal is divided into two great sections, of which the one is the depot for the storage of arms and all military equipments, whether for land or naval service; the other being occupied by the manufacturing departments. The latter comprise the gun factories, where all cannon are made; the carriage department, for gun-carriages and all means of transport; and the laboratory, whence come all cartridges, shot, shell, bullets, and warlike weapons.

A'RSENIC is the name applied in popular language to a well-known poisonous substance, Arsenious Acid (q. v.), but, strictly speaking, the

term is restricted to a metallic body which in part enters into the composition of the poison. The metal A. is rarely found free in nature, but in a state of combination it occurs largely (see ARSENICAL MINERALS). The metal is generally prepared from arsenious acid (AsO_3) by mixing it with its own weight of charcoal, placing the mixture in a well-covered crucible, and subjecting the whole to heat, when the metal set free by the charcoal rises, and condenses in the upper part or cover of the crucible. Metallic A. is very brittle, can easily be reduced to powder by hammering, or even pounding in a mortar; and when a freshly cut surface is examined, it presents a brilliant dark steel-gray lustre, which, however, readily tarnishes on exposure to the air. The metal, as such, is not considered poisonous, but when introduced into the animal system, it is there faintly

Native Arsenic.

acted upon by the juices, and in part dissolved, at the same time, exhibiting poisonous properties. When heated in the open air, it burns with a peculiar bluish flame, and emits a characteristic alliaceous odour. The only use to which the metal A. is applied in the arts is in the manufacture of leaden shot of the various sizes, when its presence in small quantity in the lead renders the latter much more brittle than it ordinarily is. Of all the compounds of A. the most important is the one already alluded to—namely, Arsenious Acid, which is an oxide of A. With sulphur, A. forms two important compounds: *Realgar* (AsS), a red, transparent, and brittle substance, which is employed in the manufacture of the signal-light called *White Indian Fire;* and *Orpiment* (AsS_3) or *King's Yellow*, a cheap pigment of a yellow colour. With hydrogen, A. forms arseniuretted hydrogen (AsH_3), a very poisonous gas, and one which has been fatal to several chemists.

ARSENICAL MINERALS occur chiefly in primitive rocks, and frequently associated with other metalliferous minerals.—*Native Arsenic*, although nowhere very abundant, is not unfrequently found in mines in Europe, Asia, and America, generally along with sulphur and metallic sulphurets. In Britain, it occurs at Tyndrum in Perthshire. It has usually a fine granular character. It is very seldom, if ever, quite pure, usually containing a little antimony and iron, and not unfrequently a very little silver or gold.—A very similar, and still rarer mineral, found in similar situations, is known as *Arsenic-antimony*, and consists of about two parts of metallic arsenic, and one of metallic antimony.—*Arsenic-silver*, or *Arsenical Silver*, is another very rare mineral, consisting chiefly of arsenic and iron, but containing also about 13 per cent. of silver and a little antimony.—*Arsenic-glance*, found at Marienberg in Saxony, and containing about 3 per cent. of bismuth, has the remarkable property of taking fire at the flame of a candle.—*Arsenious Acid* oc a few localities in Germany and F mineral species, has received the which perhaps too closely res designation of its salts.—*Arsenic Acid*, pound of arsenic and oxygen (AsO_5), co oxygen than arsenious acid, although itself occur native, is not unfrequent in compounds with copper and lead (*Arse* per and lead), which enter into the c number of minerals, none of them so be of any importance.—Among A. M. ranked the compounds of arsenic with ticularly *Orpiment* (q. v.), *Realgar* (q. v.) *phine*, a rarer mineral than the other tw fore less important.—But the most imp A. M., because of their use as ores of ar preparation of white arsenic, or arseni those in which arsenic is combined wit cobalt. One of these is *Arsenical Pyri pyrite*, found in various mines of the Europe, and containing arsenic, iron, and cobalt, in somewhat various pr arsenic, however, always the principal It generally occurs massive.—*Mispick* quently occurs in rhombic crystals, massive, differs from it in containing quantity of silver, so that it is used both arsenic and of silver. It is found in tin-mines of Cornwall, and is pretty different parts of the world.—*Nickelin* nickel and arsenic, and is used as an and also for the preparation of white *tine* and *Smaltine*—the former con sulphur, and arsenic; the latter, arsenic—are used for the preparation of for porcelain and stoneware. Both a Cornwall; they occur also in some of the continent of Europe, and in other world.—The presence of arsenic in a commonly be detected by the allia which it emits before the blow-pipe.

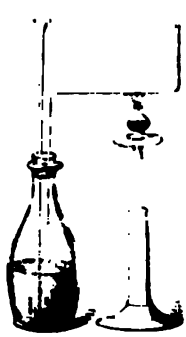
ARSENIOUS ACID is the arsenic most familiarly known. It is obtai during the roasting of the arsenica. Germany in furnaces communic When the arsenic of the ore burns condition of A. A. (AsO_3), and r the somewhat cool flue, is the grayish powder, known by the names *house Smoke, Flowers of Arsenic, Poi Rough A. A.* In this condition, the A taminated with some impurities, from w be separated by introducing the gray an egg-shaped vessel, and applying heat end, when the A. A. rises in vapour. in the cool end as a transparent substance. Ordinary A. A. of th what is popularly known as *arsen* crystalline powder, which feels decid like fine sand, when placed between and has no well-marked taste. It is so much so as at once to be notice paper or bottle containing it is lifted h It is soluble in water to the extent of A. A. in about 100 parts of cold water, of A. A. in about 10 parts of boiling ordinarily sold in quantities under 10 lb the A. A. is required by law to be co $\frac{1}{32}$ of its weight of indigo, or $\frac{1}{16}$ of soot; the object of the admixture any liquid to which the A. A. might a murderous intent, of a black or bluish and thus indicate the presence of somethi In packages of 10 lbs. and upwards, A. A to be sold in the pure white crystalline fo

When placed in a spoon, or other
heated, the A. A. volatilises, and con-
ls on any cool vessel held above.
it can be distinguished from ordinary
when heated, would char, and leave a
and from chalk, stucco, baking-soda,
and other white substances, which,
in the vessel as a non-volatile
when A. A. is placed on a
and exc ne vapours cautiously
strong alliaceous
of given off. The
A. comports itself, when thrown
likewise peculiar. Instead of at once
the water like sand, the A. A.,
great density (sp. gr. 3·70), par-
surface, as wheat-flour does; and
sinks in the water, rolls itself
pellets, which are wetted only on
contain much dry A. A. within.
A. A. in water is recognised by three

acid and hydrochloric acid
precipitate of sulphuret of arsenic
in ammonia.
sulphate of copper, an *apple-green*
enite of copper ($2CuO,AsO_3$).
ate of silver, a *yellow precipitate*
($2AgO,AsO_3$).
A. is used as a means of destroy-
but, happily, the processes for the
poison in organic mixtures and in
are so unerring and trustworthy,
dly within the range of possibility
can be destroyed by the administra-
without very decided evidence of the
poison being obtained on examina-
ns parts of the animal structure;
e safely said that there is no limit
n of the poison, as even after the
has been so far decomposed that
, yet still the poison, from its inde-
survives, and will indicate itself clearly,
ation of the several tests.

lation and recognition of A. A. in
such as the contents of a stomach,
y be followed. The method
, and that upon which greatest
placed, is called Reinsch's process,
of its discoverer. The manner of its
to treat the organic mixture with
ent to render it thin, then add hydro-
to the extent of one-eighth of the
liquid; apply heat, and when the
been raised to near the boiling-point,
in, newly burnished pieces of copper in
wire, gauze, or foil. If A. A. be present
a steel gray coating of metallic
on the surface of the copper. This
ng of the copper may take place
in the mixture, and may be pro-
salts of mercury, antimony, &c., as well as
compounds, and even occasionally by
m. To distinguish between the coating
A. A. and that produced by other sub-
copper is taken out of the mixture,
water, to remove acid; immersed in
ve off any adherent fatty matter;
folds of blotting-paper; introduced
end of a dry glass test-tube, and there
heated. The metallic arsenic (As) is
by the heat from the surface of the
in vapour into the upper portions of
there meets the oxygen of the air,
ich combines, forming A. A. (AsO_3), and
itself on the inner surface of the cool part of the tube in little glistening crystals. On allowing the tube to cool, adding water thereto, and applying heat, the water dissolves the crystals of A. A., yielding a solution, to separate portions of which the liquid tests mentioned above may be successfully applied. This process may likewise be employed in the detection of A. A. in animal tissue, as in the liver, spleen, kidneys, &c., by first dividing the animal matter into small pieces, and thereafter treating with water, hydrochloric acid, and copper. The precautions which require to be exercised in trying this process are, that the hydrochloric acid and copper are themselves free from A. A. Hydrochloric acid has long been known to be liable to contain at times a very sensible proportion of the poison, and it is therefore necessary, before using the acid in any experiment, to make a preliminary trial with dilute hydrochloric acid, into which, when heated, a piece of copper is immersed; and if no tarnishing occurs after a quarter of an hour's trial, the acid may be declared free from contamination with arsenical compounds. The liability of copper to contain arsenic some years ago (August 1859) assumed importance in connection with a trial for murder by slow poisoning with arsenic, which took place in Britain. In this case, a considerable amount of copper was dissolved during the testing, and supplied the poison in quantity enough to produce a faint coating on a piece of copper which was subsequently introduced into the liquid. The result was that A. A. was at first declared to be present in the material under examination; but further experiments demonstrated that the copper itself had afforded the arsenic. To free copper from any arsenic which it may contain originally, it is only necessary to heat the copper over a gas or spirit-lamp flame, when the arsenic volatilises, and leaves the copper uncontaminated therewith.

The other two processes for the detection of A. A. in organic mixtures are—1. That recommended by Marsh, in which the material is treated with dilute sulphuric acid and metallic zinc in



1. Marsh's process.

2. Berzelius's process.

a gas-generating apparatus, when the arsenic combining with hydrogen, forms arseniuretted hydrogen (AsH_3), from which, in the act of escaping, the metallic arsenic, and subsequently A. A., can be obtained; and 2. That known as Berzelius's process, in which dry arsenical compounds are mixed with a reducing flux, and heated in a constricted tube, when the metal arsenic is produced, which in its turn is converted into A. A. by heating in a wide test-tube. The processes of Marsh and Berzelius are not so generally followed as that of Reinsch; but in each and all it is absolutely

necessary, in order to avoid the possibility of mistake, (1) that metallic arsenic be obtained from the organic mixture; (2), that the metallic arsenic be converted into A. A.; and (3), that this A. A., treated with water, should yield a solution which will give the three liquid tests mentioned previously.

A. A. forms compounds (salts) with alkalies and other bases, which are called Arsenites. Some of these are employed in commerce and medicine. A. A., boiled with a solution of potash, or carbonate of potash, forms an arsenite of potash, used in medicine, and known as *Fowler's Solution*. The more largely used sheep-dipping mixtures are composed of A. A., soda, sulphur, and soap, which, when used, are dissolved in a large quantity of water, and thus constitute essentially dilute solutions of arsenite of soda. A compound of A. A. and the oxide of copper, called the arsenite of copper, or *Scheele's Green*, is a pigment largely used by painters as a pretty and cheap green paint. The same substance is extensively employed in the manufacture of common green paper-hangings for the walls of rooms; and recent inquiries would lead to the belief that rooms covered with paper coated with this green arsenite of copper, are detrimental to the health of human beings residing therein, from the readiness with which minute particles of the poisonous pigment are detached from the walls by the slightest friction, are diffused through the room, and ultimately pass into the animal system. Another green pigment is named *Schweinfurth Green*, and contains A. A., oxide of copper, and acetic acid, and is a double arsenite and acetate of copper.

Arsenic (Arsenious Acid), *Properties of, as a Drug*.—A. has long been used as a medicine. When taken into the stomach, it is soon absorbed into the blood, and circulates with that fluid, exhibiting great power over certain diseases, especially skin diseases, as psoriasis, lepra, eczema (q. v.), &c. It is also classed among the tonic minerals, and given for nervous disorders, especially those that are periodic. Of late it has been much recommended for rheumatism; and Dr Begbie, of Edinburgh, considers that among the remedies for chorea (St Vitus' dance) it holds the foremost place. In ague, also, and remittent fever, as well as in other disorders originating from the same source, A. and quinine are our chief remedies. They are considered to act as alteratives of the blood. The usual method of administering A. is in small doses (from three to five drops) of the liquor arsenicalis, largely diluted with water, twice or thrice in the day. Arsenic is sometimes given combined with iodine and mercury (Donovan's solution).

When given in the doses above mentioned, for eight or ten days, symptoms of poisoning begin to appear; the skin becomes hot, the pulse quick, the eyelids hot and itchy; the tongue has a silvery appearance; the throat is dry and sore, the gums swollen and tender; and if the treatment is persisted in, salivation ensues, and then come nausea, vomiting, diarrhœa, nervous depression, and faintness (Begbie). The quantity necessary to destroy life, of course, varies. Dr Christison records the case of a man who died in six days, after taking thirty grains of the powdered white A.; but a much smaller dose will prove fatal; a girl was killed with two grains and a half of A. contained in two ounces of fly-water. According to Dr Swaine Taylor, a medical witness is justified in stating, that under circumstances favourable for its operation the fatal dose for an adult is from *two* to *three grains*. Death from a poisonous dose of A. may occur in a few hours, or after the lapse of days. A woman, aged 56, used a solution of A. in water to cure the itch; she experienced severe suffering, and died after two years, having had symptoms of arsenical poiso time.

A. has been used frequently as a slow symptoms being attributed to inflamm bowels from natural causes. Fortunat cases its detection is easy. Orfila f the soil of cemeteries, a fact which has discussion among toxicologists. A. is u mists as an antiseptic, but is dangerous, to get into cuts on the hands, and und nails, and cause disagreeable symptoms. that in some countries, especially in S taken by the young female peasants their personal attractions; a statement ably amounts to this, that experience and other qualities induces some in prescribe for themselves a medicine w only to be administered by a skilful a hand. That A. can be taken habitua length of time, would seem a physiologi bility; and yet such statements are what appears to be unquestionable autl *Chambers's Journal*, Vol. V. p. 90, and also Johnston's *Chemistry of Common Li*

No effective chemical *antidote* for A. h discovered. In case of an overdose, or of poisoning, the following treatment is rec Evacuate the stomach by the stomach- lime-water; administer large draughts of and water, chalk and water, or lime-w the use of alkalies, but administer cl hydrated sesquioxide of iron; bleed fre tepid bath, and use narcotics. If the fata be averted, let the patient for a long t wholly on farinaceous food, milk, and c

ARSI'NOE, the daughter of Ptolem Egypt, and of Berenice, was born abou and married in her sixteenth year to the a achus, king of Thrace, whose eldest s cles, had already wedded Lysandra, the of A. Desirous of securing the thro own children, A. prevailed on her husb Agathocles to death; the consequence crime, however, were fatal to the Thracia for Lysandra, having fled with her Seleucus in Asia, managed to induce hi war against her unnatural father-in-law. was slain, and Seleucus seized the kingdo sought refuge in Macedonia, which, howev taken possession of by Seleucus; but on nation of the latter, after a few months, Ceraunus, the half-brother of A., she hypocritical offer of marriage from wanted to destroy her two sons, les prove formidable rivals to his ambitio sented to the union, and opened the town in which she had taken refuge, bu were butchered before her eyes. She t Egypt (279 B.C.), where she marrie brother, Ptolemy II. Philadelphus. tural unions subsequently became c the Greek kings of Egypt. It does n A. had any children by her brother, t regarded by him with the deepest aff named several cities, and also an entire her name. After her death, he ordered the architect, to build a temple to her m roof the edifice with loadstones, so th statue might seem to float in the air.

ARSIS AND THE'SIS (Gr. raising up down), a term in music applied to the falling of the hand in beating time. applied to the elevation and depression in speaking.

ARSON, or, as it is called in Scotland,

laws of all civilised countries, a
deepest atrocity; for it involves
not only destruction of property,
on of, or at least an indifference
of others, which can only be
the most wicked and malignant spirit.
al law of England, it is a felony, and has
ed as the malicious and wilful burning
or building of another man. It is
the offence that the house or building
ld be that of *another*; for although it
vour to destroy one's own house by
y in a town, or where other buildings
s, which are thereby put in danger,
ce does not amount to a felony, strictly
o constitute such felony, there must be
rning; for no intent, however clear,
at common law to support a charge of
ime is the subject of express statute
lation Act, 24 and 25 Vict. c. 97), the
which considerably modify and enlarge
s of the common law on the subject.
the enactments of this, the Malicious
Property Act, enacts that whoever shall
nd maliciously set fire to any dwelling
person being therein, shall be guilty
nd liable to penal servitude. Also
r shall unlawfully and maliciously
any church or chapel; or to any
religious worship of persons dis-
the United Church of England and
to any house, stable, coach-house, out-
house, office, shop, mill, malt-house,
n, or granary; or to any erection used in
any trade or manufacture, or any branch
ther in possession of the offender or any
—with intent, in the latter cases, to
defraud any person, shall be guilty of
he is liable to penal servitude for life,
han three years, or to imprisonment not
ro years. Doubts having arisen on
ct, whether its provisions extended
g fire to a hovel or shed not appendant
e, it was expressly provided, by the
that whoever should unlawfully and
et fire to any hovel, shed, or fold; or to
lding; or any building or erection used
nd—whether the same, or any of them
shall then be in the possession of the
he possession of any other person with
y to defraud any person, shall be guilty
nd he is liable to a like punishment.
at whoever shall unlawfully and mali-
e to any hay, straw, wood, or other vege-
, being in any farmhouse or farm-build-
y implement of husbandry, being in any
farm-building; with intent to set fire
ouse or farm-building, and to injure
y person - shall be liable to the same
s for setting fire to the farmhouse or
itself; and every male so offending,
shall be also liable, at the discretion
, in addition to any other sentence, to
Again, unlawfully and maliciously, by
, to attempt to set fire to any building,
er, or vegetable produce, of such kind
h intent that if the offence were com-
fender would be guilty of felony, and
l servitude for life (though such build-
er, or vegetable produce be not actually
s deemed felony; and is punishable with
de above three years; or imprisonment
, with the same addition in respect to
the offender be a male under sixteen.
if any person shall maliciously set
ftation or other building belonging to
any railway, dock, canal, or other navigation, he is guilty of felony; and he is liable to penal servitude for life, or any term not less than three years; or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years; and if any person maliciously set fire to any *goods* or *chattels* being in any building, the setting fire to which is made felony by act of parliament, he is guilty of felony; and he is liable to penal servitude for any term not exceeding 14 years, nor less than three years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years.

Servants convicted of negligently setting fire to houses and buildings, shall, by 14 Geo. III. c. 78, s. 84, forfeit £100, to be distributed among the sufferers, by the churchwardens, in such proportions as to such churchwardens shall seem just; and in case of default, shall be committed to jail or the house of correction for eighteen months, to be kept to hard labour.

It has been laid down in Scotland, that if the fire has been wilfully kindled, it matters not how circuitous may have been the mode of operation selected, although the injury intended to have been done was not the actual burning of the house, but some inferior mischief. And it is the law of both countries, that if the proprietor of a house set fire to it while in possession of a tenant holding under a lease, the crime of A. is completed; and in Scotland, the same has been ruled where the house was occupied by a party having a life-interest in it.

By the 29 Geo. III. c. 46, an act which applies to Scotland as well as England, it is enacted, that if any person shall maliciously and unlawfully set fire to, or in any wise destroy, any ship or vessel, whether the same be complete or in an unfinished state, or shall maliciously and unlawfully set fire to, cast away, or in anywise destroy any ship or vessel, with intent thereby to prejudice any owner or part owner of such ship or vessel, or of any goods on board the same, or any person that hath underwritten, or shall underwrite any policy of insurance upon such ship or vessel, or on the freight thereof, or upon any goods on board the same; every such offender shall suffer death as a felon.*

Both in England and Scotland, it is a considerable aggravation of the offence where the burning is to defraud insurers.

ART. The word A. is here meant as designating what is more specifically termed Fine A., being opposed to the useful arts, or the industrial operations for supplying the common necessities of life. Painting and Poetry are fine arts; Agriculture, Navigation, and Medicine are useful arts.

The great end of A. is to give pleasure, but the kind of pleasure is peculiar and circumscribed. There are many of our enjoyments that no artist would ever think of attempting to provide. The gratifications of eating and drinking, of exercise and repose, warmth and coolness, form a class in contrast with the pleasures of music, sculpture, or the drama. It is a matter of some nicety to draw the line between these two regions of our pleasurable susceptibility; indeed, it is not clear that a precise line can be drawn. Certain peculiarities can be assigned as disqualifying circumstances, such that any mode of pleasure labouring under them is debarred from entering into A.; but after we have allowed for these, there will remain a disputed border-land, on which no general criterion will hold.

The various indulgences called sensual are the

* The statute 29 Geo. III. c. 46, has not been repealed, though there are similar enactments in the English Malicious Injuries to Property Act, but omitting the punishment of death.

best examples of contrast to the pleasures of A. In the first place, as our frame is constituted, these bodily functions, while incidentally ministering to our pleasure, are in the main subservient to maintaining our existence, and being in the first instance guided for that special end, they do not necessarily rank among our gratifications as such; in the second place, they are connected with the production of what is repulsive and loathsome, which mars their purity as sources of pleasure; and in the third place, they are essentially confined in their influence to the single individual; for the sociability of the table is an element superadded. Now, a mode of pleasure subject to one or more of these three conditions may belong in an eminent degree to the list of utilities, and constitute an end of industry, but does not come under the class we are now considering. Wealth is disqualified by the third condition, inasmuch as, while in the shape of money, it is confined to some single proprietor. The same may be said of the pleasures of Power and Dignity. Even Affection is too exclusive to come under the artistic head. Anything so restricted in its sphere of action as to constitute individual property, and give occasion to envy and jealousy, is not a pleasure aimed at by the producer of Fine A.; for there do exist objects that can give us delight as their primary end, that have no disagreeable or revolting accompaniments, and whose enjoyment is not restricted to a single mind; all which considerations obviously elevate the rank of such objects in the scale of our enjoyments. The landscape, the glowing sunset, the song of the lark, the flowers of the field and the garden, yield unalloyed pleasure, and create no monopoly. The painter, sculptor, and musician aim at corresponding effects.

The eye and the ear are the chief avenues of artistic delight; the other senses are more or less in the monopolist interest. Moreover, one important feature in the somewhat capricious attribute termed *refinement*, attaches more particularly to the objects of these two senses; namely, the power of protracted enjoyment without fatigue. A *coarse* effect is one that is intense and pungent, but too exhausting to be kept up; such is a noisy clash of loud instruments in a musical performance, or a tale of overdone marvels. To remove all the fatiguing accompaniments, and thereby tone down the exciting influence, while retaining as much as possible the really pleasurable part, is to refine upon the effect, and produce a higher work of art. Now, in the sensations of taste and smell generally, the stimulus is apt to be of short duration; the pleasure is said to pall soon. Yet there are degrees in the case; some of the choicer odours can affect us for hours together with a gentle and pleasing sensation. But it is the ear, and perhaps still more the eye, that can remain open to agreeable stimulation for the greatest length of time; and taking this fact along with the unconsuming nature of their objects, we see good reasons for the artist striving so earnestly towards the gratification of those two senses.

The sensual elements can be brought into A. by being contemplated in the *idea*, in place of being enjoyed in the reality. A painter or poet may depict a feast to our minds, and impart a pleasure that differs essentially from the delights of eating and drinking. The imagined repast has nothing to do with our bodily necessities; the disagreeable accompaniments can be kept out of view; and any number of persons may share in the effect. So with the elements of wealth, power, dignity, and affection, which in their actuality want the liberal character of the true artistic delight; if we can only derive pleasure from the spectacle of them in the hands of the select number of their possessors, they become to us an enjoyment that can be shared by the general multitude, like the blue sky, or the towering peak. It is the fact that mankind find a charm in contemplating the wealthy, the powerful, the elevated, the illustrious, the beloved; and accordingly such elements are freely adopted into artistic compositions.

If all the sensual gratifications could become artistic by being contemplated in idea, or merely thought of, as in the above case of imagining a rich feast, we should have the means of distinctly circumscribing the select region of the beautiful or artistic, and of resolving a difficult problem. It would be admissible for the poet or painter to suggest any of these inferior pleasures to the mind by descriptive touches, and he would thereby elevate them into the region of art. But we find that every mode of sensual gratification is not open to this ideal presentation. Even as regards eating and drinking, exception is taken against the too free allusion to those pleasures; while the sensuality of love is hardly to be suggested through the most distant allusion. We may revel in tales of mere tender emotion—of parental love and of pure affection—but those other subjects are kept at the utmost distance; and we should be said to be revelling in sensuality, if we were merely to indulge in the imagination of those species of delight. There is no help, therefore, but to consider that there are *conventional* and arbitrary limitations of the sphere of the artist, rendering it quite impossible to draw any clear and universal boundary-line between the beautiful and the agreeable generally.

Sublimity, Beauty, Grace, Harmony, Melody, Pathos, Ideality, Picturesqueness, Proportion, Order, Fitness, Keeping, and the Ludicrous—though they do not all relate to the so-called *beautiful*, are all involved in the circle of pleasures now before us; and it is quite obvious that no one fact can run through this variety of designations. There must be a great multitude of agents operating to produce these different impressions, which are related to one another only by attaching in common to the esthetic class of compositions. Doubtless, several of these names may be employed to mean the same thing, being, in fact, partially synonymous terms; as Beauty and Grace—Proportion, Fitness, and Keeping; but hardly any two terms are synonymous throughout, and there are distinct conceptions implied in Sublimity, Beauty, Picturesqueness, Fitness, and the Ludicrous.

Among the elementary sensations and emotions of the human mind that are of a pleasurable kind, a certain number may enter at once into the composition of A.; such are the pleasures of sound and sight, the emotion of surprise, and plot-interest. Others may enter by ideal presentation; as the gratifications of the remaining senses, and the emotions of fear, tenderness, irascibility, power. The feelings more specific to A. are those produced by Harmony under its various aspects. When several sounds are harmoniously combined, we have the musical art; the painter has a similar aim in reference to colours and forms; and so through all the Fine Arts, this quality is found recurring as the crowning work of the artistic hand. Nothing is so indisputably included within the circle of the esthetical or beautiful as finely struck harmonies, melodies, or concords. Whatever else may be included in a composition, it is the admission of these that gives the specific charm, although it would be a mistake to dispense with other elements of interest common to art and to every-day life. Story is essential to Romance and Poetry; sweetness in the separate sounds is requisite for good Music; and colour in itself imparts aesthetic pleasure apart from harmonious union.

The agreeable effect designated by Fitness takes

the artistic pleasures; we may call it the
f the useful. When a work is not only
tually, but done with the appearance of
s total absence of restraint, difficulty, and
erience a delight quite different from
on growing out of the end attained.
pleasure of architectural support is
ource.

eptibilities touched by artistic
may be noticed the sense of Unity in
arising when a great number of things
t under a comprehensive design, as when
llars is crowned by a pediment. The use
res—the triangle, circle, square, &c.—
nd arranging a host of individuals, has
to make an easily apprehended whole
rous host of particulars. In all large
g in detail, we crave for some such
ive plan, whereby we may retain the total,
ying the parts. A building, an oratorio,
history, a dissertation, a speech, should
ermible principle of order throughout;
ment of which gives an artistic pleasure,
rks of pure utility.

ing for Variety and Novelty is a powerful
the human mind, and makes itself especi-
nt in the appreciation of works of A.
st works cease to please after a time, and
fashion may occasionally lord it over the
e taste.

ag at the Fine Arts individually, we may
n into two classes, by drawing a distinc-
e importance as regards the question of
standard. The one class contains the
or those which consist of mere out-
ard spontaneity, regulated by the
ay on the sense of the beholder or
is a good example. The spontan-
of the human voice, and those
by the various emotions, are corrected
by the ear into melody and harmony, and
rocess has been often repeated, pleasing
ostions are the result. It is the same
e, considered as a fine art. In like
gesture and display, and the graces
and fine address, are the natural
rendered pleasing by being changed and
r that express end. The first movements
andom, but the delicate sensibility of the
uses some to be suppressed, and others
t, until a really pleasing combination is
Contrasted with the purely effusive, are
l *imitative* arts, or those that involve
ion of some of the appearances of the
. Such are Painting, Sculpture, and
these, the artist, while still aiming at
ects, is trammelled with a new condition—
ertain amount of fidelity to his original.
re, there are no originals. The musician
thing, and is bound by the sole condition
ng the ear; but a painter chooses his
m nature, and although he must contrive
e pleasures of colour, outline, and group-
do so with a certain respect to the
. The poet, in depicting the life of
ler the rule of fidelity to this extent,
misrepresentation is apt to give a
ck, and mar the pleasure that would
be derived from the poetry itself. It is
ch that truth is a part of the artistic
e that falsehood is a stumbling-block in
or even the imitative arts are only so in
re is no imitation in the metre and
a song, and yet these often constitute the
m. So a certain licence of fantastic
allowed to poets, subject to no rules but
the giving of pleasure. The creation of imaginary worlds, when avowed, is not objected to; and the criterion of fidelity to the actual is accordingly laid aside for the time. The various arts of Decoration and Design are for the most part effusive, although occasionally imitative. Architecture is not in any way imitative; the coincidence between the Gothic roof and the interminglings foliage of a double row of trees, is a mere accident.

These observations are necessary in order to qualify the current maxim, that Nature is the artist's standard, and Truth his chief end; conditions that, in their strictness, apply only to science. It is the scientific man that should never deviate from nature, and should care for truth above every other consideration. The artist's standard is *feeling*, his end is refined pleasure; he may go to nature, but it is to select what chimes in with his feelings of artistic effect, and pass by the rest. He is not bound to adhere to nature even in her choicest displays; his own taste being the touchstone, he alters the originals at his will. The student of science, on the other hand, must embrace every fact with open arms. If a nauseous fungus or loathsome rat meet the eye of a naturalist, he is bound to record it as faithfully and minutely as he would dilate on the violet or the nightingale. When a painter adopts the human figure as a basis for setting forth harmonies of colour, beauties, and form, and picturesqueness of grouping, he ought not to jar our sense of consistency by a wide departure from the usual proportions of humanity. Still, we do not look for anatomical exactness; we know that the studies of an artist do not imply the knowledge of a professor of anatomy; but we expect the main features of the reality to be adhered to. In like manner, a poet is not great because he exhibits human nature with literal fidelity; to do that makes the reputation of a historian or mental philosopher. The poet works by his metres, his cadences, his touching similes, his graceful narrative, and his exaltation of reality into the region of ideality; and if in all this he avoids serious mistakes and gross exaggerations, he succeeds in his real vocation.

The attempt to reconcile the artistic with the true—art with nature—has given birth to a peculiar school, in whose productions a restraint is put upon the flights of pure imagination, and which claims the merit of informing the mind as to the realities of the world, while gratifying the various emotions of taste. Instead of the tales of Fairyland, the Arabian Nights, and the Romances of Chivalry, we have the modern novelist, with his pictures of living men and manners. In painting, we have natural scenery, buildings, men, and animals represented with scrupulous exactness. The sculptor and the painter exercise the vocation of producing portraits that shall hand down to future ages the precise lineaments of the men and women of their generation; hence, the study of nature has become an element in artistic education; and the artist often speaks as if the exhibition of truth were his leading purpose. It is probably this endeavour to subject the imagination more strictly to the conditions of truth and reality, that has caused the singular inversion whereby the definition of science is made the definition of art.

But while fidelity, in the imitative class of arts, is to be looked upon, in the first instance, as avoiding a stumbling-block rather than constituting a charm, there are still certain ways wherein we derive from it a sort of pleasure that may be called æsthetic. We feel drawn by fellow-feeling towards one who has attended to the same objects as ourselves, or who has seized and put into vivid prominence what

we have felt, without ever having expressed. The coincidence of mind with mind is always productive of the agreeable effect of mutual sympathy, and, in some circumstances, there is an additional effect of pleasing surprise. Thus, when an artist not merely produces in his picture those features of the original that strike every one, but includes all the minuter objects that escape the notice of the generality, we sympathise with his attention, we admire his powers of observation, and become, as it were, his pupils, in extending our study and knowledge of nature and life. We feel a pungent surprise at discovering, for the first time, what has been long before our eyes; and so the minute school of artists labour at this species of effects. Moreover, we are brought forward as judges of the execution of a distinct purpose; we have to see whether he that is bent on imitation does his work well or ill; and if our verdict is favourable, our admiration is excited accordingly. There is, too, a certain exciting effect in the reproduction of some appearance in a foreign material, as when a plain surface is made to yield the impression of solid effect, and canvas or stone imitates living humanity. Finally, the sentiment of reality and truth, as opposed to fiction or falsehood, appealing to our practical urgencies, disposes us to assign a value to every work in which truth is strongly aimed at, and to derive an additional satisfaction when fidelity of rendering is induced upon the charms peculiar to A. Thus imitation—which, properly speaking, is a mere accident attaching to Sculpture, Painting, and Poetry, and has no place in Music or Architecture—may become the centre of a small group of agreeable or acceptable effects. These effects are the more prized, that we have been surfeited with the purely æsthetic ideals. We turn refreshed from the middle-age romance to the graphic novel of our own time.

Besides being a source of pleasure, art is frequently spoken of as having an elevating and refining influence on the mind and character; for which reason it is considered a proper object of public encouragement in civilised communities. This circumstance is owing to the higher nature of artistic pleasure as above described, the taste for which helps to rescue mankind from the exclusive dominion of sensual and selfish enjoyments. At the same time, we must admit that the devotion to art may be itself excessive, and have the effect of withdrawing men too much from the urgency of practical life, rendering them a prey to political despotism, as well as indifferent to moral principle. Instances are not wanting to justify this remark.

See Dugald Stewart's *Philosophical Essays*, Part II., and Bain on the *Emotions and the Will*, p. 247.

ART, HISTORY OF. The history of the origin and development, growth and decline of beautiful artistic forms, constitutes a portion of the history of civilisation. As regards each particular people, the history of their efforts to conceive and express absolute perfection, or what is commonly called ideal beauty, in form and colour, is, with the single exception of the history of their speculative opinions, the most reliable test of the stage of progress which they have attained. Nor is it as an indication of their command over physical nature, of the abundance of their external resources, or even of their intellectual activity alone, that the history of the art of a people is thus important. It determines their moral, and even, in a certain sense, their religious position, for the inseparable connection between the beautiful and the good is in no way more clearly manifested than in the fact, that the first inroads of demoralisation and social disorder are invariably indicated by a diminution in the strength and purity of artistic forms. It has been usual to include under the term history of art merely the history of the arts of form, including architecture, but excluding, of course, poetry and music, though these latter, again, are generally included when we speak of the fine arts. See ART.

The classical nations of antiquity were not insensible to the importance of tracing the development of that rich artistical life which they had originated, and we accordingly find the germs of artistic history in Pliny, Quintilian, Pausanias, and others. In the middle ages, every trace of a general historical treatment of art disappears, though casual remarks and incidental notices on the subject of artists and the arts are abundant, particularly in such works as the *Liber Pontificalis* of Abbot Anastasius (q.v.), who is commonly known as 'the Librarian,' in consequence of his having filled that office at the Vatican in the 9th c. But a history of art, in the sense which we have here assigned to the term, made its appearance in the world for the first time on the revival of letters, in the 15th and 16th centuries; when the artistic treasures of the heathen world, which had come upon mankind as novelties, fell to be contrasted with that peculiar type which art had assumed under Christian influences during the middle ages, on the one hand (see BYZANTINE ART), and on the other with that rich harvest of fresh invention which ripened during the long lives of Leonardo da Vinci (q. v.) and Michael Angelo (q. v.), in the period of which Raphael's (q. v.) short career may be regarded as the noon-day. Whilst Vasari (q. v.) traced the great epochs of Italian art, from a biographical point of view only it is true, in his celebrated work; the students of classical literature collected such expressions of opinion on artistic subjects as the writings of the ancients contained, and Palladio, Ligorio, Vignola, and others measured ancient buildings and their constituent members. In this way a vast mass of information on artistic subjects was brought together. But though the materials which might have served for a history of art were thus supplied, it was a long time afterwards before anything like proper historical treatment arose; and the knowledge of ancient art which had been gained, was applied to their respective purposes by artists on the one hand and philologists on the other. As regarded modern art, the biographical method of Vasari was adhered to, and to this circumstance we are indebted for the innumerable artistic anecdotes which have been preserved. The remarkable variations in style which exhibited themselves between the 16th and 18th centuries, gave rise to a species of historical treatment which had for its object the discovery of the common features by which the artists of the respective periods were distinguished. But the history of style, strictly speaking, begins with Winckelmann (q. v.), who was the first to divide ancient art into epochs and to trace its connection with the general history of human progress. It was from this period that the history of art came to be regarded as a branch of the history of civilisation. Even where the biographical method continued to be followed, it was henceforth with this difference that the division into schools took the place of mere chronological arrangement. The strongly classical tendency which exhibited itself towards the end of last century, and the romantic reaction and consequent admiration for the middle age which succeeded, though both must be regarded as one-sided influences, had an unquestionable effect in calling attention to what was really great in the artistic productions of their respective periods; and during the present century, the history of art has gradually assumed a more important place as a department of general history. It was only in very recent times, however, that a complete artistic history appeared in Kugler's *Handbook of the History of Art*, which has been partially

…d into English, and edited by Sir Charles East-
… original work, which is very excellent, the
… s of material which the subject offered
… d in periods, and treated in such a
… sent a sketch which is complete in
… at the same time its connection with
… s on general history, social, political,
…gious, &c., are carefully indicated throughout.
… s of Kugler's history, that of Schnaase falls
… stioned—a work less directed towards
…ces of narration than to a philosophical
historical account of the origin of the various
… and their connection with each other. Kin-
…history of Christian art has unhappily remained
…te. Waagen's works on art and artists in
… France, and the other countries by which
… is surrounded, are the best artistic hand-
… the traveller. Those which have reference
… d have been translated. There are many
… rical works of importance on special
… and separate schools of art, monographs
like, but, with the exception of Stirling's
…f the Artists of Spain, and *Velasquez and*
…, very few belong to our own literature.

EXHIBITIONS. Public displays of the
… ving artists, with the view of affording
… n and instruction to the community on
…nd, and on the other, of procuring pur-
…r the works exhibited, have taken place
the principal towns of Europe, for more
… entury and a half. Though sometimes
… l with Art Unions (q. v.), A. E. are in
…uch older institutions. Still, as the off-
… a necessity which did not exist in earlier
they are essentially modern. So long as
…ere chiefly patronised either by the church,
… respective governments, or by individ-
… sovereign rank, their works were placed
… churches, in public buildings, or in palaces,
… were thus continually exhibited to the public;
…hen private patronage came to be their chief
…t, and their works, if sold at all, were certain
… l in private houses, the necessity for
… gements by which they could be dis-
… …re public either before they were disposed
… rwards with the consent of their owners,
…pparent. We have mentioned under Art
that, till aided by these latter institutions,
… the most part did not succeed in effecting
…objects which their promoters had in view. The
…first collective art exhibition was probably that
…the members of the Academy of the Fine Arts
…Rome: anything of the kind which had pre-
… d being confined to the works of
… artist and his pupils, enriched per-
… a few contributions from his friends.
… of this earlier character probably
… these Roman exhibitions; and the first
…ition, in the sense in which we now under-
…, seems to have been that of the French
…y in 1673. From 1745, down to the period
Revolution, this exhibition, which from its
…ncement had been confined to the works of
… of the Academy, took place biennially.
…volution it was thrown open to foreign
… in 1796 it was again made annual. An
… was attempted in England in 1760, but
…not till 1769 that the regular exhibitions
Royal Academy commenced. They have
…ne on, not only without interruption, but
…easing energy. The number of works
… in 1760 was only 130, the number of
… being 69; in that of 1859 there were
… by 918 artists. The annual revenue
…Academy derives from the fee of one
… by each visitor has also been steadily
increasing. The exhibition of the Scottish Academy, which is the second in importance in this country, has existed since 1826. To the first exhibition, 178 works were sent by 27 contributors; the exhibition of 1873 consisted of 1144 works, which were contributed by 462 artists. The annual revenue of the Scottish Academy derived from this source exceeds £2500. The only other exhibition of the same class in the United Kingdom is that of Dublin, which is supported by an annual grant from government – the exhibitions of London and Edinburgh being merely furnished with rooms erected at government expense. Several private societies in London and the provinces, however, have exhibitions for similar objects, and conducted on similar principles. Of these we may mention the British Institution, the Society of British Artists, the National Institution, the Society of Painters in Water-colours, and its rival, the New Society of Painters in Water-colours. There are also exhibitions in several of the large provincial towns, such as Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, &c. On the continent, wherever an academy of art exists, there is now an exhibition, which takes place for the most part annually, but sometimes biennially. In New York there is a permanent exhibition of the works of Düsseldorf artists; and from thence they are frequently carried for exhibition to the provincial towns of the Union.

The London Exhibition of 1851, commonly known as the *Great Exhibition*, was not only on a larger scale, but introduced new features into these displays. Though confined to industrial objects and works of plastic art, it gave an impulse to A. E. strictly so called, which shewed itself almost simultaneously in the great international artistic exhibition of Brussels; and even those exhibitions which have been formed more closely on its model – those of Dublin in 1853, and of New York in the same year, of London in 1862, Paris 1867, and Vienna 1873 – have all included the fine arts. See EXHIBITIONS.

ART UNIONS. These institutions, which have for their object the promotion of a livelier interest in, and more liberal patronage of, the fine arts on the part of the general public, have gone far in modern times to supply the place of that encouragement which, at an earlier period, they received from princes and prelates.

The origin of A. U., though claimed by the Germans, seems really to belong to the French, and to be traceable to the stirring days of the first Napoleon. From France they passed over into Belgium, where they at once took root, and established themselves even in the less important towns, ten years before they were introduced into Germany. The Art Union of Malines dates from 1812, which is eleven years anterior to that of Munich. But it was in Germany that the importance of the results which A. U. were capable of producing first became apparent, and it was from Germany that they were carried into England. The Art Union (*Kunstverein*) of Munich was established in 1823, and became the model of most of those which afterwards arose. The example of Munich was speedily followed (at the suggestion, we believe, of no less distinguished a personage than Alexander von Humboldt) by Berlin, and shortly thereafter by Dresden, Leipsic, Breslau, Halberstadt, &c.; and in less than ten years there were few of the larger towns of Germany in which A. U. were not to be found. But the most important of all the A. U. of Germany is that which was established at Düsseldorf in 1829, for the Rhine provinces and Westphalia. The Düsseldorf Association has aimed at higher objects than A. U. have usually had in view, either in Germany or in England, and has been instrumental in promoting the execution of monumental works of art of the highest

class. In the space of twenty years from its institution (1849), it had expended on works of art what in Germany was regarded as the enormous sum of 268,000 thalers, equivalent to about £40,200 sterling; and had been the means of placing 24 altar-pieces in churches, eleven paintings on a large scale in public buildings, of which the frescoes in the council chambers at Elberfeld and at Aix-la-Chapelle may be mentioned as examples. The Association of Düsseldorf also publishes an artistic periodical (*Correspondenzblatt*). Other associations have imitated, not without success, the Association of Düsseldorf in directing their attention to the promotion of great works. The Bohemian Association at Prague has been peculiarly meritorious in this respect; and those of Berlin and of Cologne deserve the highest commendation for the zeal with which the first promoted the erection of Kiss's magnificent group of the Amazon on the steps of the Museum at Berlin, and the second urged on the completion of what already, in its half-finished condition, is one of the greatest architectural monuments of Northern Europe—the cathedral of Cologne. The establishment of permanent galleries of art in the cities to which they respectively belong, is also regarded in Germany as one of the higher objects of A. U.; and in this they have been recently followed in this country, as, for example, in Edinburgh. In Munich there is already a very noble collection of modern works of art, which have been brought together in this manner; and another of the same description is in course of formation in Berlin. Association galleries also exist in Dresden, Leipsic, Breslau, Stettin, &c. Groups of associations have also been formed in Germany for the promotion and encouragement of extensive works. The western group, or cycle, as it is called, includes Hanover, Halberstadt, Magdeburg, Halle, Gotha, Brunswick, and Cassel; the eastern, Danzig, Königsburg, Stettin, &c. This arrangement, by which the influence of these associations on the highest class of art must be vastly augmented, seems worthy of imitation in this country.

Scotland, as is not unusual where the suggestion comes from a continental source, preceded England in the establishment of A. U.; the first that was formed in Britain being that of Edinburgh in 1834. The cause of its introduction was not so much the hope of bettering the condition, as the necessity of preventing the utter extinction of everything beyond mere imitative art. Portrait-painting continued to furnish the means of living to those who practised it with success; and those who represented familiar occupations or popular customs, obtained a more limited encouragement; but it was found that precisely as the artist rose in the scale of artistic endeavour, and tended in the direction of ideal art, the sympathy and interest of his countrymen, and consequently his own remuneration, declined. The Royal Academy of London, and the academies which had been formed after the same model in Edinburgh and in Dublin, notwithstanding the annual exhibitions which they had instituted, had entirely failed to remove this evil. Private purchasers were not to be found; and in Edinburgh it was calculated that never more than £300, and sometimes as little as £35, were expended in the purchase of pictures exhibited by the Academy, and even these insignificant sums were usually paid for pictures of the very lowest class. Elsewhere, matters were even worse. Mr Cash, a witness examined before the select committee of the House of Commons on A. U. in 1845, stated that previous to the establishment of the art union in Dublin, 'in four years, during the exhibition of the works of the Royal Hibernian Academy, 30*s.* only were expended on the patronage of art.' 'Thirty shillings annually?' asked the chairman. 'No,' replied the witness; 'thirty shillings was the entire sum expended in the four years.' The success of the Scottish Association was immediate; and to its founders the public are in no small degree indebted for the rapid progress which art has made in this country during the last twenty years. 'A large annual fund,' says the secretary, in his statement to the above-mentioned committee, 'exclusively devoted to the purchase of paintings and sculpture, and to the dissemination of engravings, was speedily realised, which in the course of nine years amounted to not less than £36,900. During the same period, 771 paintings, 40 pieces of sculpture, and about 30,000 impressions from engraved plates, were distributed among the members of the Association.' Since this period, the annual funds of the Edinburgh Association have continued steadily to increase; and its promoters, as the results of their disinterested labours, have had the satisfaction to see a school of art spring up around them which is probably second to those of Munich and Düsseldorf alone. Our limits preclude us from entering into the history of the other societies in Britain which have been formed after the model of the parent institution of Edinburgh; but some conception of the success which has attended them may be gathered from the fact, that in 1855 it was calculated that they had expended not less than the enormous sum of a million sterling on the encouragement of art. In addition to this direct expenditure, what is a very remarkable, and was to most persons probably an unexpected result, was, that the patronage of private individuals, in place of diminishing, greatly increased, both in Edinburgh and London, during the period in question. Before concluding our sketch of the rise of these very remarkable institutions, it is proper to mention the art union of New York, established in 1838, which now supports two galleries with works of art in that city, and the members of which have had the wisdom to establish an intimate relation and lively interchange of works between their own institution and that of Düsseldorf.

As regards the constitution of A. U., the following arrangements may be stated to be common to them all. Each member, in return for an annual contribution (in Britain, usually a guinea), receives an acknowledgment, which acts as his ticket in the lottery by which the works of art, purchased with the sum thus contributed, are distributed amongst the members. Generally, a fixed proportion of the contributions is retained and devoted to the preparation of an engraving, which is presented to those who have drawn blanks in the lottery. The engraving is usually executed by a local engraver, after a work of the local artist intended to be patronised. The association further makes provision for an exhibition, either permanent, as at Munich, or annual, as in London and Edinburgh, consisting mainly of the works of local artists, though most associations now admit those of strangers. A diversity of practice has existed as to the mode of distributing the funds of the union, and much controversy has taken place between their respective partisans. The first, common on the continent, and adopted in Edinburgh, consists in putting the whole sum collected for each year into the hands of a committee of gentlemen, who are chosen for their supposed æsthetic acquirements and impartiality, and requesting them to select the pictures and other works of art afterwards to be distributed to the subscribers by lot; the second is the London plan of distributing the money itself by lot, and then permitting, or rather compelling, the prize-holders to expend it on the pictures exhibited, the selection of the pictures, however, being left to their own taste

If the object of these institutions be
artistic taste *higher* than that which
aral community for the time being,
of the first over the second of these
tion seem scarcely to admit of ques-
t was eagerly canvassed before the
to whose labours we have already
report was to the effect that the
Edinburgh Association was pre-
London Union. The principle
some modifications, but retaining
tion of prizes by lot, has been extended
ron of art manufactures, but not
success which has attended it
fine arts, strictly so called. See

ancient *Ambracia*, a town of Albania,
N., and long. 20° 50′ E., seven miles
coast of the gulf to which it gives
nine miles south from Janina. It
bank of the river Arta, the ancient
the modern name. It is the see
bishop, and is governed by a bey. Pop.
considerable trade, and manufactures,
nd leather; the floccata, or 'shaggy
to in Byron's earlier poems, is
d; but the town has never recovered
rs of 1828, when it was stormed by
ks under Marco Botzaris. Portions
walls, which were of great strength,
as of the Acropolis, are the only
times. Remains of the lower
convent founded 845 A.D. by the
dosia.

ancient city of Ambracia, founded by a Corin-
y about 635 B.C., was at one time a
independent state, with a considerable
It was ruined in the struggle with the
and subsequently became subject
cedon. Pyrrhus made it the capital
which it fell into the hands of the
y of the Romans.

GULF OF, an arm of the Ionian Sea, 25
and 10 wide, forming part of the
stween Turkey and Greece. Under its
of the Ambraciot Gulf (*Sinus Ambra-
rated* Epirus and Acarnania. At its
the south is the promontory of La
ancient Actium (q. v.).

A'ZUS, the name of several distinguished
the times of the Achæmenidæ. When
anced against Greece, A. led the Par-
Chorasmi. At a later period he warned
but in vain, against engaging in battle
and on the first indications of defeat, he
wn division, amounting to 40,000 men,
ed, and succeeded, though with great
forcing his way through the wilds of
Macedonia, and Thrace to Byzantium,
ssed to Asia. Subsequently, he acted
between the Spartan Pausanias and
nother A. was general under the Persian
erxes Mnemon, and revolted against
Ochus in 356 B.C. For this offence he
have been forgiven; and subsequently
accompanying King Darius after the
sala. Alexander rewarded his fidelity
him satrap of Bactria.

See MATICO.

the name of several Persian
amed *Longimanus*, the second
aped from the conspiracy of
, and ascended the throne in 465
ngst, extending to 425, was marked
power.—A. II., surnamed *Mnemon*,
succeeded his father, Darius II., in 405 B.C. After gaining the victory over his brother Cyrus, he became involved in war with Sparta, which ended with the Antalcidean Treaty of Peace. He died in 361.—A. III., surnamed *Ochus*, was the son and successor of the former, and reigned in the true style of oriental despotism until 338 B.C. One of his most daring exploits took place in Egypt, where he caused the divine bull Apis to be slaughtered and cooked as ordinary beef. A. III. was poisoned in 338 by his eunuch Bagoas. It is said that his flesh was eaten by cats, and that hilts for scimitars were made of his bones.—The founder of the new Persian dynasty of the Sassanidæ (which ruled from A.D. 226 to 651) was named A.

ARTEDI, PETER, a celebrated naturalist, was born on the 22d of February 1705, at Anund, in the province of Angermannland, Sweden. He was at first designed for the church, and entered the university of Upsala, intending to pursue the usual course of philosophy and theology; but he soon abandoned all thought of the ministry, and betook himself to medicine. In 1728, Linnæus went to Upsala, to study the same science, and a close intimacy sprung up between the young men. They worked together, and to a certain extent, on the principle of a division of labour. Physiology, chemistry, and mineralogy they pursued in common; but to this A. added ichthyology, and Linnæus ornithology and entomology. In 1734, A. sailed for England, and Linnæus went to Lapland, each having made the other his heir and executor of all his scientific documents. While in London, A. wrote the preface to his *Ichthyologia*. Next year he went to Leyden in Holland, where he found Linnæus just arrived from the north. Each shewed the other the results of his labours. A.'s useful career was abruptly ended, on the 21st of September 1735, by his falling into one of the canals near Amsterdam.

A.'s only complete work is the *Philosophia Ichthyologica*. The *Synonymologica* is described as a work of extraordinary labour, but somewhat confused. Linnæus faithfully performed his duty as his friend's executor. He arranged, corrected, and completed his manuscripts, and published the whole, together with a life of the author, in 1738. According to Cuvier, the great work of A. is the first named, which gave a truly scientific character to the study of fishes. The only error of any magnitude which occurs in it is including the Cetaceæ among fishes. A. was also a distinguished botanist. He was the first to indicate, as a special characteristic, the presence or absence of involucra in the umbelliferous plants, whose species are so difficult to distinguish from each other. Linnæus has called a genus of these, in memory of his friend, *Artedia*.

ARTEMISIA, queen of Caria (352—350 B.C.), was the wife of Mausolus, and is celebrated for the magnificent mausoleum which she caused to be erected to her husband's memory. See MAUSOLEUM.—Another A., queen of Halicarnassus, accompanied Xerxes in his expedition against Greece, and distinguished herself at the battle of Salamis (480 B.C.); she ended her life, in consequence of an unfortunate attachment, by leaping from a rock.

ARTEMISIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Compositæ*, sub-order *Corymbiferæ*, in which the flowers of the disk are hermaphrodite, those of the ray in one row, the bracts forming a roundish imbricated head, the receptacle naked or hairy, the achænia obovate, and destitute of pappus. The heads of flowers are numerous and small; the leaves generally much divided. There are many species, herbaceous plants and shrubs, natives chiefly of the

more temperate regions of the eastern hemisphere. They have generally an aromatic smell, more or less agreeable, and a warm, sometimes rather acrid and bitterish taste.—To this genus belongs WORMWOOD (*A. Absinthium*), the *Apsinthion* of the ancient Greeks, to whom its medicinal properties were well known. It is a native of Britain, the continent of Europe, and the northern parts of Asia, growing in waste places, by waysides, &c. It is a perennial, 2—4 feet high; its leaves bipinnatifid and clothed with a silky down, and its small hemispherical drooping heads of flowers are of a dingy yellow colour, and are produced in axillary panicles. It is aromatic and bitter, containing a bitter principle and an essential oil, both of great strength, upon account of which it is used in medicine in various forms (oil, extract, tincture, &c.), as a stomachic and anthelmintic or vermifuge. It was formerly in much use as a febrifuge. It is a plant very frequently to be found in cottagers' gardens, occupying an important place in their domestic pharmacopœia. It is an essential ingredient in a number of compound medicines. Its roots, and those of some other species of this genus, have been recommended in epilepsy.—SEA WORMWOOD (*A. maritima*, including a variety which has been called *A. Gallica*), a native of salt-marshes in Britain and other parts of Europe, possesses similar properties, and is occasionally used for the same purposes; as also ROMAN WORMWOOD (*A. Pontica*), a native of the middle and south of Europe, but not of Britain—TARTARIAN WORMWOOD (*A. Santonica*), a native of Tatary, Persia, and other parts of the East; and INDIAN WORMWOOD (*A. Indica*), a native of the Himalaya, abounding at

Wormwood (*Artemisia Absinthium*).

elevations of 2000 6000 feet. Indian wormwood grows to the height of 12 feet. It is considered in India a powerful deobstruent and antispasmodic. TREE WORMWOOD (*A. arborescens*), a native of the south of Europe and the Levant, is also larger and more shrubby than the common wormwood, which, in characters and qualities, it much resembles.—The dried flower-buds of a number of species of A. are sold under the names of WORMSEED and of *Semen Contra*, *Semen Cinæ*, *Semencine*, &c., and have long been in much repute as an anthelmintic. *A. Santonica*, and *A. Sieberi* (or *A. Contra*), a native of Palestine, are believed to yield much of the wormseed which is brought from the Levant, also *A. Judaica*, a native of the East and of Barbary, which is regarded as the principal source of the Barbary wormseed. The flower-buds of *A. glomerata*, *A. Lerchiana*, and *A. pauciflora*, natives of the banks of the Volga, are also said to form part of the wormseed of the shops; and those of *A. Vahliana* are collected in the north-east of Persia, and form the *Semen Cinæ Levanticum* or *Semen Cinæ in granis*. The flower-buds of *A. cærulescens*, a Mediterranean plant, which is said to have been found on the sea-coast of England, form the anthelmintic called *Semen Seriphii* or *Barbotine*. Those of *A. camphorata*, another native of the south of Europe, are used in the same way. Even those of *A. Absinthium* and *A. vulgaris* are used under the name of wormseed.—The plants from which the bitter aromatic liquor called *Extrait*, *Eau*, or *Crême d'absinthe* is prepared, are small low-growing species of A. (*A. mutellina*, *A. glacialis*, *A. rupestris*, *A. spicata*, &c.), found on the Alps, and known to the inhabitants of the Alps by the name of *Genipi*. This liqueur, generally diluted with water, is sometimes used by persons so devoted to the pleasures of the table that they cannot wait for the natural return of appetite, and also by those who really suffer from weakness of digestion. It is a useful and agreeable stomachic, and is very popular in France.—MUGWORT (*A. vulgaris*), a common native of Britain and of the continent of Europe, often found about ruins and in waste places, grows to the height of 3—4 feet, with pinnatifid leaves and somewhat racemed small flowers, which have each five florets of the ray. It emits, when rubbed, an agreeable smell, and has a bitter taste. In Germany, the young shoots and leaves are used in cookery for seasoning. It is used also for the same medicinal purposes as wormwood, but is weaker. Its leaves, and those of some of the other species, are used as fomentations for cleansing and healing wounds.—SOUTHERNWOOD (*A. Abrotanum*) is a shrubby plant with long straight stems, 3—4 feet high, the lower leaves bipinnate, upper leaves pinnate, their segments hair-like. It is a native of the south of Europe and middle parts of Asia, and has long been a favourite plant in cottage-gardens in Britain. It has an aromatic and pleasant odour. The leaves are used to drive away moths from linen; and in some parts of the continent of Europe, as an ingredient in the manufacture of beer. The smell of this plant appears to be peculiarly disagreeable to bees, which retreat from it; and a little branch of southernwood is sometimes efficaciously used when they are swarming, to promote their ascent into the new hive placed over them.—TARRAGON (*A. Dracunculus*) is a perennial plant, a native of Siberia, which has also long been cultivated in gardens in Britain. It has a branching stem 1 - 1½ feet high, with narrow leaves. It is fragrant, and has an aromatic smell and taste. The leaves and tender tips are a favourite ingredient in pickles. An infusion of the plant in vinegar is used as a fish-sauce.—The leaves of *A. Maderaspatana* are regarded in India as a valuable stomachic, and are also used in anodyne fomentations.—MOXA (q. v.) is prepared by the Chinese from the leaves of *A. Moxa* and other species, the whole surface of whose leaves is covered with a thick down.—*A. acetica*, a Persian species is said to have a strong odour of vinegar.

ARTERY (Lat. *aer* and *terō*), named from the old idea that these tubes were air-carriers. Arteries are the vessels through which the blood passes from the left side of the heart to the tissues. The structure

tube is very complex, and a section of y subdivided into three layers, called artery: an external, which is elastic

bdivisions of Arterial Wall.

al, } internal. 3. Muscular, } middle.
ated, } 4. Elastic, }
5. Fibrous, } external.
6. Areolar, }

ble; a middle, which is muscular, con- brittle; an internal, also brittle, smooth, ent, being lined with epithelium on the by the blood. The tube is also enveloped ane, termed the *sheath* of the A. When aded by a sharp instrument, the effect the direction of the cut. Thus, if the edges may not separate, and the h without much bleeding; if oblique e edges gape, and a nearly circular of a profuse hemorrhage. If the A. be livided, its walls do not collapse like ein, but pass through certain changes nature to prevent fatal bleeding. The ntracts, and also retracts into its cellular checks the flow of blood, a clot rtly forms on the outer side; then inside the vessel; and together, they , till the cut edges of the A. have w out lymph (see ADHESION), and heal of other tissues. When an A. is com- ligature, the brittle inner and middle curl inwards, and heal. See BLEEDING. es of the human body are all offsets, irect, of the aorta. As each main trunk a portion of the body, it divides into l divisions: one, which breaks up into supply of the tissues in the vicinity *supply*; and another, which passes on to supply the parts beyond—the *nsion*. These, however, anastomose , so that the distant tissues are not dent for their supply on only one k. Thus, the femoral A. divides in the e profunda, or *deep* femoral, to supply d the *superficial* femoral, to supply the knee. Again, the common carotid *ternal* carotid, to supply the neck and e *internal* carotid, to supply the brain. eries have generally the same distri- angement of branches, they occasionally hereby are apt to puzzle a superficial Mr Thomas Nunn of London, an excel- anatomist, has clearly shewn that these arterial distribution are all governed f arterial distribution just mentioned, a ot only simplifies the study of arterial t assists the operative surgeon out of mitons. The principal arteries will be nder their distinctive names. The best authority on arteries is the splendid work of R. Quain.

ARTESIAN WELLS are perpendicular borings into the ground, through which water rises, from various depths, according to circumstances, above the surface of the soil. The possibility of obtaining water in this way in a particular district depends on its geological structure. All rocks contain more or less water. Arenaceous rocks receive water mechanically, and according to their compactness and purity, part with a larger or smaller proportion of it. A cubic yard of pure sea-sand can contain, in addition to the quantity of dry sand which occupies that space, about one-third of its bulk of water. It would part with nearly the whole of this into a well sunk in it, and regularly pumped from. Chalk and other rocks, composed of fine particles, closely compacted together, contain as large a proportion of water; but from the power of capillary attraction, little or none of this water would be drained into a well sunk in such rock. From the existence, however, of numerous crevices in chalk through which the water freely flows, and from the general presence of a larger quantity of water than the porous rock is able to retain, wells sunk in chalk often yield water. There is yet a third class of rocks, which are perfectly impervious to water: such are clays, which are absolutely retentive, neither allowing water to be obtained from them nor to pass through them. When such rocks occur in basins (q. v.) in alternating layers, and in such order that pervious beds are inserted between impervious ones, it is evident that if a perforation is made through the retentive barrier-bed in the lower portion of the basin, the water contained in the water-logged strata will rise through the bore to a height depending upon the pressure of water which has accumulated in the confined sloping space between the two impervious beds. The explanation will be more evident by a reference to the accompanying figure, which may be considered as a diagrammatic section of the London basin. There is here a number of porous beds, *b*, *b*, composing the cretaceous measures, resting on the impervious gault, *aa*, and these,

Section of the London Basin.

again, are covered by the equally impervious series of the London clay, *cc*, which form the strata on the surface, and extend to a considerable depth. The edges of the chalk-beds are largely exposed in the higher grounds around London; the water falling on the whole area of these exposed edges, sinks into the more or less porous cretaceous beds, and would, in course of time, by continued accessions, fill up the basin, were it not prevented by the clay above. By driving a bore, *d*, through this superior bed, the inferior water-logged strata are reached, and the subterranean water rises to the surface, and flows continuously, by means of hydrostatic pressure.

Many such wells exist in London and its vicinity; those which form the ornamental fountains in Trafalgar Square descend into the upper chalk to a depth of 393 feet. The most famous artesian well perhaps is that of Grenelle, in the outskirts of Paris, where the water is brought from the gault

at a depth of 1798 feet. It yields 516¼ gallons of water in a minute, which is raised with such a force as to be propelled 32 feet above the surface. The pressure required to effect this has been calculated to exceed 50 atmospheres at the bottom of the bore. The water has a constant temperature of 81°·7 F.

It is believed that the Chinese have been long acquainted with artesian wells. They have been in use for centuries in Austria, especially in the neighbourhood of Vienna, where they are very abundant. No knowledge existed as to their source, and consequently the boring for them was engaged in and conducted in a rude and empirical manner. An excavation was made till a bed of clay was reached; on this a perforated mill-stone was laid, and through the hole the clay was bored until water rose. As soon as geology took the position of a science, and the theory of A. W. was propounded, the engineer was able, after the geological survey of a district, to discover whether a supply of water could there be obtained in this way. Already, districts formerly dry and arid have received a plentiful supply of water by means of such wells, and many more applications have yet to be made: it seems likely that erelong Africa's deserts may thus be converted into fertile plains. In an official report of the Algerian government for 1856—1857, it is stated that artesian borings have been executed in the Sahara of the province of Constantine with remarkable success. The first attempt, after a few weeks' labour, produced a constant stream, forming a perfect river, and yielding 4010 quarts of water per minute, at a temperature of 78° F. Several other wells have been sunk with equal success. The result is likely to be beneficial not only to the country materially, but also to the character and habits of its nomadic Arab inhabitants. Several tribes have already settled down around these wells, and forming thus the centres of settlements, have constructed villages, planted date-palms, and entirely renounced their previous wandering existence.

A. W. have supplied a portion of the data upon which the internal temperature of the earth has been calculated. They have their origin below that zone which is affected by the changing superficial temperature of the seasons, and consequently the water is of a constant temperature. Thus the Grenelle artesian well has a temperature of 81°·7 F., while the mean temperature of the air in the cellar of the Paris Observatory is only 53°. MM. Arago and Walferdin observed the temperature as the work proceeded, and found that there was a gradual and regular increase downwards. The latter gentleman has recently made a series of very accurate and careful observations on the temperature of two borings at Creuzot, within a mile of each other, commencing at a height of 1030 feet above the sea, and going down to a depth, the one of 2678 feet, the other about 1900 feet. The results, after every possible caution had been taken to insure correctness, gave a rise of 1° F. for every 55 feet down to a depth of 1800 feet, beyond which the rise was more rapid, being 1° for every 44 feet of descent.

ARTEVELDE, Jacob, a brewer of Ghent, celebrated as a popular leader in the 14th c. In the war between England and France, he gave his aid to the former, while the counts of Flanders supported the latter. A., after gaining great advantages over the party of the nobles, went too far when he proposed that the son of Edward III. of England should be elected Count of Flanders. For this the Flemings were not prepared, and, in consequence, A. was killed in a popular insurrection, August 19, 1345. His son Philip, in l[illegible] people of Ghent in their civ[illegible] and gained a victory over C[illegible] was afterwards assisted by [illegible] and Philip A. was defeated and slain in the b[illegible] Rosbeke, 1382. The history of A. has been several times treated dramatically. In England, Sir Henry Taylor, a living writer of eminence, has produced a beautiful 'closet-play,' entitled *Philip Van Artevelde*.

A'RTHUR, king of a tribe of ancient Britons, is supposed to have flourished in the 6th century. He is usually represented as a Christian prince who struggles bravely to maintain the liberty and faith of his country against the pagan Saxons, but there is no evidence for the statement that he fought against the Saxon Cerdic. Neither the Welsh bards nor Nennius assert this; in fact, it would seem to be merely an inference drawn from the supposition that the scene of A.'s exploits was the west and south-west of England. But Mr Skene (*The Four Ancient Books of Wales*, vol. i., pp. 58–60) seeks to prove from an examination of Nennius (*Historia Britonum*, cap. 50), that the localities of the twelve great battles which A. fought are in Strathclyde, and therefore that he belongs to the region now called Scotland rather than to England. If there is any reality in his history at all, this is probably the correct view of it, but the influence of Geoffrey of Monmouth's fictions, and of the French romances, succeeded in fixing the Cumbrian prince in the more important part of the island. It is a curious fact that no mention whatever is made of A. by the venerable Bede, the oldest of our historians, or by the annalists of the *Saxon Chronicle*; and Mr Skene's explanation, that these authorities only 'record the struggle between the Britons and the Saxons south of the Humber,' is hardly satisfactory.

In the lays of the Welsh bards, supposed to be as early as the 6th and 7th centuries (although no manuscript is extant of older date than the 12th c.), A. and his brave companions are celebrated, but modestly and without miracle. It is in Nennius that the legendary additions begin to develop themselves, though Mr Skene does 'not hesitate to receive the Arthur of Nennius as the historic Arthur.' Then follow at a distance of three or four centuries the so-called Armoric collections of Walter, archdeacon of Oxford, from whom Geoffrey of Monmouth (q. v.) professes to translate, and in which the marvellous and supernatural elements largely prevail. Here for the first time the magician Merlin comes into association with A. According to Geoffrey, A.'s father, Uther, conceiving a passion for Igerna, wife of Gorlois, Duke of Cornwall, is changed by Merlin into the likeness of Gorlois, and A. was the result. After his father's death, A. becomes paramount leader of the British, and makes victorious expeditions to Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, Norway, and even to France, where he defeats a great Roman army. During his absence, his nephew, Modred, revolts, and seduces Prince A.'s wife, Guanhumara. A. returning, falls in a battle with his nephew; and is carried to the Isle of Avallon to be cured of his wounds. Geoffrey's work apparently gave birth to a multitude of fictions which came to be considered as quasi-historical traditions. From these, exaggerated by each succeeding age, and recast by each narrator, sprung the famous metrical romances of the 12th and 13th centuries, first in French and afterwards in English, from which modern notions of A. are derived. In these his habitual residence is at Caerleon, on the Usk, in Wales, where, with his beautiful wife Guinevere, he lives in splendid state, surrounded by hundreds of knights and beautiful ladies, who serve as patterns of valour, breeding, and grace to all the

welve knights, the bravest of the throng, centre of this retinue, and sit with the round table, the 'Knights of the Round from the court of King A., knights go ll countries in search of adventures— women, chastise oppressors, liberate the enchain giants and malicious dwarfs, is ttly mission. A Welsh collection of stories *Mabinogion*, of the 14th and 15th cen- translated into English by Lady Charlotte gives an idea of the Arthurian ... of the stories 'have the character romances,' and are therefore probably origin; while others 'bear the impress of r antiquity, both as regards the manners , and the style of language in which they ed.' These latter rarely mention A., but belong, as Mr Skene puts it, to the Arthurian romance.' Early in the Arthurian metrical romance became ermany, and there assumed a more and artistic form in the *Parzival* of Eschenbach, *Tristan and Isolt* of Strasburg, *Erec* and *Iwein* of Hart- *Wigalois* of Wirnt. The most renowned es of the Arthurian school are Peredur Perceval), Tristan or Tristram, Iwein, Wigalois, Wigamur, Gauriel, and m France, the Arthurian romance to Spain, Provence, Italy, and the Nether- was again retransplanted into England. publications that issued from the press (1483), was a collection of stories by Sir alory, either compiled by him in English, as of the later French prose romances, or directly from an already existing French Copland reprinted the work in 1557, the last of the black-letter editions A reprint of Caxton's *Kynge Arthur*, duction and notes, by Robert Southey, a 1817 (*The Byrth, Lyfe, and Actes of r*, &c., 2 vols. 4to). The best edition is mas Wright (Lond. 3 vols., 1866) from 1634. The name of King A. was given middle ages to many places and monu- posed to have been in some way asso- his exploits, such as 'Arthur's Seat' burgh, 'Arthur's Oven' on the Carron rk, &c. What was called the sepulchre e was shewn at Meigle, in Strathmore, e. The interest of the legends about his knights has been revived by the Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* (1859 e Turner's *History of the Anglo-Saxons*, Ritson's *King Arthur*; De la Villemar- *Populaires des Anciens Bretons* (2 vols., ; Grasse, *Die Grosse Sagenkreise des* Leip. 1842); Skene's *Four Ancient ks* (Edin. 1868); Glennie's *Arthurian*

SEAT, a hill in the immediate burgh, which rises to the height of ove the level of the sea. The ascent is he prospect from the top unrivalled. supposed to derive its name from the g of that name. When the hill received ation is not known; but as early as the he 15th c., Kennedy, the Scotch poet, Arthur Sate or ony hicher hill.'

is formed of a mass of trap of various heaved through the carboniferous strata Scotland, and presenting on the west sides, at the height of 570 feet, a perpen- ge of precipices, called Salisbury Crags, et high. The trap is in tabular masses, levated and hardened the carboniferous sandstone, shale, and limestone beds, which dip east, and crop out on the west, besides being broken through and overflowed by the trap-rocks. In the centre of the hill, the trap often encloses fragments of sandstone, and divides it by veins. The central and upper part of the hill, and the remarkable columns called 'Samson's Ribs,' consist of basalt. To determine the density of the earth, a series of observations was made in 1855 by Lieutenant-colonel James of the Ordnance Survey, on the attraction of A. S., or the amount of deviation from the vertical caused by its mass on the plumb-line. Calculation made the mean density of the whole earth 5·316 (water being 1), or about twice the mean specific gravity of the rocks forming the hill, which experiment gave as 2·710.

ARTICHOKE (*Cynara Scolymus*), a thistle-like perennial plant, now growing wild in the south of Europe, but probably a native of Asia. The genus *Cynara* belongs to the natural order *Compositæ*, sub-order *Cynarocephalæ*, and is distinguished by the bracts of the involucre being fleshy at the base, and emarginate, with a hard point, and the receptacle fringed. *C. Scolymus* has the radical leaves 3—4 feet

Artichoke.
(Head of flowers.)

long, somewhat spiny, some of them pinnatifid, some undivided. The stem is two or three feet high, branched, with large heads of violet-coloured (sometimes white) thistle-like flowers at the summits of the branches. The involucre is tumid, and consists of fleshy, roundish-ovate, crenate, acuminate, imbricated scales. The seeds are elongated and quadrangular, with smooth and firmly attached pappus. The plant has been long cultivated for the sake of the delicate succulent *receptacles* of the heads of flowers, taken before the flowers expand, which are boiled and eaten, or, on the continent of Europe, eaten raw with salt and pepper. The part used is the same which is called the *cheese* in thistles by children, and is sometimes eaten by them. The tender central leaf-stalk is also occasionally used in the same way as that of the Cardoon. Several varieties are in cultivation, differing in the more or less spiny leaves, and the more or less globose form of the head. Artichokes are generally propagated by rooted slips or suckers in spring. These are planted in rows about four feet asunder, and two feet apart in the row. The A. bed continues productive for several years. Seaweed is an excellent manure.—The CARDOON (q. v.) belongs to the same genus.—The JERUSALEM A. (q. v.) is a totally different plant.

ARTICLE (Lat. *articulus*, a joint) signifies in

general a part of a systematic whole. Thus, we speak of the several articles of a confession; the articles of war; a leading article, &c.

The use of A. as a grammatical term arose as follows. In such a sentence as, 'He found *that* (or *the*) man *that* he was looking for,' the Greeks considered the defining particles as connecting the two parts of the sentence, and called them joints (Gr. *arthra*, Lat. *articuli*); the name was subsequently confined to the first of the two, the other being called the relative.

In English, there are two articles—the definite *the*, and the indefinite *a* or *an;* and other modern languages have corresponding words. But articles are not essential to language. The Latin had no articles, and the Greek, as well as the older Germanic languages, the Mœso-Gothic and Old Norse, e.g., had only the definite A. 'In no language,' says Dr Latham, 'in its oldest stage, is there ever a word giving, in its primary sense, the idea of *an* or of *the*. As tongues become modern, some word with a *similar* sense is used to express the relation. In the course of time, a change of form takes place, corresponding to the change of meaning.'

The definite articles originate uniformly in demonstrative pronouns. Eng. *the* is only a weakened form of *that* (Anglo-Sax. *thæt*). The same is the case with Ger. *der;* and Fr. *le*, Ital. *il* and *lo*, and Sp. *el*, are all from the Lat. *ille*, 'that.' In like manner, *an* or *a* is from the old form of *one* (ane); Ger. *ein* is both *one* and *a;* and so are Fr. *un*, Ital. and Sp. *uno*, both from Lat. *unus* = *one*.

In the Scandinavian tongues, the article is attached to the end of the word; the Danish, for example, writes *kong-en*, the king; *hus-et*, the house.

A'RTICLES OF WAR are regulations made for the government of the military and naval forces of the country. They are of three classes—1. Those relating to the army, including therein the forces in India, according to the provisions of the 21 and 22 Vict. c. 106; 2. Those relating to the marine forces; and 3. Those relating to the navy.

1. *A. of W. for the Army.*—These are regulations or ordinances issued under the authority of the annual MUTINY ACT (q. v.), and which Articles that act provides shall be judicially taken notice of by all judges and in all courts whatsoever; and copies of the same printed by the Queen's printer shall, as soon as may be after the same shall have been made and established by Her Majesty, be transmitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for War to the judges of Her Majesty's superior courts at Westminster, Dublin, and Edinburgh respectively, and also to the governors of Her Majesty's dominions abroad; provided that no person within the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or within the British Isles, shall by such A. of W. be subject to be kept in penal servitude, or to suffer any punishment extending to life or limb, except for crimes which the act expressly declares shall be so punishable. And for the enforcement of such A. of W., a power is given to the crown to erect, or grant authority to convene, *courts-martial* with the jurisdiction to try and punish offences according to the Articles themselves and the provisions of the Mutiny Act. In order, however, to limit as far as possible the power conceded to the crown in this matter, it is enacted that nothing therein contained shall be construed to exempt any officer or soldier from being proceeded against by the ordinary course of law; and that where he is accused of any offence against a subject of the realm, punishable by the known laws of the land, he shall be delivered over to the civil magistrate. The military offences against which these A. of W. are directed, relate to the soldier's duties and obligations; to crimes and offences and their punishments; to court and to military rank. The military o offences referred to are those against divi perjury, mutiny and insubordination, des absence without leave; offences in the f garrison, or quarters; drunkenness, disgr duct, false returns, billets and carriages, and miscellaneous offences. By the 3d Articles it is ordered that every rec within ninety-six hours after recruit the 40th and 46th of the Articles re and shall, within ninety-six hours, but than twenty-four hours, make the f before some qualified authority: '*I That I will be faithful and bear to her Majesty, her heirs and succes I will, as in duty bound, honestly de defend her Majesty, her heirs and su person, crown, and dignity, against all en will observe and obey all orders of her M heirs and successors, and of the ge officers set over me. So help me God.*' article also deserves notice. It is to that whenever any military forces s embarked on board ships of war or tra officers and soldiers of such forces shal time of embarkation on board ship, stri themselves to the laws and regulatio for the government and discipline of shall consider themselves, for these pu poses, under the command of the sea the particular ship, as well as under officer of the fleet (if any), to which belongs. See A. of W. for the Marine Fo

2. *A. of W. for the Marine Forces* are the made under the authority of another annu Act, which relates exclusively to the roy forces; but, unlike the A. of W. for the a do not issue directly from the crown, but by the Lord High Admiral of the navy, commissioners for executing that office, an expressly authorised so to be made by the tion of the last-mentioned Mutiny Act. exception, they are in themselves very same as the A. of W. for the army. T exclusively, however, to the marine force *shore*, and this specialty is very anxiously in the preamble of the act, which proce recital that 'the said forces may frequentl tered, or be on shore, or sent to do duty board transport-ships, or merchant-shi or they may be under other circu they will not be subject to the la government of Her Majesty's forces course, while on board, and doing duty Her Majesty's ships or vessels in co marines, like the other naval forces, are the A. of W. made for the government of

3. *A. of W. for the Navy.*—In regar articles or regulations, the navy is differ ated. Unlike the army or the marine shore, the navy is not controlled or gover annual Mutiny Act, but the A. of W. rel are contained in, and expressly enacted by Discipline Act, 29 and 30 Vict. c. 109 (1 still supplies the law of the sea-service. A. of W. are eminently Draconian in th it need scarcely, however, be said that Courts vastly mitigate them in practice. Naval A. of W. authorised by parliament contained in the 13 Chas. II. c. 9, which have been drawn up by Admiral Monta wards Earl of Sandwich, with the appr Lord Chancellor Clarendon and other dis members of the privy council. But that a its subsequent supplementary acts were,

, all repealed by the 22 Geo. II. c. 33., ...r of the present Naval Discipline Act.] ...ndergast's *Law of the Navy*, 1852, ...

THE SIX, often mentioned in the ... history of England in the 16th c., were ...ssed by act of parliament in 1539, when ...II. being displeased with some of the ... favourable to the Reformation, their ... a time regained the ascendency. ...d the doctrine of transubstantiation, ...ion in both kinds not to be neces... the marriage of priests, enjoined ... observance of vows of chastity, and ... private masses and auricular confession. ...imposing them was popularly called 'the ... whip.' Severe penalties were appointed ... or speaking against them, and for ...n confession or the sacrament at the ... ...es, for priests failing to put away ... and for persons writing or speaking ...doct...e of transubstantiation. Arch... ...nly opposed the act in the House ... ... was resolute to have it passed. ... ...tigated by a subsequent act of ..., and although it continued substan...led, it was transgressed with impunity ...esiastical dignitaries.

...LES, THE THIRTY-NINE, of the ... England, are the articles of religion ... agreed upon by the archbishops and ... both provinces and the whole clergy ...vocation held at London in the 4th ...beth, 1562, under Archbishop Parker. ... ...ear view of the history of these im...les, we must go back to the promul... original ones, forty-two in number, ...d Edward VI. The council appointed ...f Henry VIII. to conduct the govern... the king's minority, was for the most ... ...ly disposed towards the Reformed ... and the management of church affairs ... st entirely upon Archbishop Cran... year 1549, an act of parliament was ...wering the king to appoint a commis... ...ons, to make ecclesiastical laws. ... ... commission of 8 bishops, 8 divines, ... and 8 lawyers (amongst whom were ...ley, Hooper, Coverdale, Scory, Peter ... ...e Hales, &c.) was appointed in 1551, ... first acts was to draw up a code of ...f faith. These were forty-two in number, ...orth by the king's authority in 1553. ...rnet make it appear that these forty-... were agreed upon in the convocation ... in 1552, but this was not the case. ...n his quaint way of this convoca... ...t it had 'no commission from the ...dle with church business, and,' he ... convocation in itself is born deaf and ... ...at it can neither hear nor speak con... complaints in religion till first *Ephphatha*, ... opened," be pronounced unto it by ...thority. However,' he continues, 'this ...onvocation is entitled the parent of those ... articles which are printed with this title, *de quibus in Synodo Londinensi* 1552 A.D. ... ... *et alios convenerat*.' To these articles ... Catechism, and there is no doubt ...ng had the principal hand in their ..., for he owned before Queen Mary's ...that they were his doing. But immedi... ...ir publication, Edward died, and one ... of the convocation summoned ... ...ment in the first year of Queen ... to declare that these forty-two articles had not been set forth by the agreement of that House, and that they did not agree thereto. In 1558, Elizabeth succeeded her sister. In 1559, Parker was installed in the see of Canterbury, and immediately the other vacant sees were filled up. And now came a fresh opportunity of drawing up some articles of faith which might serve as a test of orthodoxy in the Reformed Church. Parker applied himself to this work, and for the purpose, revised the forty-two articles of King Edward, rejecting four of them entirely, and introducing four new ones, viz., the 5th, 12th, 29th, and 30th as they now stand, and altering more or less seventeen others. This draft Parker laid before the convocation which met in 1562, where further alterations were made; and the 39th, 40th, and 42d of King Edward's, which treated of the resurrection, the intermediate state, and the doctrine of the final salvation of all men, were finally rejected. The 41st of King Edward's, which condemned the Millenarians, was one of the four which Parker omitted. Thus the articles were reduced to thirty-nine. They were drawn up and ratified in Latin, but when they were printed, as was done both in Latin and English, the 29th was omitted, and so the number was further reduced to thirty-eight. From these thirty-eight there was a further omission, viz., of the first half of the 20th article, which declares that 'the church hath power to decree rites and ceremonies, and hath authority in controversies of faith.' As all the records of convocation perished in the great fire of 1666, it is very difficult to ascertain how these omissions arose. However, in 1571, the articles once more underwent revision. Archbishop Parker and Bishop Jewel made a few trifling alterations, and the 29th being restored, the convocation which was then sitting ratified them both in Latin and English, and an act of parliament was passed in that year compelling the clergy to subscribe 'such of them as only concern the confession of the true Christian faith, and the doctrine of the Sacraments.' There still, however, remained some difficulty as to which was the authorised copy, some of the copies being printed with, and others without, the disputed clause of the 20th; but this was finally settled by the canons passed in the convocation of 1604, which left the thirty-nine articles as they now stand. 'His Majesty's Declaration,' which precedes them, and directs that they shall be interpreted 'in their literal and grammatical sense,' was prefixed by Charles I. in 1628.

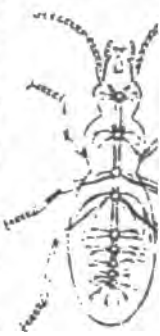
It may be interesting to know from what other sources the thirty-nine articles are derived. Some of them, as the 1st, 2d, 25th, and 31st, agree not only in their doctrine, but in most of their wording, with the Confession of Augsburg. The 9th and 16th are clearly due to the same source. Some of them, as the 19th, 20th, 25th, and 34th, resemble, both in doctrine and verbally, certain articles drawn up by a commission appointed by Henry VIII., and annotated by the king's own hand. The 11th article, on justification, is ascribed to Cranmer, but the latter part of it only existed in the articles of 1552. The 17th, on predestination, may be traced to the writings of Luther and Melanchthon.

The thirty-nine articles have been described as 'containing a whole body of divinity.' This can hardly be maintained. They contain, however, what the Church of England holds to be a fair scriptural account of the leading doctrines of Christianity, together with a condemnation of what she considers to be the principal errors of the Church of Rome, and of certain Protestant sects. As far as they go (and there are many things unnoticed by them) they are a legal definition of the doctrines of the Church of England and Ireland; though it is to the *Book*

of Common Prayer that members of that communion look for the genuine expression of her faith. They were adopted by the convocation of the Irish Church in 1635, and by the Scotch Episcopal Church at the close of the 18th century. Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, contains the only copies of the A. in manuscript or print that are of any authority. Amongst them are the Latin manuscript of the A. of 1562, and the English manuscript of the A. of 1571, each with the signatures of the archbishops and bishops who subscribed them. See *An Account of the Thirty-nine A.*, by Dr Lamb.

For other 'Articles,' see LAMBETH, PERTH, and SCHMALKALD.

ARTICULATA or ARTICULATED ANIMALS, one of the great primary divisions of the Animal Kingdom, according to the system of Cuvier, who in this is followed by recent naturalists generally. The term indicates not the possession of articulated members, but the articulated structure of the whole body. The A. are composed of segments articulated or jointed together in a line, each segment being formed of one or more rings, which in some appear externally as mere transverse folds in a soft skin, but are often covered with a hard substance similar in chemical composition to the bones of vertebrated animals. To this the muscles are attached, and it has sometimes received the name of an external skeleton—a name perhaps suggestive of closer and more numerous analogies to the bony framework of the vertebrated animals than actually exist. In some of the A. the rings are almost equally developed; in others, the difference is very great. They are divided into those which have, and those which have not articulated members; the first subdivision including Insects, Arachnida, Crustacea, and Myriapoda; the latter, Annelida and Entozoa. Some naturalists rank Cirrhopoda (Barnacles, Acorn-shells, &c.) among the A., and regard them as intermediate between these two subdivisions; others follow Cuvier in placing them among the Mollusca. The Rotifera (or wheel animalcules) are also placed by some in the second subdivision of the A., but their right to be so placed is by no means well established. It is in the first subdivision only that the rings are very distinctly grouped in what are called segments of the animal; and even in the Myriapoda (Centipedes, *Juli*, &c.) they often seem little else than mere repetitions of each other; whilst in some of the Crustacea, as the Crabs, the trunk becoming encased in a hard envelope, the segments become immovably united, so that they no longer appear as distinct. A few only of the lowest A., however, are destitute of a distinct head, in which are placed the eyes and other organs of special senses, with regard to which there is considerable difference in the different classes. In it also they usually have jaws for seizing their food and cutting or tearing it to pieces. Their jaws do not open vertically, as in vertebrate animals, but laterally; and there are frequently several pairs of them. Some, however, have the mouth adapted merely for suction. The alimentary tube often proceeds in a straight line from one extremity of the body to the other; and when it is convoluted, its convolutions are usually few. There is no proper heart; but instead of it, we find a *dorsal vessel*, a tube carried along the central line of the body near the back or upper side, and divided in a manner corresponding with the division of the body into rings and segments; a general connection being thus maintained, whilst each segment or each ring has to a certain extent a system of circulation for itself. Respiration is effected either by gills (*branchiæ*), which is the case in those A. that live in water, or by air-tubes (*tracheæ*) and sacs; and the aëration of the blood taking place not merely in one or two, but of the rings, great muscular power and are maintained without a very active cir The muscular power is, indeed, greater in m to the size in the A. than in any The blood is usually white; in some o alone it is red; but this colour (see AN not indicate any approach to the higher animals, although even Cuvier appears regarded it as a reason for assigning to the A the first place among the A. The nervous exhibits a great similarity throughout the who A., and corresponds in its general plan wi system of circulation. It consists of a series nervous masses or *ganglia*, arranged in a cha the central line of the body on the under the animal. A ganglion in the head is often the brain, and from it proceed the optic ner other nerves of the special senses; but it means perfectly corresponds to the b tebrate animals. There is usually a each ring. The ganglia themselves are composed of two halves, more or less distinctly separated; the connecting cord also is double. In those A. which have articulated limbs, the ganglia are largest in the parts of the trunk with which the limbs are connected, whilst they almost disappear from the more unimportant rings; in the Crabs, and some other tailless or very short-tailed Crustacea, they are condensed into two masses.



Nervous System Insect.

The remains of the A. in the fossiliferous rocks are numerous, although often so fragmentary and imperfect that the determination of genus and s impossible, and their complex organisation c thoroughly investigated. It is evident, h that many of them differed much from any now known to exist, and changes can be s from one geologic period to another; Crustacean family of the Trilobites (q.v.), fo being found only in the palæozoic rocks. which are regarded as the tracks and marine worms, appear among the earlies animal life.

ARTICULATE SOUNDS. See

ARTILLERY The various mea this word render it desirable that the know under what headings in the *Encycl* look for information on the subject. means large cannon or ordnance of sometimes it includes the shot and shel the cannon; sometimes it applies to the officers and men, who manage the large c military battles and sieges; sometimes it de the soldiers as well as the cannon, the *per* well as the *matériel*. In the present work, pieces of ordnance, as a class, are describe CANNON; while the specialties of each found briefly noticed under such he RONADE, HOWITZER, GUN, MORTAR, and in some cases under the names o as ARMSTRONG GUN, LANCASTER GUN, arrangement, we shall be enabled to word A. to such articles as relate more the *personnel* of the service - the who have to deal with large pieces o

...ay, however, be well here to explain ...*ipment of A.* is applied to a com... matériel, and horses, suitable for ..., or the arming of fortified ...veral kinds of equipments of ... names of horse, field, rocket, ...e; and others of *heavy* A., for ...nd defence of coasts and fortified places. ...equipments are generally divided into ... ...ns called *batteries* (q. v.), for more ...l and manœuvring. Brief explanations ...und under nearly all the names here ... See WAR-SERVICES, in SUPP., Vol. X.

...LLERY COMPANY, HONOURABLE, is ...existing volunteer corps in Britain. ...ary bodies—the *A. C.*, the *Sergeants-at-... Yeomen of the Guard*, and the *Gentlemen* ...re. were established as far back as the time ...rs; they all still exist, but under greatly ...stances. In 1537, Henry VIII. granted ... ...ve persons, appointing them 'Over...cience of Artillery,' for long-bows, ..., and hand-guns. They were to constitute ...r fraternity for this purpose, with power ...t assistants and successors, to purchase ...d to use a common seal; and their formal ...ame became 'The Masters, Rulers, and ...alty of the Fraternity or Guild of Artillery ...bows, Cross-bows, and Hand-guns.' The ...f the guild or Company were empowered to ... and to exercise themselves in shooting. ... ...ent was granted by James I., intended ...t the preservation of the shooting and ...rounds around London, for the A. C. In ...n was appointed by Charles I., still ... this object. In 1638 the corpora... ...of London presented to the Company ...d ground ever since called the Artillery ...near Moorfields, as a field for military ...Royal princes frequently enrolled them... ...members of the Company, usually as ...General.' In 1719, George I. issued an ... all the commission and staff officers of ...rain-bands (a metropolitan militia) should ...bers of the A. C., and exercise with the ...rs at all convenient times. The word ... ...had heretofore been considered as apply... ...s and arrows as well as to firearms; but ...ers of the Company, like other marksmen, ... abandoned archery, without, however, ...any change in their designation. In a ... to the Company to meet for exercise on a ...r day in 1682, it is said: 'Those gentlemen ...hat day handle muskets are desired to take ... their arms are clean and well fixed, and ...bring with them fine dry powder, and even ...The Company, like many other city guilds, ...ly outlived its original purpose. In 1780, ...'Lord George Gordon riots' afflicted the ... members of the A. C. effectually ... Bank of England; in 1848, when ... were apprehended, the Company was ... to render good service if needed; and ...ing of 1859, when an uneasy feeling pre...England concerning the designs of France, ...bers polished their arms and looked forward ...alities; but the Company has never been ...in actual warfare with an enemy.

...C. consists of members elected by ballot, ...one guinea annual subscription, and supply ... with dress, arms, and accoutrements. ...ata, together with the rental received ... amount of real property, constitute ...of which the expenses are defrayed. ...learn rifle-shooting as well as artil...; there are certain days of meeting at Moorfields; and every summer there are certain days of drill and practice at Seaford. The corps comprises six infantry companies, a grenadier company, a light-infantry company, a rifle company, and an artillery company. Until 1849, the members elected their own officers; but since that year the crown has appointed them on the nomination of the lieutenancy of the city of London. The lieutenant-colonel appoints the non-commissioned officers.

ARTILLERY CORPS. Referring to CANNON for a history of large pieces of ordnance, we here treat of the organisation of the artillery service.

The larger weapons, before the invention of gunpowder, were sometimes called *engines of war*, sometimes *artillery*, and were worked by strong and rough soldiers, who needed no particular apprenticeship to that art. When, however, large balls of iron came to be propelled by the irresistible force of gunpowder, a great revolution gradually took place, though garrison-guns and siege-guns were improved more rapidly than field-guns. Nevertheless, field-guns changed the whole aspect of military tactics; for it became necessary that an army should form in order of battle at a much greater distance from the enemy than in older times. And when the cannon were made more rapidly movable, so did tactics vary. Gradually, a body of men were set apart to study the force and action of gunpowder, the flight and range of projectiles, the weight and strength of cannon, and the manœuvring of heavy masses. The French were the first to make these researches; after them, the English; and still later, the Germans. During the Thirty Years' War, an important step was taken in Germany—that of including the artillerymen, who were till then a sort of guild, as a component in the regular army. Gustavus Adolphus in Sweden, Frederick II. in Prussia, and Napoleon I. in France, all attached a very high degree of importance to the artillery as an arm of the service. After the great wars in the beginning of the present century, nearly all the states of Europe formally recognised the artillery as the third great branch of military service (next after the infantry and cavalry); indeed, in almost all present armies, it takes practically the first place.

A. C., or artillerymen, are divided into land-artillery and marine-artillery. The land-artillery is divided into field, coast, garrison, and siege artillery. The field-artillery is subdivided into horse and foot. There are also the special appellation of reserve, light, and heavy artillery. In most European states, the artillerymen are divided into regiments, battalions, brigades, and companies; but in Britain the whole form one enormous regiment, which is expanded or contracted according to the exigencies of the service. See ARTILLERY, ROYAL REGIMENT OF. When military men speak of *the* field-artillery, they usually include cannon, carriages, horses, ammunition, and stores of every description, as well as the artillerymen. The distinction between heavy and light artillery depends on the size of the cannon, and the weight of the shot and shell propelled from them. For obvious reasons the construction of very large field-guns is avoided. Military men are not quite agreed as to the precise figures; but there was in the time of Napoleon I. a general concurrence in opinion that a well-appointed field-force should have two or three artillery guns to every 1000 infantry, and five or six horse-artillery guns to every 1000 cavalry. The proportion is necessarily affected by the kind of country and the amount of available transport. During the Peninsular War, Wellington had seldom more than 1 gun to every 1000 soldiers; when he entered France, he had

3 to the 1000. Napoleon preferred 2 per thousand, with a larger supply of ammunition than had before been deemed necessary; and many foreign governments followed his example. Since the Franco-German war, it is held that there should be always with the army 3 guns per 1000 infantry.

ARTI'LLERYMAN. See ARTILLERY CORPS; ARTILLERY, ROYAL REGIMENT OF.

ARTI'LLERY, PARK OF, is a collective name given to the whole of the guns, carriages, ammunition, and other appurtenances essential to the working of siege or field A. Besides reserve guns and carriages, there belong to it the ammunition wagons, as well for the infantry and cavalry as for the A., the implements and materials necessary for repairing and completing equipments, harness-stores, field-forges, laboratories, and (in some armies) transport and provision wagons. The *personnel* of a park of A. consists of A. officers, non-commissioned officers, and artillerymen; besides a large number of smiths, wheelwrights, saddlers, armourers, drivers, and other mechanics and labourers. Sometimes the term is applied to the place selected, as well as to the vast military stores collected there. During a siege, the park of A. is stationed out of reach of the enemy's fire, but in communication with the besiegers' trenches. If possible, its locality is chosen close to some good line of communication, either road or river. All pioneering or intrenching tools, and all handicraft implements, are arranged in rows nearest to the field of action, with requisite spaces for the convenience of the storekeepers and workmen. Behind these are the materials for erecting batteries, making fascines and gabions, and filling sand-bags. Furthest removed from the enemy are the magazines, in and near which shot and shell and other kinds of ammunition are stored. A large park of A. is usually divided into park-columns, for the sake of better supervision. Under some circumstances, the engineering park is distinct from the park of A., especially where these two arms of the service are so mutually independent as in the British army.

ARTI'LLERY, ROYAL REGIMENT OF, is the collective name for the whole of the A. belonging to the British army. Under ARTILLERY CORPS, the origin of similar bodies on the continent of Europe is briefly noticed. There was no regular regiment or corps of A. soldiers in the English army till the time of Queen Anne, when the present Royal Regiment was formed. Since that period, from some anomaly which is not easily explained, all the additions have been made to the same regiment, instead of forming new regiments, to be combined into a division or corps. The regiment is now almost an army in itself; and to increase the anomaly, it comprises horse as well as foot. The foot-A., with medium guns, attend infantry in the battle-field; and with heavier guns, besiege and defend fortified places; while the horse-A., with lighter guns, accompany the cavalry. The mounted artillerymen were organised into a body long after those who manœuvre on foot. Though both corps form one regiment, they have distinct designations—the *Royal-A.*, and the *Royal Horse-A.* Besides these two corps, the regiment is considered to include the *Master Gunners* and the *Coast Brigade*.

The regiment has varied from 18,000 to 36,000 strong (including those placed upon the East India establishment), during the last 20 years. Formerly, the foot were divided into *battalions*, and the horse into *troops*. Each company, with its quota of guns and stores, constituted a *field-battery*; and each troop, with its quota, constituted a *horse-battery*. The terms 'company' and 'troop' are now altogether abandoned as being properly applicable infantry and cavalry, and both foot and horse divided into *brigades* and *batteries*. Under the organisation, there was no major among the wo ing officers, the designations being captain, seco captain, and lieutenants. The grades now major, captain, and three lieutenants per batt A battalion in former times usually comprised e companies. When the number of the regim was 18,000, it comprised 119 companies and two averaging somewhat over 150 men each · at times, the companies varied from 130 to each. At present, a brigade usually co batteries of horse, or 10 of field, or 7 son artillery. A horse-battery has 5 151 men; a field-battery (at home), 5 152 men; and a garrison-battery, 4 from 100 to 150 men, according to position in its charge. The brigade are designated by ordinal numbers; of horse-A. are designated by letters, (omitting E). In the old nomenclatur panies and battalions of foot-A. had num 6th company, 12th battalion; and the horse-A. were designated by letters.

The army estimates for 1874—1875 will af correct information concerning the present st the Royal Artillery:

ROYAL FOOT-ARTILLERY.

Commissioned officers,	1,139
Non-commissioned officers,	2,385
Rank and file,	25,511
Horses,	

ROYAL HORSE-ARTILLERY.

Commissioned officers,	249
Non-commissioned officers,	416
Rank and file,	5,053
Total,	34,766
Horses,	
Total,	

Of this number, 12,234 are placed at the d of the East Indies, to be paid for out of revenues.

The internal organisation of the Royal A., the relation between the men and the guns w they serve, as well as some specialties of the ser kinds of service, will be described under BAT For recent changes, see the article WAR-SER in the SUPP., Vol. X.

ARTI'LLERY, SCHOOLS OF. The first sc for A. instruction was established by the Venet in the beginning of the 16th c. Soon afterw Charles V. established similar schools at Burgos in Sicily. The French founded a school of prac A. in 1675; and in 1679, they added to it a theore school at Douai. At present, France has no fe than seven such establishments. Saxony had A. school in 1766; but the other German were more tardy in this work. In Pru artillery and engineer schools are c most of the European states, a se these two arms of the science is schools of A., the officers' studies matics, as much of physics and ch necessary to the duties of the and permanent fortification, garriso tactics, military history and topograph surveying and sketching, drawing from the &c. The practical exercises include the serving tiring of guns and mortars, the laying out constructing of field-batteries, and the operati the laboratory and A. workshop.

The head-quarters for A. instruction

A *Royal Military Academy* was
in 1741. to impart professional
and engineers belonging
India Company sent
Academy from the year 1798
ls, until 1861, they main-
blishment at Addiscombe
not wholly for artillery). At
day, the students in the Academy are
y fair open competition. They enter
e ages of seventeen and twenty; and
two years, or such longer time as may
pass an examination for the Royal A. or
The sons of military officers are admitted
erms than those of other persons. The
ntrol is under the Secretary of State
hat the Commander-in-chief regulates
and internal arrangements. There
and instructors of various kinds.
Military Academy, there is at
Department of A. Studies, for the in-
ers of A., and for facilitating
fortifications and public works of
There is also a *Select Committee*,
are not so much educational as ex-
it is a small establishment for examin-
sporting on the numerous inventions
artillery, brought before the War Office.
of Gunnery at *Shoebury Ness*, subor-
he headquarters of the A. at Woolwich,
riments upon ordnance, gunpowder, and
and to exercise young A. officers in the
mechanical duties of their profession.

ARPA'CEÆ, a natural order of Dicotyle-
ns, of which the Bread-fruit (*Artocarpus*
type; very nearly allied to that of *Moraceæ*
, Figs, &c.), and, like it, by many botanists
a sub-order of *Urticaceæ* (Nettles, &c.).
al distinction between Artocarpaceæ and
es chiefly in the straight embryo and
dons of the former. The fruit is often a
succulent fruit formed of the aggre-
of a whole spike of flowers), as in the
Bread-fruit (q. v.). There are upwards

Bread-fruit (*A. incisa*).

own species, natives exclusively of the
he milky juice of some yields CAOUT-
); and that of a few species is so bland
used as a substitute for milk (see Cow-
he juice of others is, however, very
poisonous, as that of *Antiaris toxicaria*, the Antjar poison, one of the poisons called Upas by the Javanese. The seeds are always wholesome; and those of the *Musanga* of the Gold Coast of Africa, and of *Brosimum alicastrum* in the West Indies, are eaten as nuts. The fibrous bark of the Bread-fruit Tree is made into cloth in the South Sea Islands, and that of other species of *Artocarpus* is capable of being used in the same way. The bark of *Antiaris* or *Lepurandra saccidora* is used in Western India for making sacks, which are formed by cutting a branch of the dimensions of the sack wanted, and simply turning back and drawing off the bark after it has been soaked and beaten, the wood being sawn off so as to leave a little portion to form the bottom of the sack. The fibrous bark of *Cecropia peltata*, or Trumpetwood, is used for cordage in tropical America. The stem and branches are very hollow, and are used for wind-instruments. The wood of some species is valuable, as that of the *Brosimum* or *Piratinera Guianensis*, the Snakewood of Demerara.

ARTOIS was formerly a province of France, bounded by Flanders and Picardy, and almost corresponding with the modern department of *Pas-de-Calais* (q. v.). The capital of A. was Arras. Louis IX., in 1239, made A. a county, and gave it to his brother Robert, who was succeeded by his son, Robert II., surnamed Posthumous, who died in 1302. Afterwards it passed into the hands of Flanders and Burgundy, but was ceded to France by treaties in 1659 and 1678. Charles X., in his early life, and also after his abdication, was known by the title of Count d'Artois.

ARTS, DEGREES IN. The term 'Arts,' or 'Liberal Arts,' as technically applied to certain studies, came into use during the middle ages, and on the establishment of universities, the term 'Faculty of Arts' denoted those who devoted themselves to Science and Philosophy, as distinguished from the faculty of Theology, and afterwards of Medicine and Law. The number of 'Arts' embraced in the full medieval course of learning was seven: Grammar, Logic, Rhetoric (constituting the *Trivium*), Music, Arithmetic, Geometry, and Rhetoric (the *Quadrivium*). The terms Master and Doctor were originally applied synonymously to any person engaged in teaching. In process of time, the one was restricted to the liberal arts, the other to Divinity, Law, and Medicine. When regulations were established to prevent unqualified persons from teaching, and an initiatory stage of discipline was prescribed, these terms became significant of a certain rank, and of the possession of certain powers, and were called *gradus*, 'steps' or 'degrees.' The passing of the initiatory stage, said to have been first instituted by Gregory IX. (1227–41), conferred the title of *bachelor* (q. v.), and an additional course of discipline and examination was necessary to obtaining that of *master*. The title of Master of Arts originally implied the right, and even the duty of publicly teaching some of the branches included in the faculty of Arts; a custom which is still retained, to some extent, in the German universities, but has fallen into disuse in Britain and France, where the title is nearly honorary. The subject will be more fully considered under the general head of DEGREE.

ARUM, a genus of Monocotyledonous plants, belonging to the natural order *Araceæ* or *Aroideæ*. This order consists of herbaceous plants, some of which are stemless, and shrubby plants, some of which are arborescent, and some climb by aërial roots, clinging to the trees of tropical forests. The leaves are sheathing at the base, convolute in bud, usually with branching veins. The flowers are male and

female, naked, arranged upon a *spadix*, which is generally enclosed in a *spathe* (q. v.); the male flowers at the upper part of the spadix, and the female flowers at its base. The stamens are definite or indefinite in number; the anthers sessile, or nearly so, and turned outwards. The ovary is free, generally one-celled, many-seeded; the stigma sessile. The fruit is succulent, the seeds pulpy, the embryo in the axis of fleshy or mealy albumen, with a lateral cleft in which the plumule lies; the albumen, however, is wanting in some plants of the order.—As thus defined, this order contains almost 200 known species, natives chiefly of tropical countries, but some of the herbaceous kinds belong to colder climates.—The limits of the order are, however, sometimes extended, so that it includes as suborders *Typhaceæ*, *Pistiaceæ*, &c.—The genus *A.* has a convolute spathe; the spadix naked at the point. In some species, a stench like that of carrion is produced during flowering, as well as a remarkable heat. Flowers, in general, are slightly warmer than the air around them, the heat being produced by the union of oxygen with some starch-like ingredient in the sap of the petals, or other parts of the flower; for flowers, instead of absorbing carbonic acid gas and giving off oxygen in the sunshine, like the leaves of plants, absorb oxygen and give off carbonic acid, like the lungs of animals. But flowers, in general, are only one degree, or one degree and a half, warmer than the air, whereas the flowers of some of the Arums and nearly allied plants are sensibly warm to the touch, and that of *A. cordifolium* has been found to have a heat of 121° F., while that of the air was only 66° F. The only British species is *A. maculatum*, Cuckow-pint or Wake-robin, which is abundant in England and in most parts of Europe, growing chiefly in moist shady woods and under hedges. It has a tuberous perennial root; its leaves are all radical, on long stalks, strongly arrow-shaped, often spotted; the spathe greenish yellow, enclosing a rather short violet or brownish red spadix. It produces scarlet berries, 1—2 seeded, about the size of peas, clustered upon the spadix. The root has a burning acrid taste, which, however, it loses in drying or boiling. In a fresh state, it is a drastic purgative, too violent for medicinal use; and, indeed, as well as the leaves, is an active poison: yet a ing farina is prepared from it, after has been removed. This farina is a is known in England by the name of or Portland Arrow-root. It was formerly to a considerable extent in the isle of Portland also the tubers (corms) themselves are eaten country-people. A cosmetic, called Cyprus is made from them in France, and they are Switzerland as a substitute for soap. They indeed, a quantity of *Saponine*, to whic acridity is supposed to be owing. They los of their acridity in drying, and were f in medicine as a stimulant in im a diuretic in dropsies, and an expe complaints. The plant is extensively India for food.—*A. Indicum* is also m in Bengal for its esculent stems and tubers.—Acridity in the juice, and the pre an amylaceous substance of very nutritious from which the acrid juice is easily separa characteristics of many plants of this order. larly species of *Caladium* and *Colocasia* for food in warm countries, under the n (q. v.), Eddoes, &c.—*Amorphopallus c* (*A. campanulatum*), called Ol by the very much cultivated in some parts of roots (flat underground corms), which fo important article of food; yet in a fresh so acrid that it is employed as an external st and is also used as an emmenagogue. Othe of *Amorphopallus* are still more powerfull lant.—Two large species of *Arisæma*, anothe very closely allied to *A.*, were found by Dr to afford food to the inhabitants of the Himalaya at an elevation of upwards o feet. Their tuberous roots are bruised by of wooden pestles, and thrown into small p water, until the commencement of acetous fe tion, when the acridity is mostly dissipated; process is so imperfect that cases of injury f poisonous juice are frequent. The tubers of *atrorubens* (*A. triphyllum* of Linnæus), a nativ United States, and there known as Dragon Indian Turnip, yield a pure white starch of *A. maculatum*. Their medicinal uses similar; they are employed as a stimulant secretions.—The Dragon-plant, *A. Dracu* native of the south of Europe, is not uncon gardens in Britain, although it has a can smell, and its emanations are apt to produ ache and other disagreeable effects. It has lar appearance—straight stalks, three fe curiously spotted like the belly of a snak peculiar acridity of the *Araceæ* is most rem displayed in the Dumb Cane (q. v.).

Arum maculatum.

a, leaves and root; *b*, spathe, with base of spadix exposed; *c*, fruit.

A'RUN, a river rising in St Leonard's in the middle of North Sussex, and after of 35 miles, falling into the English Cha canal unites it with the Wey, a feeder Thames.

A'RUNDEL, a small town 5 miles inla the mouth of the Arun, in a tertiary and cl trict, on the south side of the South Down S.W. of Sussex. It consists mainly of a ve street rising from the right bank of the A summit of a hill crowned by a castle. The navigable for vessels of 150 tons up to Bark and timber are the chief exports. Pop 2956. A. was disfranchised by the Reform Bill It is governed by a mayor, four aldermen, an councillors. The castle, from its site, is a object, and was built soon after the Norm quest. It is an oblong, including 5½ acres w

laid in ruins during the civil wars of being the baronial residence of the ...lk, the late duke restored it to its gnificence. The keep, containing ... circular Norman tower of imposing

BLES, part of a collection of ... formed about the beginning of ... mas Howard, Earl of Arundel, ited in ... to the university of Oxford, by Henry Howard, afterwards Duke of principal portion of it is the 'Parian ... ting of the fragments of an inscrip... supposed to have been executed in Paros, about 263 B.C. In its perfect ... on contained a chronological table ... vents in Grecian history from the ... (1582 B.C.) to the archonship of ... B.C.). The chronicle of the last ... lost, and the extant portion of the ... is much corroded and defaced. This interesting monument, the authenticity ... been questioned and vindicated with ingenuity and learning, was pur... Earl of Arundel, along with many ... antiquity, at Smyrna, by Mr (after... n) Petty. The inscription, and all ...pal sculptures in the Oxford Collec... ...ound fully illustrated in the relative ... of Selden, Prideaux, Maittaire, and under the various titles of *Marmora* ... and *M. Oxoniensia.*

...man whose name is associated with these ...les is worthy of remembrance, independ... ...neral merits, as the first of his order ... liberally encouraged the fine arts, and ...ed the influence of his own taste and ... in their cultivation to a wide circle of ... and successors. Among the scholars and ... whom his liberal patronage was specially ..., were Francis Junius the Younger (his librar... ...d Oughtred the mathematician, Wenceslaus ...he engraver, whom he brought over to Eng... ...ndyck and Inigo Jones, and the sculptors ...Scur, and Fanelli. His collection of works of the supply of which, from the treasures of ..., he engaged the services of two distinguished men of letters, Evelyn and Petty, rivalled ...eries of princes. After his death, it was ...ately dispersed, and many of its choicest ... were for ever lost sight of. His collection ...ure alone, when entire, numbered 37 statues, ...a, and 250 inscribed marbles, besides altars, ...gi, fragments, and gems.

'NDEL, THOMAS, Archbishop of Canterbury ...igns of Richard II., Henry IV., and Henry ... in 1353, was the second son of Robert Fitz... ...arl of Arundel and Warren. He was first ...ion of Taunton, and at the early age of ...one, he was, by the pope's appointment, con... Bishop of Ely. In 1388, he was, by the ...thority, transferred to the archiepiscopal see ... He was also for some years Lord High ...r of England. Having been banished the ...or taking a leading part in the first attempt ...as made to deliver the nation from the ...ion of Richard II., he was honourably received ..., and by Pope Boniface IX. nominated Arch... ...of St Andrews, with a promise of future pre... ...in England. In 1396 he was enthroned, ...at pomp, as Archbishop of Canterbury. He ...itter persecutor of the Lollards and followers ...thiffe, and a chief instrument in procuring the ...act for the burning of heretics (*De Heretico ...mdo*), passed in the reign of Henry IV. He even carried his bigotry so far as to solicit from the pope a bull for digging up Wickliffe's bones, which, however, was wisely refused him. He also procured a synodal constitution, which forbade the translation of the Scriptures into the vulgar tongue. Amongst others whom he caused to be convicted of heresy, and sentenced to the flames, was Lord Cobham, one of the principal patrons of the new sect, at the commencement of the reign of Henry V. Soon after, A. was seized with an inflammation in the throat, which proved fatal. He died 20th February 1413.

ARU'NDO. See REED.

ARVICOLA. See VOLE.

A'RYAN RACE, A'RYAN LANGUAGES. The name Aryan (less properly, Arian) Race or Aryan Family of Nations is now generally used to designate that ethnological division of mankind otherwise called Indo-European or Indo-Germanic. It consists of two branches, geographically separated, an eastern and a western. The western branch comprehends the inhabitants of Europe, with the exception of the Turks, the Magyars of Hungary, and the Finns of Lapland (see EUROPE); the eastern comprehends the inhabitants of Armenia, of Persia, of Afghanistan, and of Northern Hindustan (see HINDUSTAN). The evidence on which a family relation has been established among these nations is that of language. Between Sanscrit (the mother of the modern Hindu dialects of Hindustan), Zend (the language of the ancient Persians), Greek (which is yet the language of Greece), Latin (the language of the Romans, and the mother of the modern Romanic languages, i. e., Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Wallachian), Celtic (once the language of great part of Europe, now confined to Wales and some parts of Ireland and Scotland), Gothic (which may be taken as the ancient type of the Teutonic or Germanic languages — including English — and of the Scandinavian), and Slavonic (spoken in a variety of dialects all over European Russia and a great part of Austria), the researches of philology have within the present century established such affinities as can be accounted for only by supposing that the nations speaking them had a common origin. No one of these nations, whether existing or historical, can claim to be the parent nation of which the others are colonies. The relation among the languages mentioned is that of sisters — daughters of one mother, which perished, as it were, in giving them birth. No monuments of this mother-language have been preserved, nor have we any history or even tradition of the nation that spoke it. That such a people existed and spoke such a tongue is an inference of comparative philology, the process of reasoning being analogous to that followed in the kindred science of geology. The geologist, interpreting the inscriptions written by the finger of Nature herself upon the rock-tablets of the earth's strata, carries us back myriads of ages before man appeared on the scene at all, and enables us to be present, as it were, at creation itself, and see one formation laid above another, and one plant or animal succeed another. Now languages are to the ethnologist what strata are in geology; dead languages have been well called his fossils and petrifactions. By skilful interpretation of their indications, aided by the light of all other available monuments, he is able to spell out, with more or less probability, the ethnical records of the past, and thus obtain a glimpse here and there into the gray cloud that rests over the dawn of the ages.

When these linguistic monuments are consulted as to the primitive seat of the Aryan nations, they point, as almost all ethnologists are agreed, to Central Asia, somewhere probably east of the

Caspian, and north of the Hindu Kush and Paropamisan Mountains. There, at a period long anterior to all European history—while Europe was perhaps only a jungle, or, if inhabited at all, inhabited by tribes akin to the Finns, or perhaps to the American Indians—dwelt that mother-nation of which we have spoken. From this centre, in obedience to a law of movement which has continued to act through all history, successive migrations took place towards the north-west. The first swarm formed the Celts, who seem at one time to have occupied a great part of Europe; at a considerably later epoch came the ancestors of the Italians, the Greeks, and the Teutonic peoples. All these would seem to have made their way to their new settlements through Persia and Asia Minor, crossing into Europe by the Hellespont, and partly, perhaps, between the Caspian and the Black Sea. The stream that formed the Slavonic nations is thought to have taken the route by the north of the Caspian. At a period subsequent to the last north-western migration, the remnant of the primitive stock would seem to have broken up; part poured southwards through the passes of the Himalaya and Hindu Kush into the Punjab, and became the dominant race in the valley of the Ganges; while the rest settled in Persia, and became the Medes and Persians of history.

It is from these eastern members that the whole family takes its name. In the most ancient Sanscrit writings (the Veda), the Hindus style themselves Aryans; and the name is preserved in the classic Arii, a tribe of ancient Persia, Aria, the modern Herat, and Ariana, the name of a district comprehending the greater part of ancient Persia, and extended by some so as to embrace Bactriana. Ariana, or Airyana, is evidently an old Persian word, preserved in the modern native name of Persia, Airan or Iran. *Arya*, in Sanscrit, signifies 'excellent,' 'honourable,' being allied probably to the Greek *ari*(stos), the best. Others connect it with the root *ar* (Lat. *arare*, to plough), as if to distinguish a people who were tillers (*earers*) of the earth from the purely nomadic Turanians or Turks.

The several members of this ethnological group will receive special notice each in its place. As to the hypothetical mother-nation—the primitive Aryan stock before separation, it might seem impossible to affirm anything beyond its mere existence and locality. But the ethnologist does not content himself with this. In an admirable essay on *Comparative Mythology* (Oxford Essays, 1856), Professor Max Müller has drawn a picture of the Aryan family while yet one and undivided, in which the state of thought, language, religion, and civilisation is exhibited in a multitude of details. Where the same name for an object or notion is found used by the widely spread members of the family, it is justly inferred that that object or notion must have been familiar to them while yet resident together in the paternal home. It is in this way established, that among the primitive Aryans not only were the natural and primary family relations of father, mother, son, daughter, hallowed, but even the more conventional affinities of father-in-law, mother-in-law, sister-in-law; that to the organised family life there was superadded a state organisation with rulers or kings; that the ox and the cow constituted the chief riches and means of subsistence; and that houses and towns were built.

One general observation made by Müller is so interesting that we take the liberty of quoting it entire. 'It should be observed,' he says, 'that most of the terms connected with chase and warfare differ in each of the Aryan dialects, while words connected with more peaceful occupations belong generally to the common heir-loom of th language. The proper appreciation of this fa general bearing will shew how a similar made by Niebuhr, with regard to Greek an requires a very different explanation from th that great scholar, from his more restricted view, was able to give it. It will shew Aryan nations had led a long life of peac they separated, and that their language individuality and nationality as each colony in search of new homes—new generations new terms connected with the warlike and turous life of their onward migrations. Hen that not only Greek and Latin, but all Ary guages have their peaceful words in c hence it is that they all differ so strau warlike expressions. Thus the domestic generally known by the same name in in India, while the wild beasts have even in Greek and Latin.'

In this mainly pastoral life, the more impo the primitive arts were known and exercise were tilled; grain was raised and ground int food was cooked and baked; cloth was wo sewed into garments; and the use of the even of iron, was known. The numbers a a hundred had been named, the decimal being followed. The name for a thousand come into requisition until after the dispersi differs in the different Aryan tongues.

Finally, it was among the yet undivided while abstract language did not yet exist, word was a metaphor, and the setting of example, could only be expressed by his and dying, that those stories of gods, monsters originated, which, with more variety, but still with a family-likeness, fo pagan mythology of every member of the gr

AS was the designation both of a Roman (called also *libra*) corresponding very nearl English *pound* (q. v.), and also of a coin mad mixed metal *aes*, or bronze. The As (coin) no doubt weighed a (Roman) pound; but gradually reduced to $\frac{1}{96}$ of a pound, and e It is thus difficult to assign any fixed valu *As*. About 270 B.C., the denarius (= 8½d.) c

As.

10 asses; so that the value of the As was little more than 3 farthings; when 16 asses the denarius, the value was about a halfpe was by the *sestertius* (q. v.) that money was r at Rome. The oldest form of As usually figure of an ox, a sheep, or other domestic (*pecus*); from which it is usually supposed Latin word for money, *pecunia*, is derived.

A'SA, son of Abijah, and grandson of Re was the third king of Judah. At the begi his reign, he was very young, and his charact rently undeveloped, for he allowed his grand Maachah, to encourage idolatry; but on assum reins of government, one of his earliest act remove her from all authority 'because she h an idol in a grove' (1 Kings, xv. 13; 2 Chron. His zealous efforts to extirpate the vices and i

...ere on the whole successful. He took ...domites out of the land, and the altars ...gods, broke the images, and cut down ...r the next ten years, he devoted him... ...r the defences of his kingdom, ...ificent army of more than half ... ...h. — ... to have been looked upon as ...by ... ...rchs, for one of these, Zerah ...n, ... the initiative, and penetrating ...rabia *Petræa*, invaded Judah, but was ...ith immense slaughter. Before the battle ...l. Asa had invoked the aid of Jehovah; ... after the victory, he and all his people ... solemn covenant 'to seek the Lord ... ...rs with all their heart and with ... ...Chron. xv. 12). Peace lasted for ...in the kingdom, but in the 35th year ... war again broke out between him ... ... of Israel. He sought and obtained ...' the Syrian monarch, Benhadad, but at ...e of 'the treasures of the house of the ...l although successful against his adversary, ...dignantly upbraided and threatened by ...et Hanani for not relying on Jehovah ... ...ed with success, threw the prophet ... ... it would appear, 'in his rage' ... ...of the people at the same time—per... who sided with Hanani, for we know ...h the nation honoured him with a ...meral; and the sacred historian pays the ...te to his memory, declaring that 'Asa's ...perfect with the Lord all his days.' He ...m 955 to 914 B.C.

ULCIS (i.e., Sweet Asa), a drug in high ...ng the ancients as an antispasmodic, ... and diuretic; also for supposed virtues ...xtraordinary kind, such as neutralising ... of poison, curing envenomed wounds, ... to the blind, youth to the aged, &c. ... ...stimated by its weight in gold. The ...Cyrene caused a figure of the plant pro... to be struck on the reverse of their coins, ...sometimes called *Laser Cyrenaicum*. The ...f the genus *Thapsia* (of the natural order ...e), either *T. Garganica*, or a nearly allied ...*T. Silphium*—perhaps the drug was pro... both. They are natives of the south of ...d of Barbary, and appear to be very active ...

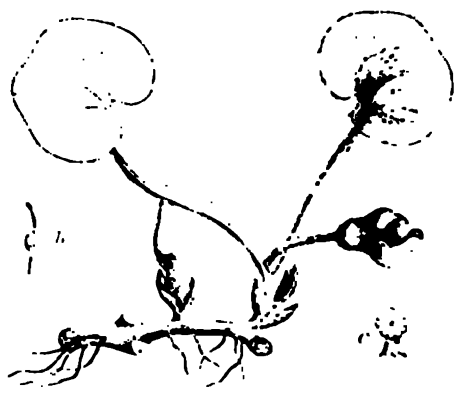
TIDA, or **ASSAFŒTIDA** (i.e., Fœtid Asa ...a gum-resin, which has been supposed to ... with the exuded juice of the *Silphion* ...ides, so highly esteemed among the Greek ...: but which, perhaps, was rather the *Asa* ... name is derived from the Persian word ... means *a staff*. This drug is brought ...ia and Afghanistan, and is procured by ...a milky juice which flows from the root ...nt *Ferula* (*Narthex*) *Asa*, which has been ...to the genus *Ferula* by Linnæus, and to ...by Dr Falconer. The root of the A. plant ...ld generally undivided; white inside, but ...black covering; and contains in its interior ...of juice of an overpowering odour, which ...mbles that of garlic. *Ferula* or *Narthex* ...radical leaves tripartite, their segments ...d, and nearly two feet in length. The ...is said by some to be obtained also from ...rsica, a plant which has the root leaves ...h divided, and all either tripinnate or ...nate. The name *Ferula*, like the Persian ...rs to the appearance of the stem of the ...*Ferula Persica* has long been propagated ...ly in Britain, and even brings its seeds ...on.

A. is prepared in the dry southern provinces of Persia, but chiefly in Khorassan and Afghanistan, and also to the north of the Hindu Kush range of mountains. About April, the root-leaves are taken away, and the root itself is more or less exposed by removal of the soil from about it. After a lapse of six weeks, a slice is cut horizontally from its summit, and a thick white juice exudes, the smell of which even exceeds in strength that of the drug when dry. The drug is sometimes met with in the market in the form of tears, but more frequently in lumps, which are made up of irregularly shaped tears, agglutinated together by a softer substance. A. is extensively used in medicine, and possesses stimulant and antispasmodic properties. When taken internally, it undergoes absorption, and may be detected in almost every secretion of the body, as the saliva, breath, and urine. According to the analysis of Pelletier, A. is composed of the following substances: resin, 65 parts; volatile oil, 3·6; gum, 19·44; bassorin, 11·66; various salts, ·30. In many parts of the East, this drug is used as a condiment, in which respect it seems to take the place of the garlic of some European nations.

A'SAPH, St, a cathedral city and a station on the Vale of Clwyd Railway, stands on a small hill between the rivers Clwyd and Elwy, in the northwest of Flintshire, Wales. The cathedral is a cruciform building, 178 by 68 feet, and was built in 1284 on the site of a wooden structure founded before 596. It has a tower 93 feet high, is one of the smallest of British cathedrals, and stands on the top of the hill on which the city is built. Kentigern, or St Mungo, Bishop of Glasgow, and his disciple, St A., are said to have founded the see of St A. in the 6th c. The bishop, who has a revenue of £4200, is patron of 121 of the 148 benefices in the diocese. Pop. in 1871, 1900. St A., with the Flint district of boroughs, returns one member to parliament.

A'SAPHUS. See TELLOBITE.

ASARABACCA (*Asarum Europæum*), a plant of the natural order *Aristolochiaceæ* (see ARISTOLOCHIA), a native of Europe, growing in woods; rare, and perhaps not truly indigenous, in Britain. The whole plant has acrid properties; the roots and leaves are aromatic, purgative, and emetic. The use of A., however, as an emetic has been much



Asarabacca (*Asarum Europæum*).
b, detached anther; *c*, style.

superseded by that of ipecacuanha, which is milder and safer. The powdered roots and leaves enter into the composition of cephalic snuffs, which cause

sneezing, and are employed as a counter-irritant in cases of headache, ophthalmia, toothache, &c. The plant contains a volatile oil, and a crystalline substance called *Asarine*, to which it seems to owe its active properties. The genus *Asarum* is distinguished by twelve horned stamens, distinct from each other and from the style, and by a bell-shaped three-lobed perianth. *A. Europæum* has a very short stem with two shining kidney-shaped leaves on long stalks, from the axil of which springs a single drooping greenish-brown flower.—A nearly allied species, *A. Canadense*, a native of Canada, is stimulant and diaphoretic, and is used under the name of CANADA SNAKEROOT, instead of *Aristolochia Serpentaria*. It is also called WILD GINGER, and used as a spice, being of a warm aromatic quality, and not acrid, like its European congener.

AS'BEN, or A'ÏR, a country of Central Africa, situated in 15°—20° N. lat., and 6°—11° E. long. Pop. estimated at 64,000.. Its territory comprises a large amount of desert, as well as considerable tracts of mountain land. The inhabitants are chiefly of Berber extraction, and generally profess the religion of Mohammed. They are of a degraded character, and given to marauding. The climate is rather healthy, and generally hot and dry. The rainy season is from August till October. The soil in many places is fertile, producing the doom palm, dates, and senna. Dr Barth, the traveller, says of the aspect of the country: 'Rocky ground, overtopped by higher mountain masses or by detached peaks, and hollows overgrown with rich vegetation, and preserving for a longer or shorter time the regular form of valleys, succeed each other by turns, and constitute the predominant feature of the country of Asben.' The capital is Agades (q. v.).

ASBE'STUS, a mineral very closely allied to tremolite, actinolite, and hornblende, and which, along with tremolite and actinolite, is often ranked among the varieties of hornblende. It consists chiefly of silica, magnesia, lime, and oxide of iron, and is of a fine fibrous character, the fibres sometimes combined together in a compact mass, sometimes easily separable, elastic and flexible. It is generally of a whitish or greenish colour. The variety called *Rock-cork* very much resembles cork, is soft and easily cut, and so light as to swim in water. *Rock-leather* and *Rock-wood* are varieties somewhat similar to rock-cork, but not so light. The finest fibrous variety with easily separable fibres is called *Amianthus* (from a Greek word signifying *unpollutible*, as A. is from a Greek word signifying *indestructible*), because cloth made of it was cleansed by passing it through fire. This cloth was used by the ancients to enwrap dead bodies placed on the funeral pile, so as to preserve the ashes of the body unmixed. Amianthus has sometimes been used for the wicks of lamps, and is often employed to fill vinaigrettes, being moistened from time to time with a few drops of aromatic vinegar. The finest amianthus is found in the Tarentaise in Savoy. It is particularly abundant in Corsica. It is found also in Cornwall, at Portsoy in Scotland, and in several of the Shetland Islands. None of the varieties of A. are very common, but they are not unfrequent in serpentine and allied rocks in different parts of the world. Minerals which resemble A. in their fibrous character are sometimes called *asbestous* or *asbestiform*, and some of them are believed to be varieties of augite rather than of hornblende.

A'SCALON, or **ASHKELON**, a ruined city of Palestine, situated on the shore of the Mediterranean, 36 miles W.S.W. of Jerusalem, and 12 N. by W. of Gaza. It was in ancient times a fortified city, and the principal town of one of the five lordships of the Philistines. Its name often occurs in the history of the people of Israel in the Old Testament, where it is represented as falling at an early period into the hands of the tribe of Judah. Herod the Great embellished it with baths, palaces, and fountains; but in the subsequent wars with the Romans, it suffered much damage. There was a celebrated temple of Derketo, the Venus of the Syrians, at A., which is recorded to have been plundered by the Scythians, 630 B.C. After continuing long under the dominion of the Roman empire, the city came into the possession of the Saracens in the 7th c. In 1099 a great battle was fought on the plains of A., between the Crusaders and Saracens, when the Christians gained a decisive victory. The city, however, a number of years after, was recaptured by the Moslems, and held by them as a strongly fortified place until 1153, when it was taken by the Crusaders under Baldwin III. In 1187 it was retaken by the Saracens, but afterwards (1192) fell into the hands of Richard Cœur de Lion. Subsequently, being more than once dismantled and repaired during the wars between Richard and Saladin, it was reduced to desolation by Sultan Bibars in 1270.

The ruins of this ancient city occupy an extensive semicircular eminence, sloping gently to the east, but abrupt and steep towards the sea. Part of the walls are still standing, with the remains of Gothic churches, a palace, and several edifices of more ancient date, which attract the notice of the traveller and the antiquary.

A'SCARIS, a genus of *Entozoa*, or intestinal worms, of the order *Nematoidea* of Zeder, Cuvier, &c., and of the division *Sterelmintha* of Owen. The ascarides have a body approaching to cylindrical, but thickest in the middle. They inhabit the intestines of animals. The species are numerous. One of the best known is *A. lumbricoides*, often called the common round worm, which occurs in the intestines of man and of some of the lower animals, as the hog, ox, horse, &c., and which often occasions severe disease, and sometimes death, particularly when it ascends from the intestines to the stomach. Its presence even in its most ordinary situation in the small intestines, is attended with unfavourable effects upon the general health; and the greater the number present—which, however, is not usually large—the greater, of course, is the injury; although when they remain in the intestines, worms of this species are less injurious and less annoying than other, and even much smaller intestinal worms. In subjects otherwise diseased, they occasionally find their way out of the intestines into the closed serous cavities of the body, and even pass through ulcerated parts of the external integument; but the mouth is formed only for suction, and is provided with no

Ascaris lumbricoides (male).
One-third of the true linear dimensions; *a* is the head of the worm.

means of boring through the healthy intestine. An immense number of remedies (anthelmintics or vermifuges) have been proposed and used in order to expel this parasite, some of which are very effectual. They do not in general kill the worms, but act by making their dwelling-place disagreeable to them (see VERMIFUGE). It is, however, remarked by Küchenmeister, in his work on Parasites, that the

…s of this description is as yet purely …although there must be a condi… canal which favours the thriv… by no means certain what it is. …*lides* is ordinarily, in size and

…th of Ascaris lumbricoides, magnified.
…shy tubercles spread out, with cockscomb like …er to them, and the entrance to the intestinal

…e, pretty much like the Common Earthworm …*terrestris*), from which resemblance it has …pecific name, although the resemblance …neral form than in more essential … It has been seen fifteen inches in … consists of three fleshy tubercles, … and out upon the intestine to form … sucker, and within which there is … capable of being protruded. The ali… canal consists of a muscular gullet and … and a thin-walled intestine. Between the … ers of the body is produced a pale … tter, with a strong and very peculiar … gradually communicated to spirit in … preserved. The males are smaller … and much more rare. The females … in great numbers; but it is uncertain … are developed within the intestine in … parent worm resides. They are certainly … being developed elsewhere, and probably … enter the intestines of the animals of … are eventually to be the parasites, after … a certain stage of their existence in … circumstances: the worm in a very … having never been found in the intestines … quadrupeds, the situation of its perfect … The inhabitants of damp valleys are … to suffer more than others from the *A.* … *des*. It is said also to be particularly … in persons who are much accustomed to … caves and roots; and it has been supposed … young may exist, perhaps in an encysted … the bodies of insects or other very small … which are accidentally eaten along with … as the young tapeworm finds its way into … intestines from its residence as a creature … different size and form in the flesh of the … the pig. The once prevalent idea of the … generation of these worms is now com… … abandoned.

…*cularis* is another species usually referred … s, and is the only other species trouble… … kind. It is known as the Thread-worm … and is very common both in children … infests chiefly the lower part of the … and particularly the rectum, great numbers … present together, and occasioning intoler… … ing, irritation, and loss of sleep, although … not in general much serious injury to health. … anthelmintics employed against other … are found efficacious also in the … : and clysters are often employed … The thread-worm is white, not … … an inch in length, the male much less. Some recent authors of high reputation have separated this species from A., and call it *Oxyuris*

Ascaris vermicularis (male).
Magnified twenty-five diameters; a, the mouth.

Ascaris vermicularis (female).
Magnified eight diameters.

vermicularis, but the term *Ascarides* is often employed in medical works with exclusive reference to it; and indeed this name, derived from the Greek *askurizo*, to jump or move briskly, probably owes its origin to the liveliness of motion which this species exhibits. It has been recently discovered that its nervous system is very highly developed, consisting of many ganglia, with connecting and ramifying cords.

ASCENSION, one of the comparatively few single islands on the globe, being about 800 miles to the north-west of St Helena, and almost as far to the south south-west of St Matthew. It is said to have received its name from the circumstance of its having been discovered by a Spanish navigator on Ascension-day. It is nearly in the middle of the South Atlantic, the lat. of its fort being 7° 55′ 55″ S., and its long. 14° 25′ 5″ W. A. is 8 miles long by 6 broad; its area being about 35 square miles. Though it was discovered as early as 1501, yet it remained uninhabited till 1815, when, in connection with Napoleon Bonaparte's detention in St Helena, the English took possession of it. It is now used as a naval victualling-station and hospital. Pop. (census of 1871) 27, 15 being residents on the island, and 12 being in the Royal Naval Hospital. Like St Helena, it is of volcanic origin, and generally mountainous … one peak rising to a height of 2870 feet. From the extreme dryness of the climate, which, however, is healthy, the surface is nearly destitute of verdure. Among indigenous productions are the tomato, castor oil plant, and pepper; and various European vegetables are successfully cultivated.

ASCENSION, Right (Lat. *ascensio*, a rising; Ger. *gerade aufsteigung*), the name given in astronomy to one of the arcs which determine the position relatively to the equator of a heavenly body on the celestial sphere, the other being the declination. See Armillary Sphere. It is the arc of the equator

intercepted between the first point of Aries (q. v.), and the point at which the circle of declination passing through the star cuts the equator. Measured always from west to east, right A. on the heavens corresponds to longitude on the earth. The right A. of a heavenly body is ascertained by means of the transit instrument and clock. The transit instrument determines its meridian passage, and the transit clock gives the time at which this takes place. When the first point of Aries is in the meridian, the clock stands at 0 hours, 0 minutes, 0 seconds, and it is so arranged as to indicate 24 sidereal hours, the time that elapses between two successive passages of that point. The reading of the clock, therefore, at the passage of any heavenly body gives its right A. in time, and this, when multiplied by 15, gives the same in degrees, minutes, and seconds. The right A. is usually given, however, in time. The old term, *oblique* A., was given to the right A. of the point of the equator that rose simultaneously with the heavenly body; and the difference of the oblique and right A. was called the 'ascensional difference.'

ASCE'NSION-DAY, or HOLY THURSDAY, one of the great religious festivals of the Episcopal, and also of the Roman Catholic Church. It is held on the fortieth day after Easter, and is intended to commemorate the ascension of Christ into heaven. It is one of the six days occurring in the year for which the Church of England appoints special psalms, and the same church also particularly recommends it as a fitting day for the receiving of the communion. Ascension-day has been observed from the earliest times of the Christian Church. St Augustine believes it to have been instituted either by the apostles themselves, or the primitive bishops succeeding them. Connected with the religious observances of this day were certain civic ones, which in some parts of England and Scotland are continued to this day—viz., *beating the bounds, or riding the marches*, though their religious connection is apparently forgotten. See ROGATION DAYS and PERAMBULATIONS.

ASCETICISM. Among the Greeks, *askēsis* denoted the exercise and discipline practised by the athletes or wrestlers, who had to harden their bodies by exertion and to avoid all sensual and effeminating indulgences. In the schools of the philosophers, especially of the Stoics, the same word signified the practice of mastering the desires and passions, or of severe virtue. In these senses it passed into the language of the early Christians. The language of St Paul in comparing the Christians to wrestlers who had to contend with Satan, the world, and the flesh, contributed to this. But the philosophy of the time had more to do with it, which held the freeing of mind from matter to be the means of union with God; or, at least, that the refraining from all luxurious pleasure was the way to restore the soul to its original purity. To understand the vast influence that ascetic ideas have exercised on the Christian religion, we must look beyond the bounds of its history. Their root lies in the oriental notion, that the Absolute or All is the only real existence; and that individual phenomena, especially matter in all its shapes, are really nothing, and are to be despised and avoided, as involving the principle of separation from the Absolute. The East, accordingly, is the native soil of A. The glowing imagination of the oriental carries the practice of it to a monstrous extravagance, as is seen in the frightful self-tortures of the yogis and fakirs, the suicides in the sacred Ganges and under the wheels of Juggernauth, and the practices now or recently prevalent of offering children in sacrifice, and of burning widows; most of which, however, have been humanely suppressed by the efforts of the B government. Buddhism, which may be consi as a kind of puritan revival or reform the methodism of the Indian re m— the principle beyond its previous ... its contemning the world; in its incul ... li of solitude and beggary, mortification ... bod and abstinence from all uncleanness an... exciting drinks, the object was to keep as ... detached as possible from this 'Vale of S ... (BUDDHISM and NIRVANA). The sober C..., as the more moral and rational Persians, never carri asceticism to these extravagances; and the earne Egyptians sought to confine it to monogamy of th priests, abstaining from the flesh of swine and fro beans, rigid purity, circumcision, moderate flagell tion, and frequent contemplation of death (whi there were arrangements for bringing to re brance, even in the midst of festivities). are certainly milder forms of A., but the is the same.

It is in the light of this fore-history that w consider Judaic and Christian asceticism. L... oriental mind, especially in Egypt, circ avoiding of all uncleanness, and fasting, wer... humiliation before God; and in the Mosaic rita were conditions of the favour of the holy Jeh... Voluntary vows, abstaining even from lawful foo wine, &c., were held to have a special purifi consecrating efficacy, particularly for prophets men of special callings. But self-c ... ion ... tinued for long foreign to the sobriet... and even hermitism came into established only shortly before Christ, in Palestine Essenes (q. v.), in Egypt among the (q. v.); though doubtless Jewish A. ha... more stern and gloomy since the exile in Baby...

A. was far less congenial to the reflective na of the West, above all to the cheerful Greeks Greek felt himself entitled to enjoyment as well his gods; hence Greek religious festivals were ne vaded by cheerfulness. The only exceptio to be the Eleusinian mysteries, which ne... hold of the people generally, and the p menon of the Pythagorean fraternity. ... made by the Socratic school upon the bo... prison of the soul—a view reminding one o —and the extravagant contempt for the ... and even decencies of life, professed by Stoics and Cynics, were no genuine fruits popular Greek mind; and we must also as the infusion of oriental philosophy the ascet dencies of Neoplatonism, in holding ab ... flesh and from marriage as chief ... absorption into the divinity.

It was into the midst of these ideas tianity was introduced. The Jewish con with them their convictions about fasti and Nazaritic observances were though... preparatives for great undertakings; and cation of abstinence from marriage, on the g the expected speedy re-appearance of Christ with the same notion, namely, that the flesh, the sensuous part of our nature, is the seat and must therefore, before all things, be chained. The old oriental traditions of ... spirituality of Christianity, pointing away to heaven; opposition to the corruptio... heathen world; the distinction made betw and knowledge, as a higher and lower stage ligence, leading to a corresponding distinctio... higher and lower stage of virtue: all combined make the Christians of the first two centuries aloof from the world and its wisdom, and abstinence from marriage, more especially part of the clergy. This ascetic spirit began a

nt of the 2d c. to court trial in
e of men and women living
vows of continence. We find
ading from the dangerous experiment,
authority of the church interposed to
t. But during the first three centuries
vows yet bound the devotees to a life-
g was also comparatively rare.
ency to outward manifestations now
w stronger. The inward and spiritual
Christians had greatly declined; and if
bloody persecutions had driven indi-
human society into the deserts, the
arisation of the church, after Christi-
came the state religion, had the same
a still greater degree. All this paved the
the chief manifestation of A.—namely, mon-
(q. v.); and the church found herself com-
overwhelming tide of opinion within
to recognise this form of A., and to
under her protection and care. From the
Church, represented by Tertullian and
a spirit of gloomy and crushing super-
read deeper and deeper over the Western
y, intensifying the ascetic tendencies,
still more marked separation from a
. There were not wanting healthier
Jovianus, Vigilantius, and others—to
voices against fasting, monkery, and the
rks of A. generally; but such protests
, and became ever rarer.
the 11th c., the Cathari, Waldenses, and
though ascetics themselves in a way,
the external A. of the church; the
ch fought on the same side; and so
Huss, and Jerome of Prague, in their
gles at reformation. After a pre-
sh by Erasmus, the struggle was
reformation of the 16th c. The
principle of that movement, that salva-
cured by justification through faith, and
ugh dead works, struck at the root of
and mortification in general. But the
has not been so complete as is often assumed.
spirit often shews itself still alive under
ies even in Protestantism. The
culcated a rigid A.; and with the
rica, celibacy is practised as a virtue.
A. is to hold self-denial and suffering
rious in the sight of God, in and for
regarding whether it promotes in any
of others or the improvement of the
own character. In this light, many
ented by Puritanism, Methodism, and
appear ascetic. It is not impossible that
total abstinence, and other recent
ugh advocated on other grounds,
nselves to the feelings of many
ng in with this deep-seated pro-
which seems a relic of that dread of
of the invisible and supernatural
haunts the human mind in an
and savage state.
Romish Church, ascetic practices have
in recent times; fastings are less
the self-sacrifice of conventual life is
rected to beneficial ends. Mohammedanism
dergone the same change. In the Greek
monasticism had always a milder form.

HAFFENBURG, the chief town on the
nk of the Maine, in the Bavarian district
franken (lat. 50° 1′ N., long. 9° 7′ E.). It is
n an eminence, and has both a healthy and
e situation; but the streets are narrow,
r, and slope steeply towards the river. The
f Johannisburg, built between 1605 - 1614,
by Johann Schweikhardt, Elector of Mentz, and the favourite hunting residence of many of his successors, forms a quadrangle, with towers at each corner, and overlooks the whole town. Besides the collegiate church, the military barracks, and the town-hospital, A. possesses a Roman villa, built by the late King Louis, in imitation of the Castor and Pollux edifice discovered at Pompeii. It is celebrated for its manufacture of coloured papers, besides carrying on a considerable trade in wood, building-stone, tobacco, wine, &c. Pop. 9212, principally Catholics.

A. existed as early as the invasion of Germany by the Romans, who built a castle here. In 974, Otto I., Duke of Swabia and Bavaria, founded the collegiate church, which greatly increased the prosperity of the place. After Otto's death, it came into the possession of the archbishops of Mentz, and remained with them until the dissolution of the Germanic empire. In 1814, along with the principality of which it is the capital, it was ceded to Bavaria by Austria.

ASCHAM, ROGER, a distinguished English writer and classical scholar, was born in 1515 at Kirby Wiske, in Yorkshire. He received his early education in the family of Sir Anthony Wingfield, and in 1530 entered St John's College, Cambridge, where he took his degree of M.A. in 1536. The study of the classics, especially Greek, had recently been revived at Cambridge, and the natural bent of A. impelled him with ardour to these studies. His reputation as a classical scholar soon brought him numerous pupils; and there being at that time no Greek chair, he was appointed by the university to read lectures in the public schools. He at first opposed the then new method of pronunciation which is still used in England; but afterwards adopted and defended it. His leisure hours were devoted to music, penmanship, in which he excelled, and archery. In defence of the latter art, he wrote, in 1544, a treatise entitled *Toxophilus*, the pure English style of which, independently of its other merits, ranks it among the classical pieces of English literature. For this treatise, which was dedicated to Henry VIII., he was rewarded with an annual pension of £10, equivalent to about £100 of our present money. About the same time, he was appointed university orator. In 1548, on the death of his former pupil, Grindal, he was called to supply his place as master of languages to the Lady Elizabeth. In this office he gave the highest satisfaction; but at the end of two years abruptly resigned it, on account of some offence he had taken at some persons in the princess's household. That he did not lose favour at court, however, is manifest, from his having soon after been appointed secretary to Sir Richard Morysine, ambassador to the court of Charles V. He spent three years in Germany, and published an account of his observations in that country. He also made a short tour in Italy. During his absence, he had been appointed Latin secretary to Edward VI. On his return, after the death of the king, the interest of Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, secured his appointment to the same office under Mary; his pension also was doubled. His prudence and moderation preserved him from offending by his Protestantism. After the death of Mary, Elizabeth retained him at court in the double capacity of secretary and tutor, which he discharged till his death, in 1568. His principal work, *The Schoolmaster*, a treatise on classical education, was published in 1571 by his widow. His Latin letters and poems have been frequently reprinted. The best edition of the former is that of Elstob (Oxford, 1703). To an edition of his English works, by the Rev. J. Bennet (1767), is prefixed a life by Dr Johnson. — ASCHAM, a case for the reception of the bow, arrows, strings, and other accoutrements of the

archer, derives its name from the author of the *Toxophilus*.

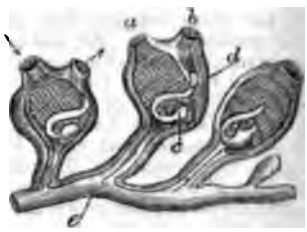
ASCHERSLEBEN, a town in the district of Magdeburg, in the province of Prussian Saxony, lat. 51° 46′ N., long. 11° 27′ E. It is situated on the river Eine, is 7 miles distant from Magdeburg, and has a population of 16,734. The inhabitants are chiefly occupied in agriculture and gardening, but its trade is not very important. It has, however, considerable manufactures of woollens, linens, earthenware, &c. In the vicinity are the ruins of the old burgh of Ascania, the original seat of the House of Anhalt.

ASCIDIA, a Linnæan genus of marine mollusca, now much restricted as a genus, but the type of a family called *Ascidiadæ*. The name Ascidians is also commonly employed to designate all those tunicated mollusca which form the order *Saccobranchiata* of Owen, or in which respiration is carried on by means of gill-sacs (*branchial sacs*); and these are divided into Compound and Solitary Ascidians (*Aggregata* and *Solitaria*). The ascidians, along with the other *Tunicata*, are acephalous, or destitute of a head, and are enclosed, not in a shell, but in an elastic tunic with two orifices, composed of a substance apparently identical with the *cellulose* of plants, consisting only of carbon and hydrogen. Within the external tunic is a muscular membrane, regarded as corresponding to the *mantle* of other mollusca, and the openings of which agree with those of the tunic. The greater part of the cavity of the mantle forms a branchial sac, the lining of which, folded in various ways, constitutes the gills (*branchiæ*); and into it currents of sea-water are continually brought by the respiratory movements, passing out through the vent or anal orifice. Multitudinous *cilia* in the mouth and branchial sac, cause by their action this continual flow of water. The motion of the cilia is apparently quite involuntary. By this flow of water, the particles of food requisite for the animal are brought in, so that the aëration of the blood and the supply of the stomach are carried on together and by the same means. The œsophagus or gullet opens from the branchial sac, which is indeed regarded as probably an expansion of the upper part of it—a dilated pharynx. Under the branchial sac is the stomach; and the alimentary canal, which is more or less tortuous, finally returns upon itself, so that the two orifices are not far separate. The liver consists of follicles produced into tubes, and communicating with the stomach by a single opening. There is a heart and a circulation of blood, with the remarkable peculiarity of alternations in its course, the circulation every now and then pausing and being reversed. The transparency of many of the ascidians permits these and other internal movements to be easily observed. The nervous system is very simple, consisting of a single ganglion, situated between the mouth and the anal orifice, and which sends out filaments to both of them, and other branches over the surface of the mantle. The mantle is capable of contracting suddenly to eject a jet of water, and along with it any body the presence of which is disagreeable. It also contracts and ejects water, if the animal is touched, and this appears to be the only means of defence which these creatures possess. There is no eyes or of other organs of special sense.

Nervous System of Ascidia.

a, mouth; *b*, vent; *c*, ganglion; *d*, the mantle (the external tunic being removed).

The ascidians are found in all seas, an constitute an important part of the food o Some of them are occasionally used as hum as *Cynthia microcosmus* on the shores of th terranean. Many of them are very l attain a size of five or six inches ... when touched, eject water to a consider the largest of them to about three feet. fixed by the base, in their mature state, to ... substance, as a rock or seaweed; sometimes



Section of Social Ascidian.

a, mouth; *b*, vent; *c*, stomach; *d*, intestinal ca *e*, common tubular stem.

intervention of a stalk or peduncle. I kinds (*Social Ascidians*), the peduncles of a of individuals are connected by a tubular st to some extent they have a common circul blood, although each has its own heart, resp apparatus, and digestive system; and if a is drawn around the peduncle of one so it off from the common circulation, cir place in it as in a solitary ascidian. ... (more strictly called *Compound Ascidians* designation, however, is by some authors to those just described, whilst these are *Aggregate Ascidians*), the tunics of many an into a mass, and they form systems like zo The compound system sometimes bears a resemblance to an actinia. Very frequently a slimy crust upon algæ, shells, &c., or pro globular or conical masses, 'more like a inanimate matter than a being endowed with —'a curious and interesting internal orga veiled by the coarsest exterior.' The indivi sometimes connected by a gelatinous fleal consists of cellulose, and there is sometimes reous deposition in this connecting substan the compound polypes. The individuals systems have always sprung by gemmati one, and both the solitary and compound propagate by eggs. The young have the active locomotion, resemble tadpoles in form, and swim by means of a vibratile tail, which disappears when they settle, being usually detached by contraction at the base. The sexes are supposed to be distinct only in some of the ascidians. The ovaries are usually large, and the ova are carried away by the stream which passes through the animal. It is in the ascidians that the highest organisation observed, and in which alone a distinction appears. In them, a muscular ring surro mouth, and can be closed to exclude w to enter. Within this aperture fringe of tentacula, short and ... and minutely divided. In the co... gemmation does not begin till the ... has been fully developed; thereafter,

Ascidian

, according to the plan upon which
ystem is constructed, and 'the pro-
of the germ-mass finally exhausts
n of male and female organs, in
again mysteriously renewed under
the spermatozoon and the germinal
combination of which the reproduc-
is its course.'
—AN ZOOPHYTES (*Zoophyta Asci-*
used to designate those zoophytes
form the class *Polyzoa* of Thomp-
Ehrenberg, and which in certain
organisation resemble the A.,
respects they widely differ from
gonidium and *Alcyonella*, already
article *Alcyonium*, belong to this class.
and ZOOPHYTE.

PIADA'CEÆ, or ASCLEPIA'DEÆ, a
der of dicotyledonous or exogenous plants,
ba. with twining stems, almost
y juice. The leaves are entire, and
between their stalks in place of stipules.
pe ar in their structure, although
and . The calyx is divided
corolla into five lobes; there
, the stigma has five angles.
are usually united so as to form a
h is generally furnished with a coronet of
hood-shaped appendages; the anthers are
pollen grains cohering in wax-like
fall out of the anther cells, and
d to glands at the angles of the
two ovaries and two styles very
and often very short, with one
common to both. The fruit consists
or, by abortion, of one only, having
ated seeds with thin albumen, the
terminating in long down. There
y one thousand known species, chiefly

Vincetoxicum officinale.
a, root; *b*, fruit; *c*, a single seed.

climates. Some of them are culti-
and hothouses, upon account of
beautiful flowers, among the most
which are some of the species of *Asclepias*
Swallow-wort; perhaps none of them is
more highly or deservedly esteemed than *Stephanotis floribunda*, the fragrance of which equals its beauty, and which, since its introduction into British hothouses, has been sought for the bridal-garlands of the highest aristocracy. No hothouse climber is better known than *Hoya carnosa*, at each flower of which a drop of honey is always found to hang. A number of species are medicinal, as Indian Sarsaparilla (q. v.), (*Hæmidesmus Indicus*); Mudar (q. v.) (*Calotropis gigantea*), so highly prized in the East Indies; *Sarcostemma glaucum*, the Ipecacuanha of Venezuela; *Tylophora asthmatica* and *Secamone emetica*, the roots of which are used as emetics, and in smaller doses as cathartics, and the former of which is reckoned among the most valuable medicinal plants of India; *Cynanchum acutum*, which yields a purgative called Montpelier Scammony, and *Vincetoxicum officinale*, which possesses similar properties. Argel (q. v.), much used for adulterating senna, belongs to this order.—The down of the seeds is sometimes employed as a substitute for silk or cotton (see ASCLEPIAS); and the stems of not a few species afford useful fibres, as those of the *Asclepias Syriaca* (see ASCLEPIAS), the Mudar (q. v.) and other species of *Calotropis*, natives of India and Persia, *Hoya viridiflora*, *Holostemma Rheedianum*, &c. The Mudar or Yercum fibre is very highly extolled by Dr Royle (*Fibrous Plants of India*). The bark of *Marsdenia tenacissima*, a small climbing-plant, yields a fibre called *Jetee*, of which the Rajmahal mountaineers make bowstrings, remarkable for their great elasticity, which they are supposed in some measure to owe to the presence of caoutchouc. The fibre of *M. Roylei* is used in Nepal. *Orthanthera viminea*, which grows at the base of the Himalayas, and has long leafless wandlike stems of ten feet in height, yields a fibre of remarkable length and tenacity, and which is supposed to be peculiarly suited for rope-making. The fibres of *Leptadenia Jacquemontiana* and *Periploca aphyllum* are used in Sinde for making the ropes and bands used in wells, as water does not rot them.—The milky juice of most species of A. is acrid, but in some it is bland, and they are used for food, as is the milk itself of the Kiriaghuna or Cow-plant of Ceylon (*Gymnema lactiferum*). A few species, as *Marsdenia tinctoria*, a native of Silhet, yield indigo of excellent quality. The flowers of the genus *Stapelia* have a strong smell of carrion, and flies sometimes lay their eggs upon them, as it were by mistake.—No species of A. is a native of Britain.—The order is generally regarded as nearly allied to Apocynaceæ.

ASCLEPIADES, a Greek physician, born at Prusa, in Bithynia, who flourished during the early part of Cicero's life. He has been confounded with several other persons of the same name, and, in consequence, our accounts concerning him are both confused and contradictory. He seems to have wandered about considerably before he finally settled at Rome, as we read of his being at Alexandria, Parium on the Propontis, and Athens. It is not known either when he was born or when he died. A. was opposed to the principles of Hippocrates in medicine. Pliny, who professes very little respect for him, reduces his medicinal remedies to five: abstinence from flesh, abstinence from wine under certain circumstances, friction, walking, and 'gestation' or carriage exercise, by which he proposed to open the pores, and let the corpuscles which caused disease escape in perspiration; for his leading doctrine was, that all disease rose from an inharmonious distribution of the small, formless corpuscles of which the body was composed. He is said to have been very popular with the Romans on account of his pleasant and simple cures. His maxim was, that a physician ought to cure surely, swiftly, and agreeably

—a thing which, unfortunately, is not always possible. A. is also alleged to have been the first who distinguished between acute and chronic diseases, but his knowledge of anatomy was apparently very slight. The fragments of his which remain have been gathered together, corrected, and published by Gumpert, under the title, *Asclepiadis Bithyni Fragmenta* (Weimar, 1798).

ASCLE'PIAS, or SWALLOW-WORT, a genus of plants, the type of the natural order *Asclepiadaceæ*. The corolla is wheel-shaped and reflexed; the coronet fleshy, and each of its hooded tips has a horn. The species are generally upright—seldom climbing and twining—herbaceous plants with opposite, whorled, or alternate leaves. They are mostly American. The flowers are disposed in simple umbels between the leaf-stalks.—*A. Syriaca*, Syrian or Virginian Swallow-wort, sometimes called Virginian Silk, appears to be a native of North America, and not of Syria, as was supposed. It is frequently cultivated in flower-gardens. It has an unbranched stem 4—7 feet high; thick, ovate leaves, covered with a grayish down on the under side; and large, stalked, nodding umbels of many dull red flowers, which diffuse a strong and sweetish odour. The whole plant is full of an acrid white milk, which contains caoutchouc. The young shoots are eaten in North America like asparagus, as those of *A. stipitacea* are in Arabia. A brown well-tasted sugar is prepared in Canada from the flowers; and the silk-like down of the seeds has been used for the manufacture of textile fabrics, either alone, or along with wool or silk, but is more frequently employed for the preparation of wadding, and for stuffing mattresses and pillows. The plant appears, however, to be chiefly valuable for the fibre of its stalks, which is used for the manufacture of thread, cloth, ropes, nets, &c., in many parts of North America, and upon account of which it has been recommended for general cultivation in Europe. The fibre is said to be of very superior quality. The plant rapidly extends by its creeping roots, and readily becomes a weed, where it has been introduced.—The roots of several other North American species are used as diaphoretics and expectorants, as *A. incarnata*, *A. tuberosa*, &c. The latter is a very ornamental garden-flower, and is called Butterfly Weed and Pleurisy Root in the United States, where it is frequent on stony and sandy grounds. *A. Curassavica* is called Wild Ipecacuanha in the West Indies, and a decoction of it is used by the negroes as an emetic and purgative.

A'SCOLI (anciently, *Asculum Picenum*), an old city of Italy, and formerly the capital of a delegation in the States of the Church, lat. 42° 50′ N., long. 13° 37′ E. It is built on a hill, on the right bank of the Tronto, which formed the boundary between the late Roman and Neapolitan territories. Pop. (1872) 22,937. From the Adriatic, it is distant 16 miles west; from Ancona, 53 south. Its harbour (Porto d'Ascoli) has some coasting-trade, and is defended by two forts. The town is beautifully situated, commanding a fine view of the fertile valley through which the river flows, and of the rugged Apennines, which here rise to an elevation of 7212 feet.

In ancient times, it was inhabited by the Picени, the descendants of a colony of Sabines, who maintained their independence against the Romans until 268 B.C. Nearly two centuries after, they took a prominent part in the Social War; and on the taking of their town by Pompeius Strabo, were subjected to the severest punishments. The town was finally annexed to the Papal States by Pope Clement V. in 1426.

ASELLI, ASELLIO, or ASELLIUS, CASPAR, a celebrated Italian physician, was born at Cremona about the year 1581. He served at first as a military surgeon, but afterwards became professor of anatomy and surgery at Padua. In 1622, while at Milan, where he was in the habit of spending a great portion of his time, he discovered the lacteal vessels. Before A.'s time, anatomists had supposed that the chyle was carried from the intestines into the liver by the mesenteric veins. Happening one day to dissect a living dog, he noticed for the first time the multitude of little vessels, which suck up the nutritive portion of the food. At first, he took them for nerves, and did not pay particular attention to them; but on pricking one with the point of his scalpel, a white liquid spurted out, and the discovery flashed on him in a moment. He seems, however, never to have understood or described them with complete accuracy. He died at the age of 45, leaving a treatise on the subject of his discovery, which was published a year after his death. It is entitled *De Lactibus, sive Lacteis Venis, Quarto Vasorum Mesaraicorum Genere, Novo Inventis, Dissertatio*, and has several times been reprinted.

It is curious to reflect that such men as Gaspard Hoffman and Harvey zealously combated the opinions of A. It was nearly half a century before professional men admitted that a great discovery had been made in anatomy. See LACTEALS.

ASE'LLUS, in Ichthyology, a generic name now disused, but by which the cod and other *Gadida* were formerly sometimes designated. It is retained in the pharmacopœias, in the name of Cod-liver Oil, *Oleum jecoris aselli*.—The same generic name is now employed, in a different department of natural history, to denote a genus of small Isopod Crustaceans, one of which, *A. aquaticus*, is common in stagnant ponds in Britain, and is sometimes called the Water Hog-louse. This genus is the type of a family, *Asellidæ*.

A'SES. The singular of this name in Old Norse is *As*, pl. *Æsir*; in Gothic, *Ans*; in Saxon, *Os* (*Eo*). The A. are a race of gods in Northern or Scandinavian Mythology (q. v.), though not the oldest, yet the most powerful, like the Jupiter dynasty among the Greeks. They are usually considered as numbering twelve gods, and as many goddesses. The gods are—Odin, Thor, Baldur, Niord, Freyr, Tyr, Bragi, Heimdal, Widar, Wali, Uller, and Forseti; the best known of the goddesses—Frigga, Freyja, Idunna, Eira, and Saga. The worship of the A., or the Odin religion, was rooted not only among the nations of Scandinavia, but among the Germanic races generally, at least in its outlines. Besides other traces, proofs of its prevalence are to be found in a multitude of Gothic, Saxon, and Old High German proper names, many of which continue still in use, though their connection with German paganism passes unperceived: Oswald, Esmond, Oswin, Anselm, Ansgar, &c.

ASGILL, JOHN, an eccentric English *littérateur*, born about the middle of the 17th c. He studied for the bar, and at intervals during the whole of his checkered life transacted legal business in some form or other; but having early displayed a predilection for writing political pamphlets, he soon became involved, in spite of his cleverness, in serious pecuniary difficulties. Fortunately for *him*, parliament had just passed an act (1699) for the resumption of forfeited estates in Ireland, and commissioners were appointed to settle claims. A bright vision [illegible] across the mind of the much-harassed [illegible] sailed for the sister isle, and found [illegible] try wrangling in lawsuits. I[illegible] favour of the commissioners, [illegible] lucrative practice; and he even [illegible] influence to obtain a seat in the I[illegible] Some time, however, before taki[illegible]

A. published a most extraordinary
l *An Argument proving that,*
Covenant of Eternal Life revealed
s, Man may be translated hence
l Life without passing through
the Humane Nature of Christ
not thus be translated till he had
ugh Death (1700). Much to A.'s
public flew into a rage against this
unction; the Irish parliament voted it a
us libel, and the astonished author was
rom the House after four days. In 1705,
ed to England, and entered the English
as er for Bramber, in Sussex. But
unlucky pamphlet haunted him
at last proved a Nemesis; for the
resolving to be not less virtuous than
ook up the treatise, condemned it to be
common hangman, as profane and
, and expelled A. on the 18th December
this his circumstances rapidly grew
as at last he found something like peace
ng's Bench and the Fleet, between which
s his excursions were confined for the term
l life. Here he continued to practise
, and—for he never succeeded in over-
akness—to indite innumerable pam-
al and theological topics. He died

raxinus), a genus of trees belonging to
rder *Oleaceæ*, and distinguished by very
owers, in which the calyx is obsolete,
orolla either wanting or 3—4-partite; the

Common Ash.

a *samara*, a seed-vessel foliaceous at the
. The leaves are deciduous, and are
a terminal leaflet. There are about
, mostly natives of Europe and of North
—The COMMON ASH (*F. excelsior*) grows
middle and south of Europe and north
as is an undoubted native of Britain. The
e quite naked; the leaves have five or six
leaflets. The flowers appear before the
ring, and the tree is not covered with
the season is far advanced, losing them
n autumn. It is, however, a most beau-
rageous tree, highly ornamental in
parks or hedgerows it is extremely
grass or crops immediately around
to the height of 100—150 feet, gener-
smooth stem. The wood is white,
hard, much valued by wheel-wrights,
, coach-makers, joiners, and turners. It
llent for fuel. Sometimes it becomes
disposition of its fibres, and finely
n prized by cabinet-makers. The
young trees is almost as valuable as
old. Indeed, the value of the timber is
greatest in trees of which the growth has been rapid, as it exhibits the characteristic toughness in

Common Ash.

the highest degree. The A. prefers a loamy soil, but grows in almost any, and succeeds in situations too elevated or too exposed for most other trees. It has of late been extensively planted in elevated situations in some parts of the north of Scotland, and there, in the more sheltered glens, it grows to a large size. Cultivation has produced and perpetuated a number of varieties, of which the most remarkable are the *Weeping A.*, with boughs bent almost straight down to the ground; the *Curled-leaved A.*, with dark-green wrinkled or curled leaves; and the *Entire-leaved A.*, a very curious variety, with many or all of the leaves simple (not pinnated), which has been erroneously regarded by

Common Ash.

a, a branch with leaves; *b*, flowers; *c*, fruit (on a considerably larger scale than the leaves and flowers).

some botanists as a distinct species, and named *F. simplicifolia*, *F. heterophylla*, &c.—The SMALL-LEAVED A. (*F. parvifolia*) and the LENTISK A. (*F. lentiscifolia*) are both natives of the shores of the Mediterranean, and are very graceful and ornamental trees.—The AMERICAN A., or WHITE A. (*F. Americana*), is readily distinguished from the Common A. by its lighter bark and paler green leaves. The flowers have a calyx, and the leaflets are shortly stalked and entire

(those of the Common A. being sessile and serrated). It is abundant in New Brunswick and Canada, but becomes rare to the south of New Jersey. The trunk often rises more than forty feet undivided. The wood is used for the same purposes as that of the Common A.—The RED A., or BLACK A. (*F. pubescens*), is very similar, but of smaller size, and has a deep brown bark. It is most abundant in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, especially in swampy ground.—The BLACK A., or WATER A. of the New England States, New Brunswick, &c. (*F. sambucifolia*), is a large tree with buds of a deep blue colour.—The BLUE A. of Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, &c. (*F. quadrangulata*), is also a large tree. The branches are quadrangular, the young shoots having on the angles four membranes which extend their whole length.—The GREEN A. (*F. juglandifolia*), readily recognised by the brilliant green of its young shoots, is chiefly found in the middle states; and the CAROLINA A. (*F. Caroliniana*), remarkable for the great size of its leaflets, chiefly in the southern states. Besides these, North America produces a considerable number of other species or varieties. The wood of all of them is used for somewhat similar purposes to that of the Common A.—In the south of Europe grows the MANNA A., or FLOWERING A. (*F. Ornus*, called *Ornus Europæa* by some botanists), whose flowers have a 4-partite calyx, and four small yellowish-white petals. The tree has much resemblance to the Common A. From it the substance called MANNA (q. v.) is obtained by means of transverse incisions in the bark; but in very favourable situations, it flows spontaneously during the greatest heat of summer. Manna is chiefly collected in Calabria and Sicily. A nearly allied species, *F. rotundifolia*, a native of Greece and the Ionian Islands, yields it also in perhaps equal quantity. The Common A. is said sometimes to produce the same exudation in the same warm climates.

The MOUNTAIN A. is the ROWAN TREE (q. v.), and belongs to a different natural order. Its resemblance to the A. is chiefly in its leaves.

The A. has a peculiar importance in Scandinavian mythology. The first man and woman formed were Ask and Embla (Ash and Elm). The court of the gods is represented in the Edda as held under an A., called Yggdrasil (q. v.). Connected, perhaps, with these traditions is the superstitious belief in A. twigs as a charm against witchcraft and magic.

ASHANTI', or ASHANTEE', a negro kingdom in Western Africa, on the north of the Gold Coast, in lat. 6°—8° N., and long. 0°—3° W. It is mountainous, well watered and healthy, except in the lower alluvial districts. The principal rivers are the Volta and the Assinie. The population is estimated at about a million. The land is extremely fertile, producing maize, millet, rice, yams, tobacco, sugar, cocoa, the pine-apple, and other fine fruits, with gums, dye-woods, and timber. The principal exports are gold-dust and palm-oil, together with slaves. The natives are remarkable for their skill in certain articles of manufacture; their cottons are beautiful, as also their earthenware and sword-blades. The capital is Coomassie (q. v.).

The beginnings of the A. kingdom are obscure, but its traditions point to an emigration some hundreds of years ago from a region north of the Kong Mountains, probably caused by the spread of the Mohammedan empire of Timbuctoo. Our first positive glimpse of it is got in the year 1700, when Coomassie was made the capital by Osai Tootoo I., who conquered Akim, Assin, Gaman, Denkira, and other neighbouring states, and became a sort of feudal sovereign over a large district. In their course of conquest over the Fantees, the Ashantis became involved in war with the British (1807—1826), and were finally driven from the sea-coast. In 1873—1874, in consequence of disputes arising in connection with the cession of the Dutch forts to Britain, they were again involved in a war with the same power; but there is reason to believe that the crushing defeat which they have sustained at the hands of Sir Garnet Wolseley has effectually curbed their aggressiveness. The more intimate knowledge of them thus acquired has confirmed the report that the people are sanguinary in disposition and in their religious ceremonies, but courageous, and of more intelligence than the surrounding tribes. Human sacrifices are said to be very common.

A'SHBOURNE, a small town in a rich district near the left bank of the river Dove, in the west of Derbyshire. It lies on a steep south slope, with high hills on the north. It has a cruciform church, as old as the 13th c., with triplet lancet windows, which was restored in 1845 at the cost of £2000. Pop. in 1871, 2083, chiefly engaged in the cotton, lace, and iron manufacture, and in the cheese and malt trade. At A., in 1644, the parliamentary troops defeated those of Charles I.

A'SHBURTON, LORD (ALEXAN[DER] B[ARING]), born in 1774, a younger son of Sir F[rancis] Bart., was, in early life, for many y[ears] cially engaged in the United Sta[tes] Canadas, in the service of the great l[ondon] cantile house founded by his fath[er] death of the latter, in 1810, he beca[me] of the firm of Baring Brothers & Co., a[nd] was elected M.P. for Taunton. He rep[resented] that place, Callington, and Thetford, on the interest, till 1831, and in 1832 was return[ed] North Essex as a moderate Conservative. In short administration of Sir Robert Peel (18[41]) he was President of the Board of Trade, and [Master] the Mint, and was created Baron A. by [Peel] 1835. This title had been conferred, [in 1782] on the celebrated lawyer, John Dun[ning], married Alexander Baring's aunt, and [became] extinct on the death of his cousin, the second Lord A., in 1823. In 1842, Lord A.'s knowledge [of] ness, and thorough acquaintance with [American] institutions, customs, and modes of thought, him to be appointed special ambassador [to the] United States, to settle the north-west b[oundary] question, and other disputes, that then threa[tened] involve the two countries in war. In Aug[ust] same year, he concluded the famous tre[aty] ington, commonly called the A. Treaty, by [which] frontier line between the state of Maine an[d] was definitively agreed to. By this tre[aty] twelfths of the disputed ground, and [the] settlement of Madawaska, were given to [the] States, and only five-twelfths of the [disputed ground] Britain; but it secured a better militar[y] England, and included heights comma[nding] Lawrence, which the award of the king [of Holland], who had been chosen arbiter, had as[signed] Americans. By the 8th and 9th articl[es] are made for putting an end to the Afri[can] trade; and the tenth article provides for extradition of suspected criminals. Lord A. free-trade, but strongly supported the pe[el] system when first proposed by Rowla[nd] 1837. He formed a valuable collection paintings. His death took place M[arch] 13. His eldest son, William Bingham [Baring], Lord A. of this creation, born in 1[799] at Oriel College, Oxford, entered [Parliament] as member for Taunton, and in [1835] appointed Secretary to [the Admiralty]. February 1845 he became [First Lord] Forces, and Treasurer of the

[illegible] of the Legion of Honour, and in [illegible] ent of the Geographical Society.

[illegible] a small town in the south of [illegible] ly consists of two paved streets [illegible] It has a church in the Per- [illegible] a tower 94 feet high. The [illegible] employed in the mines, serge manufacture. Till 1868, A. [illegible] ber to parliament.

[illegible] U'CH, a small town near [illegible] of [illegible], a tributary of the Trent, in [illegible] Leicestershire. Pop. in 1871, 7302. [illegible] is the principal manufacture, but [illegible] lting, wool-stapling, iron-smelting, [illegible] tures of stockings, hats, and fire- [illegible] ed on. In the neighbourhood are [illegible] line springs containing common salt in [illegible] n than the sea; and ironstone, lime- [illegible] ay are found. A canal 30 miles long, [illegible] ck, connects the town with Coventry. [illegible] of A. Castle stand on a height on the [illegible] of [illegible] town. Mary, Queen of Scots, was [illegible] n this castle. St Helen's Church, [illegible] cture with a tower, is the burying- [illegible] family, as well as of Selina, [illegible] don, the founder of the sect [illegible] Huntingdon's Connection.

[illegible] AZOTUS.

the remains of animal and vegetable [illegible] burning. It is not strictly correct to [illegible] ashes of a mineral. When lead, for [illegible] ed to heat, it turns to dross, which [illegible] es of A., but is merely the lead [illegible] gen. In the same way, volcanic [illegible] called, are only a finer kind of [illegible] solidified scum of molten lava. [illegible] organic substances destroyed by fire [illegible] of the fixed salts contained in these sub- In land-plants, the most important are potash, along with silica and lime; in sea- [illegible] takes the place of potash. By lixiviation [illegible] potash or soda is dissolved and sepa- [illegible] insoluble mass, and is then purified [illegible]. The A. of sea-plants contain [illegible] iodine. Peat and turf ashes con- [illegible] lica, more or less clay and sand; the [illegible] pit-coal, which sometimes contains

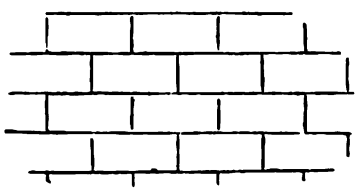
[illegible] the A. or inorganic ingredients of [illegible] lered unessential to their existence. [illegible] of vegetable chemistry has taught [illegible] portion of saline food is also to the development of plants. The A. of the different kinds of vegetable [illegible] since become of great interest.

[illegible] animal bodies do not differ greatly [illegible] vegetables. Bone-A. consist essen- [illegible] ne united with phosphoric acid. This [illegible] rery va [illegible] ble as manure for grain. In [illegible] ri [illegible] A. from burnt wood form an [illegible] trade. They are much used [illegible] boiling, bleaching, dyeing, glass- [illegible] ed-A. are also used in washing and processes, as a cheap preparation of

[illegible] head with A. has long been a [illegible] ning among eastern nations, deepest distress. Instances [illegible] in Scripture. Penitents in Church signified their sorrow [illegible] ke manner, by standing at the kcloth and ashes.' See

[illegible] town on the west of the confluence of the two upper branches of the river Stour, near the middle of Kent. Pop. in 1871, 8458, which has largely increased from its having become the junction station of three great lines of railway. Damask is manufactured here.

A'SHLAR, or A'SHLER, building-stone squared and hewn, as distinguished from rubble, or rough stones which are used as they come from the quarry without being dressed. A. is laid in regular courses in building, and is of various kinds, according to the style of working that side of the stone



Ashlar.

which is to form the facing of the wall. Thus, there are *tooled* A.—the marks of the tooling being either *random* or in *grooves; polished* A., in which the face of the stone is rubbed smooth; and *rustic* A., in which only the joints are accurately hewn, the face of the stone being left projecting irregularly. Quarriers apply the term A. to squared stones before being hewn. In old documents, the term appears under a variety of forms, such as achlere, ashelar, aslure, and estlar.

ASHLEY, LORD. See SHAFTESBURY.

ASHMOLE, ELIAS, a celebrated antiquary, was born at Lichfield on the 23d May 1617. In 1633, when only sixteen years of age, he commenced the study of law, and five years after, he was admitted to practice as a solicitor in Chancery. During the civil wars, he embraced the side of the Royalists, and was appointed captain in Lord Ashley's regiment, and comptroller of the Ordnance; but at the same time exhibited his love of study by joining Brazenose College, Oxford, where he sedulously applied himself to mathematics, natural philosophy, astronomy, and astrology. In 1646, he became acquainted with several famous astrologers; amongst others, William Lilly, whose conversation had a great charm for him; and in 1650, he published a work of Dr Dee's, to which he subjoined a treatise of his own. Continuing with singular perseverance his researches in this dim region of superstitious philosophy, he was enabled, in the course of two or three years, to issue his *Theatrum Chymicum Britannicum*, which procured for him a high reputation, and the friendship even of men like John Selden. In 1658, appeared his *Way to Bliss*, a work on the philosopher's stone—the last he published in connection with astrology. At the restoration of King Charles various honours and emoluments were conferred upon him. In 1682, he presented to the university of Oxford a very fine collection of rarities, which properly, however, belonged to certain persons of the name of Tradescant. In this transaction he exhibited a rather mean ambition to exclude the rightful owners of the cabinet of curiosities from participating in the honour of the gift, and posterity has unfortunately gratified his wish by calling it the Ashmolean Museum. He died May 18, 1692, leaving behind him a large quantity of manuscript, a considerable portion of which has since been published.

ASHMUN, JEHUDI, an American philanthropist, was born at Champlain, in the state of New York, in 1794. He was educated with a view to the Christian ministry; but eventually became editor,

in Washington, of a monthly magazine called *The Repertory*. In this periodical he advocated the views of the African Colonisation Society for founding a colony of liberated negroes on the west coast of Africa. In 1821 he published a life of the Rev. Samuel Bacon, who had fallen a victim to an unsuccessful attempt to realise these views in the previous year. Learning the difficulties which surrounded a second attempt at planting a settlement in Africa, A. resolved to devote himself to the good work. Receiving an appointment as one of the agents of the African Colonisation Society, he conducted a body of liberated negroes from Baltimore, and landed at Cape Mesurado, the seat of the infant colony, in the autumn of 1822. Dr Ayres and the other agents of the Society having meanwhile abandoned the settlement from severe illness, he assumed the superintendence of affairs as the sole representative of that body. Here, for more than six years, he devoted his powers and his life to the establishing, on a fair and solid basis, this colony, so full of hope for the American negro. He shewed great courage and tact in opposing the united forces of the natives at the outset of his management, and no less ability in after-negotiations with the chiefs, by which the colony acquired very considerable accessions to its territory. His health at length becoming sadly impaired, he bade adieu to the settlement, then recently called Liberia, in March 1828, and landed at Newhaven, Connecticut, in a state of great exhaustion. After a brief revival, he relapsed, and died on the 28th August 1828, in his thirty-fifth year. His remains were honoured with a public funeral. A memoir of his life, by R. R. Gurley, appeared at Washington in 1835.

A'SHTAROTH. See ASTARTE.

A'SHTON-IN-MAKERFIELD, a small township in a carboniferous district, in the Middle of South Lancashire. Pop. in 1871, 7463, chiefly engaged in collieries, and in the cotton manufacture.

A'SHTON-UNDER-LINE, a town in the south-east of Lancashire. Pop. in 1871, 37,389. It returns one member to parliament. It is a great seat of the cotton manufacture. The population is also employed in bleaching, dyeing, and calico-printing, in collieries, and in the manufacture of machines, bricks, &c. To the west of the town is a large moss or shaking bog, containing fir-trees full of turpentine, and black oak, with a loamy bottom at the depth of 10 feet.

ASH-WEDNESDAY, the first day of Lent (q. v.), so called from the Roman Catholic ceremony of strewing ashes on the head as a sign of penitence. This custom, probably introduced by Gregory the Great (590—604), was sanctioned by Pope Celestin III. in 1191, and afterwards generally prevailed. Before mass, the ashes were consecrated on the altar, sprinkled with holy water, and signed three times with the cross, while the priest recited the words, *Memento quod cinis es, et in cinerem reverteris!* ('Remember that thou art dust, and must return to dust!') Next, they were strewed on the heads of the officiating priests, the clergy, and the assembled people. The ashes were said to be those of the palms consecrated on the preceding Palm Sunday (q. v.)—The Protestant Church in Germany does not celebrate A. In the Church of England, it is observed by the stricter members, but without anything of the ceremony from which it derives its name; and the *commination*—a series of denunciations against impenitent offenders—is appointed to be read in the service for this day.

A'SIA, the largest division of land on the globe, generally regarded as the birthplace of the human race, and the most ancient seat of civilisation. Its superficial area, including islands, has been estimated at from 16 to 20,000,000 square miles, and its population at 650,000,000. This enormous mass of continent lies almost entirely in the northern division of the eastern hemisphere, while its world of islands extends across the equator on the south-east. On three sides, it is surrounded by the ocean; but on the west, is partially connected with Africa and Europe. The continental mass is more than four times as large as Europe. Some idea may be formed of its vast extent by the calculation that, though it contains more than half of the whole population of the globe, the number of its inhabitants is so small compared with its area, that Europe may be said to be three times more densely populated. The coast-line is about 33,000 miles in length; and on the south and east, is diversified by seas, bays, and gulfs, affording advantages to navigation and commerce far superior to those of Africa, but inferior to those possessed by Europe and America. On the west side, the Dardanelles and the Sea of Marmora may be regarded as but a slight interruption of the great table-lands of Europe and A. which form the continent of the old world.

Horizontal Configuration.—A. is bounded N. by the Arctic Ocean; E., by the Pacific Ocean; S., by the Indian Ocean; and on the W., by Europe, the Black Sea, Archipelago, Mediterranean, and the Red Sea. On the extreme north-east, the peninsular land of Kamstchatka is separated from North America only by the narrow Behring's Strait. On the south-east, a bridge of numerous islands—Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Papua, &c.—extends towards Australia. The body of the continent may be regarded as a trapezium, of which the offsets, consisting of several large peninsulas, bear some resemblance to those of Europe; though in A. everything is on a more gigantic scale. Thus, one of these offsets, the peninsula of Arabia, is four times as large as France. On the west extends the peninsula of A. Minor, or Anatolia, divided from Europe by the Strait of Constantinople, the Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles, with the Black Sea on the north, and the Levant on the south. On the south of A., the peninsular configuration may be divided into three principal masses, corresponding to the southern coast of Europe: Arabia may be considered as a counterpart to Spain; Italy, with its neighbour-island, Sicily, is represented by Hindustan and Ceylon; and, as in Europe, the broken Grecian peninsula is connected with A. by a bridge of numerous islands extending on the south-east, so, in A., the Eastern Peninsula (or India beyond the Ganges), lying between the Bay of Bengal and the Chinese Sea, is connected with Australia on the south-east by the vast Eastern Archipelago. This world of islands is divided into the several groups of the Philippine Islands, Borneo, Celebes, Moluccas Islands, Sumatra and Java, Timor and the numerous adjoining isles. The east coast of A. is characterised by the deep indentations of the Pacific Ocean in the Chinese Sea, Yellow Sea, and Seas of Japan, Okhotsk, and Kamstchatka; all fringed with numerous islands, and separated by the peninsula of Corea, the island of Saghalien, and the peninsula of Kamstchatka. On the north, the Siberian coasts are also deeply indented; but rather by the embouchures of large rivers than by arms of the sea. The whole length of continental A., from the Dardanelles to the Japan Islands, is 6000 miles; its breadth, from Malacca to the north-east cape of Siberia, is 5300 miles; with its islands it extends from 10° S. lat. to 78° N., and from 26° E. long. to 190° E. or 170° W. Such an extent of surface must include all varieties of soil, climate, and production.

ATLANTIC OCEAN
A R C T I C
SWEDEN
RUSSIA
EUROPE
Baltic Sea
North Sea
Gulf of Bothnia
Black Sea
TURKEY
TURKEY IN ASIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CASPIAN SEA
PERSIA
ARABIA
Red Sea
Gulf of Aden
ARABIAN SEA
Hadramaut
ABYSSINIA
BELOOCHISTAN
Maldive Islands
INDIAN O
ASIA

Behring's Strait
Kamchatka
Behring Sea
Okhotsk Sea
JAPAN ISLANDS
Sea of Japan
Yellow Sea
Eastern Sea
Formosa
Luzon
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Mindanao
Celebes Sea
Gulf of Siam
Tonquin
Siam
Cochin China
Pegu
Ava
Arracan
Bengal
Java Sea
Timor Sea
Arafura Sea
Banda Sea
Moluccas
Carolines
Pelews
Equator
AUSTRALIA
L A N D S

rtical Configuration.—Equally grand are the
res of this continent when regarded vertically:
s the most extensive lowlands, the most immense
-lands, the highest chains of mountains, and the
elevated summits in the world; tracts doomed
erlasting snow or scorching sterility, salubrious
ys of continual verdure, and noisome jungles of
ankest growth. The table-lands of Asia occupy
rs of the whole continent. The eastern
r is 2000 miles broad; the western, less than
. The whole mass may be regarded as consist-
of two parts, separated, or, to speak more
erly, perhaps, connected by the lofty, snow-
red mountain-isthmus of the Hindu Kush. These
t divisions are styled respectively: 1. The
ern Plateau, including the Table-land of Tibet
the Desert of Gobi; 2. The Western Plateau,
Table-land of Iran. The former, a vast four-
l mass, considerably larger than the whole area
Europe, extends 2800 miles from the mountain
s, Hindu Kush, to the Tonquin Gulf in China.
the south, the plateau is divided from the plains
Hindustan by the Himalaya Mountains, which
a mean height of 18,000 feet, while several of
r summits rise from 25,000 to 29,000 feet above
level of the sea. Even the passes over this
ss range of mountains are almost as high as
mit of Mont Blanc. Here Dhwalagiri, long
med to be the Mont Blanc of the Himalayas,
with precisely the same signification, viz., 'white
ntain,' rising to 26,826 feet, leaves all the peaks
the Andes far below; while Kunchinjinga reaches
3,156 feet, and Deolunga, now believed to be
highest summit in the world, attains the height
feet. Cultivation is found at 10,000 feet
ve sea; while flocks graze some 4000 feet
er. In Eastern Tatary and Tibet, the ground is
vated at a height only 2000 feet lower than the
t of Mont Blanc. On the east, the table-land
west is bounded by the Chinese mountain-ranges
ling and Khing-khan, which, towards the south,
connected with wild Chinese alpine regions of
h little is known; while, towards the north, they
d into another mountainous region, where the
ra chain of Shangpe-shan opposes to the
ic Ocean a wall of rock 3000 feet high. On
north, the chain of the Altai Mountains, 3000
long, and divided into several groups, forms
boundary between the great plateau and the
of Siberia, which is larger than the whole area
rope.

e Western Plateau, or Table-land of Iran, rises
rally about 5000 feet above the sea; but in some
to 7000 feet; descending again, however, in the
al and southern parts, where it spreads out into
y and gravelly plains, to 2000 and 1200 feet. It
seen divided into three sections: the Plateau of
proper; the Median-Armenian Alpine region;
the Anatolian Table-land. The *first* division,
e Plateau of Iran, has a mean altitude of about
feet. Salt plains, with gravel and sand, form
portions of the surface, and mountain-walls on
des hem it in. On the northern edge ascend the
an mountains; on the east, the steep and lofty
lel chains of the Indo Persian boundary moun-
; and on the south, the plateau, for 1000 miles
g the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea, is bounded
the wild terraced regions of Beloochistan and
stan. The *second* division, or the Median-
nian Alpine region, includes the mountainous
ns of Armenia, Kurdistan, and Azerbijan.
the table-land is compressed to about half its
ral width. From this plateau, of which a part
tioned in Scripture as 'the mountains of
,' rises the volcanic cone commonly styled
Ararat, to the height of 17,212 feet above
the sea-level. Anatolia, the *third* and most westerly division of the table-land, is bounded along the shores of the Black Sea by mountains rising to 6000 or 7000 feet, and partly covered with forests; on the south-west, the Taurus chain of mountains, beginning in the islands of Rhodes, Cos, &c., extends in several ramifications through a part of Asia Minor, runs in a single range along the coast of Karamania, and in the east has an occasional height of 12,000 and 13,000 feet.

The Western Plateau, thus divided into three sections, is full of diversities of soil and scenery. A great part of the table-land of Iran (or Persia) is extremely barren and arid, which serves to explain the enthusiastic terms in which the Persian poets have spoken of the beautiful valleys found here and there among the mountains. The coasts of the Persian Gulf are sandy wastes. Between Irak and Khorassan, a desert of clay, covered with salt and nitre, varied only by patches of verdure here and there, occupies 27,000 square miles, and joins the wide sandy desert of Kerman. A great part of Beloochistan is an arid plain, covered with red sand.

Besides these central masses, there are several detached mountain chains and plateaus. The Ural Mountains, forming the land-boundary between Europe and Asia, and separated from the Altai chain by salt lakes, marshes, and deserts, is divided into three sections: the Northern, Central, and Southern Ural. The second of these divisions is rich in minerals—gold, platina, magnetic iron, and copper. On the isthmus between the Black Sea and the Caspian, the alpine ridges of the Caucasus reach a height of from 10,000 to 11,000 feet, while individual peaks tower up to the gigantic height of 17,000 or 18,000 feet, as, for instance, the still faintly volcanic peak of Elbrus, the exact elevation of which is 18,493 feet, and Mount Kasbeck, 16,523 feet. The high lands of Syria rise gradually from the neighbouring deserts to the height of 10,000 feet in Libanus and Anti-libanus, and slope steeply in terraces down to the narrow coast-lands of Phœnicia and Palestine. The plateau of the Deccan, in India, rises to an average height of from 1500 to 2000 feet, and is divided on the west from the narrow coast-level of Malabar by the Western Ghauts, 4700 feet; on the east, from the broad level coast of Coromandel, by the Eastern Ghauts. On the north, it is divided from the low plains of Hindustan by the Vindhya and Malwah mountain-chains; and, on the south, the Ghauts unite at the sources of the Cavery, and form the Neilgherry (or Blue Mountains, 8760 feet high), the loftiest in the peninsular portion of Hindustan. These slope steeply down to a low narrow plain, then rise again to a considerable height in the Alagherry range, sink into the sea at Cape Comorin, and reappear in the group of Adam's Peak in Ceylon. The Malayan Mountains, or chains of the Eastern Peninsula, may be regarded as offsets of the Sine-shan, and extend to the extreme south point of A., reappearing with volcanic peaks in the Sunda Islands.

The six great *Lowlands* of A. are, 1st, The *Siberian* lowland in the north, which is by far the largest. It stretches from the northern declivities of the Altai and Ural Mountains to the shores of the Arctic Sea, and is, for the most part, cold, gloomy, and barren. 2d, The *Bucharian* lowland, or the wild sterile waste between the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral, much of it beneath the level of the sea. It is composed to a large extent of gravelly soil. 3d, The *Syrian and Arabian* lowland, the south of which is hot and arid, with almost no oases; but the north is watered by the Tigris and Euphrates. 4th, The lowlands of

Hindustan, comprising the great Indian desert, 400 miles broad, together with the vast and fertile plains of Bengal, generally called the Valley of the Ganges, and ranking, perhaps, next to China as a region of fertility. 5th, The *Indo-Chinese* lowlands, comprising the long levels of the Burman empire, through which flows the Irrawady, and the rich regions of Cambodia and Siam. 6th, The *Chinese* lowlands, commencing in the east at Pekin, and extending as far south as the Tropic of Cancer, containing 210,000 square miles, or an area seven times the size of Lombardy. It is watered by a copious river-system and numerous canals, and may be regarded as a vast garden, exceeding in productiveness all other parts of the world.

Hydrography.—The hydrography of A. displays as striking a variety as the structure of its land. The alpine regions send down in some directions torrents of water, which form rivers almost rivalling in magnificence those of America, and which flow for hundreds of miles through plains of unsurpassed fertility. On the other hand, there are wide stretching tracts, like the deserts of Africa, destitute of water, and doomed to eternal sterility. Only one large sheet of water, Lake Hamoon or Seistan (q. v.), refreshes the high table-land of Iran. The low steppe of Turan contains the Caspian Sea (q. v.), the largest of all lakes, and Lake Aral (q. v.). In the valley of Cashmere lies Lake Ular, 40 miles in circumference, and the only considerable sheet of water in the Himalaya chain. At the northern base of this mountain-chain, Lake Palte is remarkable for its annular form. In Tibet and the Altai Mountains, lakes are very numerous.

One of the most striking characteristics of Asian river-systems is found in its double rivers, or two streams rising in the same region, flowing in almost parallel directions, and either uniting, or nearly so, before entering the sea. Among these twin rivers may be mentioned—the Sihon and Gihon, flowing into Lake Aral; the Euphrates and Tigris, in Western A., surrounding the plain of Mesopotamia, uniting at Koona, and together flowing into the Persian Gulf; the Ganges and Brahmaputra; and the Yang-tze-kiang and Hoang-ho, in China, rising near each other, then widely separated in their courses, but again approaching each other, and both falling into the Yellow Sea, only 100 miles apart.

The six great river-systems of A., comprising rivers which will be found fully noticed under their respective names, are—the Mesopotamian, that of North-west India, that of North-east India and Tibet, the Indo-Chinese, the Chinese, and the Siberian. The *first* comprises the two famous streams, the Tigris and Euphrates. The *second* comprises the Indus with its tributaries. The *third* system comprises the Brahmaputra and Ganges. The *fourth* system comprises the rivers of the Indo-Chinese peninsula; the chief of which are the Irrawaddy, the Martaban or Saluen, the Me-nam, and the Me-king or Cambodia. The *fifth* system is the Chinese. It comprises four great streams, all of which flow in an eastern or north-eastern direction into the Pacific: the Hong-kiang, or Canton River; the Yang-tze-kiang (or Son of the Sea); the Hoang-ho, or Yellow River; and the Amur. The *sixth* system comprises the large rivers of Siberia, the principal of which are the Obi, the Yenisei, and the Lena. They all have their sources in the Altaian Mountains; flow north, or nearly so; and for 800 or 900 miles before their embouchure, traverse a dreary, flat, monotonous waste, until their sluggish waters creep into the Frozen Sea.

Geology.—The geological structure of Asia is so complex, the different formations are so broken up and scattered, that a general description would be unintelligible. We must refer to separate notices, where the geological structure and phen circumscribed districts will be given in d the reader will, in this way, be enabled correct impression of the geology of Asia See HIMALAYA, HINDUSTAN, CHINA, S

Natural History.—The vast extent great diversities of climate, natu expect in it a great variety of nat both animal and vegetable. This heightened when we consider how vast continent is divided into separate p mountain ranges of great altitude, and h sive the mountainous tracts themselves a as the great extent of the elevated plate lands, and when we add to these consid of the peculiar character of wide reg sand—level steppes—and extensive d the soil is strongly impregnated with ingly, we find, both in the flora and fa the variety which such considerations mig to expect.

The most northerly part of the continent, differs comparatively little in its product the corresponding parts of Europe and A exhibits the same arctic flora, with diffe ratively inconsiderable. Pines, birch form, as in the other continents, the the north; but upon account of the climate, they do not reach a limit so north Europe, and particularly in the west o Some of the common plants of Europe are as far east as Kamstchatka: the Crowber *trum nigrum*), so plentiful in the moors of is still more plentiful throughout Siberia; *Vaccinia* (Bilberries, &c.) and *Rubi* (Bran abound in the Kamstchatkan forests as in Scandinavia. There are, however, inter ferences. Heaths are comparatively rare flora agreeing in this respect with that of rather than with that of Europe. The lar in Europe occurs only on the central a extends far northward at the mouth of t the utmost limits of arborescent vegetation; a mere variety of the same species, althou been described as distinct. In Kamstchat ferent kind of birch replaces the common Europe as a forest tree, and the Siberian is different from that of the south of Europ in its less frigid regions produces a luxuria tion, of which herbaceous plants of unusu size for a cold or temperate climate are teristic feature; as species of Rhubarb, and Cow-parsnip (*Heracleum*), some of now well known in Britain. It is indeed central and eastern temperate parts of A cultivated species of rhubarb are derive the same region the rhubarb root, so medicine, is brought. In the abundance *lariaceæ* (Currants), the warmer parts resemble North America, although mos species are different.

To the south of the Altaian Mountains of Asia corresponds in part with that of eastern plain of Europe; but it exhibits liarities which may in some measure be a the saline character of large districts, the sandy desolation of others, and the elevat great central plateau. The flora of Asia of Syria has a general resemblance to south of Europe, although exhibiting als which belong rather to that of India or Shrubby *Labiatæ* are particularly c this region, from which not a few found their way into the gardens of E other parts of the world, upon acco fragrance, their medicinal qualities,

reasoning of food.—The tropical flora of
s in trees which yield fragrant balsams
ularly of the natural order *Amyri-*
, both the warmer temperate and the
of Asia excel other parts of the world
r and variety of the odoriferous drugs
roduce, with odours of the most various
rrh and frankincense to asafœtida.
noted for the production of
pretty extensively cultivated
parts of A. The date-palm is as
of Arabia as it is of Egypt. Acacias
also abound.—The flora of Persia in
that of Arabia, although it is less
the altitude of its mountains gives to it
an extremely different character.—The
of *Scitamineæ* is regarded as particularly
of India; and plants of this order yield
cardamoms, turmeric, and other
roe, amongst which not the least
nd of arrow-root. Its *Leguminosæ*
numerous, both herbaceous and shrubby,
at, many of them exhibiting great beauty
and splendour of flowers; some producing
ds of pulse; others timber, gum, medicines,
number of valuable medicinal plants which
Indian flora is very great, as is also
oods; and it abounds in fine fruits, of
o and mangosteen may be particu-
. *Cucurbitaceæ* (Gourds) are very nume-
also trees of the genus *Ficus* (Fig),
ich produce caoutchouc, and amongst
are also sacred peepul and the banian-tree,
rkable for the roots which descend from its
s to become new stems, and for the extent
h it canopies. Palms are numerous
parts of A., and particularly in its
egions, but less numerous than in the
of South America. The cocoa-nut is
most common palms in the vicinity of the
ome of the Asiatic palms are valuable for
which they yield. The natural order
ne of those that are peculiar to India
rn A., and includes some of the
es; but the Indian teak, so
ship-building, is of the order *Verbenaceæ*.
of the Eastern Peninsula, Siam, Cochin-
the south-eastern part of A. generally,
siderably from that of India, and exhibits,
a richer variety. The change from the
is still greater in the islands, and a
to that of Polynesia and of Australia
. The bread-fruit takes the place
jack of India. These regions
, cloves, and other spices. The
abundant, yielding cinnamon, cassia,
. Gutta-percha has recently been
the number of the most valuable exports.
and Japan have many plants peculiar to
and are remarkable for the prevalence
Camelliaceæ, the natural order to which
and the camellia belong. It is
ary to mention how extensively tea
d in China, and how important it is
ree of the world. The diversity of
, however, both in China and Japan, is so
able, as to imply no small diversity of
. In like manner, the Himalaya Moun-
a flora very different from that of
, and which in some of its
features, particularly in the
rhododendrons and magnolias,
ably to agree with the flora
of the United States; whilst
besides there is a strong resem-
of more northern regions

European Alps; forests of pines appear, and along with them the *deodar*, a cedar scarcely, if at all different from the cedar of Lebanon. The mountains of Java also produce oaks and other trees resembling those of the temperate zone, although the species are peculiar. But many parts of A. have as yet been very imperfectly explored.

Many of the cultivated plants of Europe are known to be natives of A., and others are supposed to be so. As the cradle of the human race, and the scene of the earliest civilisation, it is natural to suppose that it supplied the first fruits and other vegetable productions which man sought to improve by cultivation; and of some which, as the apple and the cherry, are probably natives of Europe, it seems probable that the first improved varieties were introduced from A. We do not know with certainty of what part of the earth some of the principal cereal plants or grains are natives—as wheat, barley, oats, and rye; but there seems great probability in the supposition that they are of Asiatic origin. Rice certainly is. It has been cultivated from time immemorial in some of the warm parts of A.; and its introduction into other quarters of the world is comparatively recent. Maize—introduced from America—is now to be reckoned among the most important cultivated plants of A., and its cultivation is rapidly extending, as is that of the potato. Wheat, oats, barley, rye, beans, pease, and buckwheat, are the principal crops of regions similar in climate to those in which they are cultivated in Europe. Barley and buckwheat are cultivated in the Himalayas at the extraordinary elevation of almost 12,000 feet, and crops of barley are to be seen even at 15,000 feet above the sea. Millet of different kinds, durra, and other grains of inferior importance, are cultivated to some extent in India and other warm regions; also different kinds of pulse. The banana and plantain are of the same importance as in other tropical countries; and the yam and coco or eddoes contribute largely to the supply of human food. The sugar-cane is cultivated in the warm parts of A., but not with so much spirit or success as in America, although it is a native of the East and not of the West Indies. Pepper is one of the native productions of the East Indies, and is extensively cultivated. Tobacco, whether or not any species of it is indigenous to A., is now produced in large quantities. Indigo is extensively cultivated in India, and the opium poppy too extensively. Different species of cotton are natives of India, and have long been cultivated there and in China. Hemp is cultivated in India, not for its fibre, but to afford the means of intoxication; and flax chiefly for the oil of its seeds; but both hemp and flax are extensively cultivated for their fibres in other parts of A.; and India and the other tropical regions produce many plants valuable for their fibres, among which are species of *Musa*, *Corchorus* (yielding the jute of commerce), and *Urtica* (nettle). Among the crops of India is sesamum, valued for the oil of its seeds.

It seems probable that we are indebted to the warmer temperate parts of A. not only for the orange, the lemon, and all the other species of the genus *Citrus*, but also for the olive, the peach, and nectarine, the apricot, the fig, the mulberry, and the vine, with many other of the fruits now most generally esteemed and cultivated. China and Japan, being the seats of an ancient civilisation, many useful plants have long been cultivated there, which have scarcely yet found their way into other parts of the world. Floriculture has be
there with great assiduity from a
and varieties of Hydrangea, Cam

Chrysanthemum, &c., have, from time immemorial, been scarcely if at all less numerous than those of the tulip and hyacinth in Holland.

The zoology of A. is not less interesting than its botany. Amongst domestic animals, the most important are the ox and buffalo, the sheep, the goat, the horse, the ass, the camel, and the elephant. A number of species of ox and buffalo are natives of A., from more than one of which the domesticated races appear to have derived their origin. Very distinct from all the others is the yak (q. v.) of Tibet, a creature which is of great use to the inhabitants of the elevated regions of the Himalayas, and is to them almost what the reindeer is to the Laplander. The sheep and goat are natives of the mountainous parts of Central A. The horse and the ass seem to belong to the same regions; and all of these have been domesticated from the earliest times. The camel is of incalculable value as a beast of burden in the regions of heat and drought, and as affording the means of traversing the great deserts. It is used principally in the south-west of A. and in India. The elephant is a native of the tropical parts of A., but is of a different species from that of Africa. The reindeer constitutes the chief wealth of some of the tribes of the north. Dogs are also used by some of the Siberian tribes for drawing their sledges. Different races of dogs are domesticated in different parts of A., and a small kind is fattened for its flesh in China; but in the Mohammedan parts of A., the dog is reckoned an unclean animal, and is known chiefly as a prowler about towns and villages, and a devourer of offal.

The tropical parts of A. abound in monkeys, of which the species are very numerous. Among them are some with long, and some with short tails, but none with prehensile tails, like the sapajous of America. Many are altogether tailless, and among these is the orang-outang, found in the south-eastern islands. A much larger ape, called the pongo, has been said to exist in Borneo, but it is still a doubtful species. The same warm regions abound in bats, many of which are of large size, and feed upon fruits, not upon insects. The flying lemur or colugo is another remarkable animal of the Indian Archipelago.—Bears are found in all parts of A.—the white bear in the extreme north, and other formidable species in the more temperate parts; whilst the tropical regions produce bears which are by no means ferocious, and feed chiefly on insects, fruits, and honey. Badgers are also found in A., and quadrupeds of several other plantigrade genera, allied to the bear, but of comparatively small size and inoffensive habits, as the beautiful Panda (*Ailurus*) of the north of India, and the Binturongs (*Ictides*) of Malacca and the neighbouring archipelago.—Animals of the Weasel family (*Mustelidæ*) are numerous, among which the Teledu (*Mydaus meliceps*) of Java rivals the skunks of America in the horrible stench with which it surrounds itself for defence. More important are the sable and the sea otter, pursued in the northern regions upon account of their furs.—Of the Dog family, or *Canidæ*, A. has not only wild dogs, but also wolves, foxes, hyænas, and jackals; the two former abounding chiefly in the colder, the two latter in the warmer regions. The arctic fox inhabits the most northerly shores and islands. The warmer parts of A. produce a number of species of the allied family of the *Viverridæ*, among which are the mangouste or Indian ichneumon—famous, like the Egyptian ichneumon, for the destruction of serpents—and the civet, from which is obtained a celebrated perfume.—Of feline animals, the most dreadful are the lion and tiger; the latter of which is peculiar to A., abounding in the warm regions of and east, never extending westward be mountains and deserts which separate I Persia; but, on the contrary, advan north, beyond the limits to which the and even to the confines of Siberia. the ounce, and many other cats, some o and dangerous, are found in A., esp warmer parts of it. Among them may the chetah, or hunting-leopard, tamed fo in India.—A few small marsupial (or quadrupeds (*Phalangers*) are found in the I and form one of the links by which the history of A. is connected with that of Au The *Glires* or *Rodentia*, on the contrary, are n in all parts of A., and many species to it. Squirrels, marmots, rats, mice, are common in all except the most no The brown rat, now so common in to have emigrated from Persia so re beginning of the 18th c. Lemming Siberia and the Tatarian deserts, of jerboa is also an inhabitant. Porcupines ar in the warmer parts of A., and the beaver in the north.—Of Edentate quadrupeds, golins (*Manis*) alone are Asiatic, and confined to the tropical regions.—Of *Pach* there are, besides the elephant, the ha already mentioned, several species of wild boars, the babyroussa, and a spec all, except the wild boar, natives of climates. One of the most interesting ever, connected with the natural histo the abundance of remains of the mammoth, elephant, in the coldest parts of Siberia, still affording a considerable supply of iv ruminating animals, besides those of the already mentioned, and the sheep and go are deer, antelopes, and musks or musk-de reindeer and elk are natives of Sibe south, the species of deer are much and the same countries produce antelope. The musks are found in the southern parts of the continent; one native of the highest mountains, yielding prized perfume from which it derives its possesses vultures, eagles, and other *Falconi* ravens, and other birds of the crow kind storks, cranes, &c. Swans, geese, ducks of species, and many other *Anatidæ*, frequ waters, some of them abounding even in regions. Albatrosses are very Kamstchatkan shores; flamingoes more southern countries. Pigeons ab among them is the turtle-dove. The Indian Archipelago are birds of the p which one species is almost as larg There are many kinds of thrush, finch, bunting, sparrow, and other birds identi or allied to those of Europe, nightingale, often mentioned by and many also, particularly in which are peculiar and charact be mentioned the splendid p south-eastern islands, peacock, pheasa gallinaceous birds of Asia are numerou this continent were probably derived poultry of other parts of the earth. ance of the parrot tribe constitutes a pe blance between the tropical parts of A tropical countries, but lories are pecu Indies. The ostrich inhabits the deserts well as of Africa. The cassowary i south-eastern islands. The edible sw the East Indian coasts have long bee Lizards and other saurian reptiles are

warmer parts of Asia; and great crocodiles
rials infest the rivers of the East Indies.
pythons, and other great serpents, are found
tropical regions, which produce also many
serpents. The cobra da capello is one of
dreaded. But the temperate parts of Asia
venomous serpents, scarcely less dangerous.
East Indian tortoises are remarkable for
ize, and turtles are found in the
salt and fresh waters of Asia
many kinds of fish. The *Salmonidæ* of the
of Siberia supply an important part of the
its inhabitants. The goldfish, now so well
in Britain, is a native of China. Some of the
the tropical parts of Asia have attracted
from the peculiarity of their form or habits.
is exceedingly abundant in the warm
, as in all other warm countries. Bees
, and honey is produced in great quan-
other insects, it seems only necessary here
the silk-worm, which was introduced
into Europe; and the locust, which some-
devastates great tracts of the Asiatic countries
in the Mediterranean and the Black Sea,
onally extends its ravages into regions
west. Of molluscous animals, the pearl-
deserves particular notice, upon account of
t pearl-fisheries which exist in different

manity.—The whole population, consisting of
people, may be divided into the Mongo-
, and Semitic groups. The *first* of these
all the peoples and tribes in the east, north,
east of Asia; the *second* (see ARYAN
aces the inhabitants of Northern India,
, Persia, and part of Asiatic Turkey; the
ies the Syrian, Hebrew, and Arabian
(see ETHNOLOGY).

further subdivision and classification may be
as follows: 1. The *East-Asian group*, includ-
peoples of Tibet, China, Japan, Corea,
o-Chinese peninsula; all alike in the
syllabic languages. This last people,
at be subdivided into Western and
former comprising the inhabitants of
empire, Pegu, Laos, and Siam, having
with the Hindus; and the latter, com-
inhabitants of Tonquin, Cochin-China,
media, have affinities with the Mongolians
and China. 2. The *Tatar group*, includ-
Turkomans, Mongols, and Tungusians, who
read over the whole table-land of Central
neighbouring lands in the north. The
amily is divided into three sections—
cluding the east Turkomans, inhabiting
, Khiva, Balkh, and Usbekistan; the
cluding the so-called Tatars of the Urals
neighbourhood of Astrakhan and Kazan;
including the Turks or Osmanli. With
sion of a few small tribes in Siberia,
ish varieties are Mohammedans, use
alphabet, and employ numerous Arabic
their dialects. 3. The *Siberian group*,
Samoiedes, people of Kamtschatka,
, languages which have only recently
ed by philologists. 4. The *Malay-Poly-*
, mixed with Australasian negritos, are
over all the islands of Polynesia and the
Archipelago. The Malayan people of Java,
, Celebes, the peninsula of Malacca, the
slands, Moluccas, and Philippines, have
literature, which has been formed
and (since the 16th c.) under Euro-
. The South Sea islanders are clearly
two races by physical form, colour,
One race is allied to the Australasian
negrito, and the other to the Malayan. In most of the islands, there is a partial intermixture of the two races, but generally the distinction is obvious. It is probable that all the copper-coloured Polynesians belong to the same family with the people of the Indian Archipelago. 5. The *Deccan group*, including all the people employing the Tamul, Carnatic, Telugu, and Singalese languages, all having a certain measure of civilisation and a literature. 6. The *Indo-Germanic* or *Aryan group*, marked and subdivided by the three languages, Sanscrit, Persian, and Armenian. About thirty distinct nations, each having a peculiar dialect and literature, belong to the first subdivision; the second includes the peoples of Beloochistan, Afghanistan, Persia, and Kurdistan; the third, the Armenians. All these families have literatures partly written in dead languages—the Sanscrit, Pali, Zend, and old Armenian. 7. The heterogeneous tribes inhabiting the Caucasus, whose affinities are not yet settled. 8. The *Semitic group*, including all the peoples whose languages are related to the Hebrew and Arabic.

Religions. The same Asian characteristic of variety and wide contrast is found in the creeds as in the countries and tribes of people: the Brahminical religion of India; the doctrines of Buddha, Confucius, and Laotse in China; the worship of the Grand Lama in Tibet; the creed of Islam in several varieties in Arabia, Persia, and India; the rude heathenism of the north; the various sects of native Christians in Armenia, Syria, Kurdistan, and India; the Greek Church in Siberia; these and other forms of faith or religious profession display diversities and contrasts nearly as striking as those of Asian geography. Christianity, now the religion of Europe and America, owes its origin to Asia. For an account of the existing religious systems of Asia, see articles MOHAMMEDANISM, INDIA (*Religion*), BUDDHISM, LAMAISM, &c.

Civilisation. The number of people civilised—in the Asiatic sense of the word—is far greater than that of wild and nomadic hordes; but culture here, when arrived at a certain point, assumes a stationary character, widely differing from the restless intellectual activity and industrial progress of Europe. The laws of states, families, industry, commerce, art, and science are, in India and China, so many branches of one fixed and permanent religious system, which has maintained its sway through many centuries, and would long remain unchanged, if left undisturbed by European influence. The Arabs, Persians, and Turks, collectively known as the Easterns, are distinct in civilisation from the Hindus and Chinese. The institution of slavery among the former, of *caste* among the Hindus, and the civil and political equality of China, are distinguishing marks. The Turk is a monotheist and fatalist; the Hindu is either a mystical pantheist or polytheist, acknowledging a multitude of gods; the Chinese is rather a utilitarian moralist.

Industry. The industry and commerce of the Asiatic continent bear no adequate proportion to its capabilities—such as they are, they will be described under the different countries.

Political Aspect. The political institutions of A. present to us some striking contrasts. While the barbarous hordes in the north live almost without the idea of government, and scarcely know that the Russian czar claims them as his subjects; and the nomadic tribes, under their khans or sheiks, have a sort of patriarchal government, subordinate to higher powers; the most extreme forms of monarchy and despotism have existed among the more cultivated nations. The government of China is an absolute monarchy in form, but, in fact, is strictly limited by the force of tradition. The emperor is apparently

unlimited in authority; but it is an essential duty of an emperor to rule exactly according to the precepts handed down by his ancestors. Reverence for ancestors and their institutions is, therefore, the sole presiding and conservative principle which has so long preserved the great Chinese empire from political changes. A., now so passive, anciently took an active part in the great movements of the world's history; contended against Egypt and Greece, and afterwards contributed to the greatness and glory of the Macedonian and Roman empires. From the north of the Caspian Sea, came the vast hordes of the Huns who spread themselves abroad over Europe. The armies of Genghis Khan and Tamerlane overran the Slavonian plains, while the Arab califs, with their fanatical troops, established their religion and government in three quarters of the world. Under the Osmanli fell the eastern Roman empire, and still the Turk maintains a political position in Europe, but one now becoming very feeble and insecure. In proportion as Europe has advanced, A. has declined in political power, so as to countenance the theory of a gradual movement of the spirit of civilisation and progress from the eastern to the western world. It would appear that all great future changes in the destinies of Asiatic nations must proceed from European influence. The Portuguese, Spaniards, Dutch, and French have acquired possessions in India, but all are now insignificant when compared with the vast territory under British government. The following table, from the latest authorities from 1869 to 1872, gives the existing political divisions, with their extent and population as nearly as possible:

State.	Square Miles.	Population.
Arabia,	1,026,040	4,000,000
China Proper, including the islands of Formosa, Hainan, Loo Choo,	1,400,060	450,000,000
Chinese Empire, assumed Dependencies of Tibet, Mongolia, Mantchuria, Korea,	3,300,000	27,500,000
Japan,	149,399	35,000,000
Further India, or India beyond the Ganges:		
Anam or Cochin-China, with Tonquin and part of Cambodia,	198,043	9,000,000
Burmah,	190,817	4,000,000
Siam,	360,024	6,293,990
East Indian Islands,	799,359	27,164,728
Afghanistan and Herat,	258,830	4,000,000
Beloochistan,	165,830	2,000,000
Turkestan:		
Bokhara,	440,516	2,500,000
Khokan,		3,000,000
Maymene,		100,000
Turcomania,		770,000
Khiva,		1,500,000
Persia or Iran,	562,344	5,000,000
BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.		
Hindostan:		(In 1872.)
Under Gov.-general of India,	48,709	7,881,537
" Lieut. gov. of Bengal,	248,231	66,856,859
" " N.W. Prov.,	80,901	30,769,056
" " Punjab,	102,001	17,596,752
" Chief Com. of Oude,	23,973	11,220,747
" " Cent. Prov.,	86,162	9,046,038
" Governor of Madras,	141,746	31,311,142
" " Bombay,	127,532	14,042,596
Native States:		
Under Gov.-general of India,	385,796	27,716,382
" Lieut.-gov. of Bengal,	79,156	2,139,565
" " N.W. Prov.,	5,320	1,284,691
" " Punjab,	43,877	5,086,502
" Chief Com of Cent. Prov.,	98,399	1,095,275
" Governor of Madras,	31,953	2,371,333
" " Bombay,	72,076	6,552,170
Ceylon in 1871,	24,454	2,405,287

State.	Square Miles.	Population.
BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.		
Further India:		
British Burmah (1872),	93,664	2,562,223
Straits Settlements, comprising Singapore, Penang and Province Wellesley, and Malacca,	1,206	308,977
China Sea:		
Labuan,	45	4,[illegible]
Hong Kong,	32	120,124
French Possessions in India:		
Cochin-China,	21,723	979,134
Chandernagore,	..	29,000
Karikal,	..	13,000
Mahe,	..	6,000
Pondicherry,	..	44,000
Portuguese Asia:		
Panjim, Damaun, Diu,	?	34,000
Settlements in the islands Solor, Timor, Midora,	?	?
Macao (China),	..	35,000
Russian Asia:		
Siberia,	5,400,000	4,625,000
Caucasia,	67,000	4,157,967
Turkestan,	?	?
Ottoman Asia:		
Asia Minor or Anatolia,	210,000	10,700,000
Syria, Mesopotamia, and Kurdistan,	450,870	4,450,000

A'SIA MI'NOR, the ancient name of what is now called Anatolia (q.v.). Here, in Ionia, was the early seat of Grecian civilisation, and here were the countries of Phrygia, Lycia, Caria, Paphlagonia, Bithynia, Lydia, Pamphylia, Isauria, Cilicia, Galatia, Cappadocia, &c., with Troy, Ephesus, Smyrna, and many other great and famous cities. Here, from the obscure era of Semiramis (about 2000 years B.C.), to the time of Osman (about 1300 A.D.), the greatest conquerors of the world contended for supremacy; and here took place the wars of the Medes and Persians with the Scythians; of the Greeks with the Persians; of the Romans with Mithridates the Parthians; of the Arabs, Seljuks, Mongols, Osmans with the weak Byzantine empire. It here that Alexander the Great and the successively contended for the mastery of lised world. But, notwithstanding the country still continued to enjoy prosperity till it fell into the hands under whose military despotism has been sadly brought [illegible]

ASKEW, or ASCOUGH, ANNE, ferers for Protestant opinions at Reformation in England. Having views of the reformers, she was turned [illegible] by her husband, a gentleman of Lincolnshire, a zealous Roman Catholic. On this she went to London to sue for a separation; but was eventually arrested on a charge of heresy, and examined by the Bishop of London and [illegible] the doctrine of transubstantiation, the which she denied. After further ex torture by the rack, she was burned at Smithfield, July 16, 1546.

ASMANNSHAU'SEN, a village in the position of Rüdesheim, Nassau, is famed for which is produced on the slate-m vicinity. Of this there are two k white, the former of which is greatly has a rich red colour, like Burgundy. rare aromatic flavour, and is noted for

nd fire. But it retains its excellent nly about three or four years; after r by year, it becomes weaker, and loses The choicest sort, which is preferred by s to all the other red wines of the Rhine, o Burgundy itself, is cultivated in the ards at Wiesbaden.

EUS (properly, ASCHMEDAI, 'the de- n evil genius or demon mentioned in the writings. A. was described as the any evils. In the Book of Tobit (q. v.), nted as slaying the seven husbands of ence, in modern times, has been jocularly s the destroying demon of matrimonial In the Talmud, A. is described as the demons, and is said to have driven m his kingdom.

ÆANS. See MACCABEES.

pis), a venomous serpent, the name of come down from ancient times; the iptions of ancient authors, however, ertainty as to the species. It is very pposed to be the *Naja Haje*, the El Haje aher of the Arabs, which is very common Cyprus, &c., and often appears in hiero- d r sculptures as one of the sacred t Egypt. It is sometimes from length, of nearly equal thickness a gradually tapering tail; brown- dark and pale spots; the scales of and upper surface of the tail slightly the tail about one-fourth of the whole he animal. The neck is capable of con- latation, through the distension of its loose

Naja Haje.

ugh not so much as that of the nearly a da capello of India (*Naja tripudians*). tion of the neck takes place when the is ted. The jugglers of Egypt are m tricks with this serpent, as cobra da capello, causing it ; after they have first, how- ed the poison-fangs. It is eral varieties exist at the Cape of which is nearly white; and one is called Spuugh Slang, or Spitting Snake, by the colonists, from its supposed power of ejecting its poison to a distance when irritated; the poison which distils from the fangs in such circumstances being probably carried off by the forcible expirations which the creature makes—a characteristic, however, not exclusively belonging to a particular variety.—Other serpents of the same family, *Viperidæ*, are by some believed to be the true asp, particularly *Vipera Echis* and *V. Cerastes*. The former is of a grayish or yellowish brown colour, with rays and eye-like spots on the upper parts: it is found both in India and the north of Africa. The latter is of a grayish colour, and has a very broad heart-shaped head, a short obtuse rounded muzzle, and the superciliary or eyebrow scales remarkably developed, so that one of them is often produced into a sort of spine: it inhabits the deserts of Northern Africa.—The name asp is now generally given to *Vipera Aspis*, a native of the Alps, found also in the south-east of Europe and in Sicily, which much resembles the common viper, but is more slender, and has a larger head; it is also more venomous.

ASPARAGUS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Liliaceæ*, having an almost bell-shaped six-partite perianth upon an articulated stalk, six stamens, one style, with three recurved stigmas, and the cells of the berry two-seeded. The species of this genus are herbaceous or shrubby plants, natives chiefly of the south of Europe and of Africa, with abortively dioecious flowers; the stem is unarmed in some, in others thorny; at its first sprouting leafless, and covered with scales at the top; afterwards very much branched, with numerous fasciculate, generally bristle-like leaves. The most widely diffused species is the Common A., *A. officinalis*, a native of Europe, which grows on the banks of rivers and on the sea-shore, in meadows and bushy places, especially in sandy soils, occurring in a few places in Britain, and is also in general cultivation as a garden vegetable; its young shoots, when they first sprout from the earth, forming a much esteemed article of food, which, however, is only in a slight degree nutritious. These sprouts contain a peculiar crystalline substance, called *Asparagine*, and have a specific action on the urinary organs, so that their long continued use in very large quantities is apt even to produce bloody urine. They are no longer retained in the pharmacopœia, but both the shoots and the roots of A. are still occasionally used as a diuretic in dropsies, and as a lithic to dissolve urinary calculi. For these purposes, the root is preferred, and is administered in the form of an infusion or decoction.—The thick and tender kinds of A. are most esteemed for the table. It is one of those plants which have been much increased in size, and considerably altered in general appearance, by cultivation, being seldom more than a foot high in its wild state, and not much thicker than a goose-quill, whereas it has been obtained in gardens more than half an inch in diameter, and its stems rise to the height of four or five feet. It was a favourite vegetable of the ancient Romans. It is generally planted in rows, at distances varying from 1 foot to 2½ feet. Litter or vegetable mould is spread over it in autumn. It is allowed to occupy the same ground for many years, and the shoots are not gathered for use till the plants are four years old. Some of the growers of A. for the London market have 100 acres under this crop.—The seeds have been used as a substitute for coffee, and are recommended for that use upon the continent, even at the

present day. A kind of spirit has been made from the fermented berries. The young shoots of several other species are also eaten, as those of *A. tenuifolius*,

Asparagus.
a, a young shoot; *b*, flowers; *c*, the upper end of a stem, shewing branches, leaves, and fruit (all reduced).

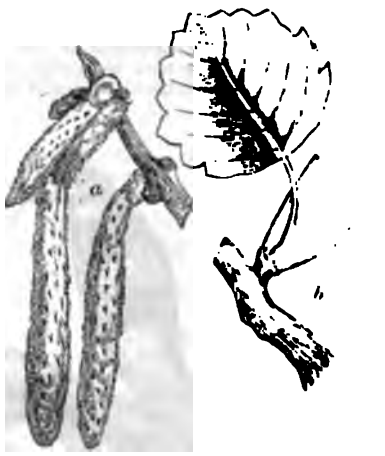
A. acutifolius, and *A. albus*, natives of the south of Europe; the last of which is much used in Spain and Portugal as a salad, in soups, and as a boiled vegetable. On the other hand, the sprouts of the Bitter A., *A. scaber*, which is very similar to the Common A., are uneatable, on account of their great bitterness.

ASPA'RAGUS STONE. See APATITE.

ASPA'SIA, one of the most remarkable women of antiquity, was the daughter of Axiochus, and born at Miletus. The circumstance that in Athens all foreign women, whatever their character, were equally esteemed, or rather disesteemed, and that their children, even when begotten in wedlock, were held illegitimate, has originated the erroneous notion that A. was a courtesan. She certainly broke through the restraint which confined Athenian matrons to the seclusion of their own homes; for after her union with Pericles, who had parted from his first wife by her own consent, her house became the rendezvous of all the learned and distinguished people in Athens. Socrates often visited her. Her eloquence and knowledge of politics were extraordinarily great. Her husband—though, strictly speaking, the Athenian law would have refused this appellation to Pericles—was honoured with the title of Olympian Jove, while she herself was dignified with the name of Juno. From the comic writers and others, she received much injustice. It was Hermippus, the comic poet, who took advantage of a temporary irritation of the Athenians against Pericles, to accuse A. of impiety; but the eloquence of the great statesman disarmed the enmity of the judges, and procured her acquittal. Her influence over Pericles must have been singularly great, although this has obviously been exaggerated, and even caricatured. The brilliant but not historically accurate Aristophanes charges her with the origin both of the Samian and Peloponnesian war, the latter on account of the robbery of a favourite maid who belonged to her. Plutarch vindicates her against such accusations; and Thucydides, who details minutely the causes of the Peloponnesian war, does not once mention her name in connection with these. A[fter] the death of Pericles, A. married Lysicles, a cattle dealer (an important, lucrative, and dignified profession in ancient times), who, through her influence soon became an eminent man in Athens. The [fame] of A. was, after her death, applied to many women of remarkable accomplishments and amiability.

A'SPECTS, in Astronomy, are certain positions of planets with respect to one another, as seen from the earth. In the days of astrology, there were five Aspects—Conjunction (indicated by the symbol ☌), Sextile (⚹), Quartile (□), Trine (△), Opposition (☍). Two planets are in conjunction when they have the same longitude; the aspect is sextile when they are 60° apart; quartile, when the distance is 90°; trine when it is 120°; and at 180° they are opposite to one another, or in opposition. Astrology ascribed to these A. great influence over the fate of individuals and of nations. The only two of the terms now in use are *conjunction* and *opposition*.

A'SPEN, or TREMULOUS POPLAR (*Populus tremula*, see POPLAR), a tree which grows plentifully in Europe and in Siberia. It is a native of Britain and is frequent in Scotland, where it [grows] at an elevation of 1500 feet above the [sea]. It received the specific name *tremula*, from the readiness with which its leaves are thrown into a tremulous motion by the slightest breath of wind—a property for which, indeed, the aspen-leaf has become



Aspen (*Populus tremula*), reduced.
a, a portion of a branch with catkins; *b*, do., with leaves

proverbial. The leaves are nearly or [quite] broadly toothed, so as almost to exhibit [a] footstalks are compressed, which favours [the] ness of motion. It grows quickly, with a [tall] stem, reaching to a height of from 60 to 100 feet. In unfavourable situations, as [on] dwarfish. The wood is soft, porous, light, and smooth; it does not make good fuel, but is fit for the turning-lathe, and especially for being made into troughs, trays, pails, &c. It is also excellent for arrows. If the stem be peeled and allowed to dry before it be cut down, the wood becomes harder, and is then capable of being used as timber for the interior of houses; and on account the tree is of great importance in many districts, and the more so as it succeeds in any [soil] although it prefers one which is moist and [rich]. The bark contains a great quantity of a bitter [principle], *Salicin*. The charcoal made from [it] be used in the manufacture of gunpowder.

similar species, a native of North
alled the American A. It is re-
as a mere variety. Very similar,
North American species, *P. grandi-*

I'LLUM, a remarkable genus of Lamel-
Conchiferous Mollusca, in which the
shell has the form of an elongated
cone, terminating at the larger
end in a disk, which is pierced
with numerous small tubular holes,
the little tubes of the outer range
being largest, and forming a sort
of ray around it. The animals of
this genus are borers, some of
them living in sand, others bur-
rowing in stone, wood, or thick
shells. *A. Javanum* is popularly
called the Watering-pot, and the
same resemblance has suggested
the name A. (from the Latin
aspergo, to sprinkle). The most
interesting circumstance in the
structure of the shelly tube of A.
is the presence of two small
valves, incorporated in the sub-
stance of the tube, to which they
bear a very small proportion.
'They there form the stamp,' says
Owen, 'of its true affinities, but
as little any ordinary final purpose as the
in the gums of the foetal whale.' The
with mollusca inhabiting bivalve shells.
ntary bivalve shell is found, in like manner,
into the shelly tube of the fossil *Teredina*,
ored the drift-wood of the London clay.
is also a genus ASPERGILLUS in Botany,
ing many of the small fungi commonly known
name of Mould (q. v.), which occur on decay-
stances of various kinds. Some of the species
liar to diseased animal tissues.

'ERN, or GROSS A'SPERN, a village of
on the left bank of the Danube, 5 miles
of Vienna. Pop. about 700. This village
neighbouring one of Essling are celebrated
scene of a sanguinary battle in the summer of
tween the French army under Napoleon I.
Austrians under Archduke Charles. After
of Eckmühl, in which the Austrians were
Archduke retired to the left bank of
leaving the road to Vienna open to the
the 12th of May 1809, the French army
na, when the Archduke concentrated
he opposite bank of the river. Napoleon
over the river, and on the 21st the
began crossing to the attack. The
first seemed to give way; but when
the French had crossed the river, they
charge, and almost surrounded
narrow plain between the two
ensued the battle of Aspern, a
the grand object of the contending
possession of the villages. At the
, it remained undecided; but next
renewed with fury on either side,
le slaughter, Napoleon ordered a
shattered ranks retired to the little
island in the middle of the river, whence
slowly withdrew to the right bank.
side of the Austrians was given at
16,000 wounded; that of the French
that amount. Marshal Lannes, the most
among the French generals, was among the
Both the villages were reduced to heaps of

ASPE'RULA. See WOODRUFF.

ASPHA'LT, or ASPHA'LTUM, is the name given to a bituminous substance of a solid consistence. See BITUMEN. It probably owes its origin to vegetable matter which has been subjected to a slow process of decomposition or decay, resulting in the production of a bituminous coal, from which, by volcanic agency, the A. has been distilled and diffused over the neighbouring district. The largest natural deposit of A. is in the island of Trinidad, where the plain known as the *Pitch Lake* is found. See TRINIDAD. The A. from Trinidad is largely used for ships' bottoms, and is reputed to kill the teredo or borer, which proves itself so very destructive to the wood of ships in tropical regions. A. is also found on the shores of the Dead Sea in large quantity, and is known to the Arabs by the name of *Hojar Mousa*, or *Moses's Stone*. It likewise occurs in South America at Coxitambo near Cuenca, in Alsace, and other parts of the European continent, in East Lothian and Fifeshire (Scotland), in Shropshire, &c.

During the manufacture of coal-gas, much tarry matter is evolved from the retort, and is received in the coolers or condensers. If this tar be subjected to partial distillation, naphtha and other volatile matters escape, and an artificial A. is left behind, which possesses the principal properties, and can be employed for the majority of purposes to which native A. is applied. The various kinds of A. have a pitchy odour, are of a black or dark-brown colour, but do not soil the fingers; are insoluble in water, sparingly soluble in alcohol; but are in great part dissolved by ether, oil of turpentine, and naphtha. *Petroleum* (q. v.), or *Rock Oil*, is a native liquid bitumen, which largely exudes from crevices in rocks in many districts, and is essentially A. dissolved in naphtha. The specific gravity of A. is very near that of water, ranging from 1080 to 1100. When set fire to, it burns readily with a smoky flame, and is often used in the smaller gas-works as fuel, by being allowed to run very slowly into the furnace-fires. A., besides being employed for coating the exterior of ships' bottoms, is also used, in a heated condition, for saturating timber which is intended for piles in the construction of breakwaters, river-bridges, and other situations where the combined action of the air, water, and minute animals would soon render ordinary wood rotten and useless. Wooden houses may be preserved in the same manner by a coating of A. applied externally; and ground-flooring placed in damp situations is much the better of the spaces between the planks being filled up with A.

About 1840, A. began to be generally used for foot-pavements in cities, and also for floors of cellars and outhouses. For purposes of this nature it is heated in portable boilers, into which, at a certain stage of the preparation, there is poured a quantity of thoroughly dried sand, gravel, or powdered limestone, which is well mixed with the liquid A. The mixture is then spread on the spot prepared for it; and when cool, forms a hard kind of pavement. Of this method of forming footways, high expectations were at first formed; but latterly the process of asphalting has gone out of use in England, as it is found not to be so durable as stone, and therefore, in ordinary circumstances, more costly. In Paris, however, asphalting is still extensively practised in the more spacious thoroughfares. The better kinds of A. are used in the manufacture of the black varnish, which is employed in forming the enamel which coats the variety of leather known as *Patent Leather*. A. is not of itself used in medicine, but its natural solution in naphtha, viz., *Petroleum*, is a valuable agent when applied either externally or internally. The synonyms of A. are—

Native Pitch, Mineral Pitch, Jews' Pitch, Dead Sea Bitumen, Compact Bitumen, Trinidad Bitumen, and *Maltha.*

A'SPHODEL (*Aspho'delus*), a genus of plants which has by many botanists been made the type of a natural order *Asphodeleæ*, now, however, generally regarded as forming part of the order *Liliaceæ*. The *Asphodeleæ* are either fibrous-rooted or bulbous-rooted. Among the latter, are onions, hyacinths, squills, star of Bethlehem, &c.; among the former, asparagus, A., &c. The roots of the asphodels are

White Asphodel.

fleshy and thick. The species are not very numerous, and are mostly natives of the countries around the Mediterranean Sea. The Yellow A. (*A. luteus*) and the White A. (*A. albus*) have long been known in Britain as garden-flowers. The yellow A. has an unbranched stem 2–3 feet high, much covered by the sheathing bases of the long narrow leaves. The leaves of the white A. are all radical, and its flowers are in branched clusters. Both species flower about the time when spring passes into summer.

ASPHY'XIA (Gr.) means literally a cessation of the pulsation from any cause, but is usually applied to the condition resulting from the blood in the body no longer being brought into the proper relations to the atmospheric air by respiration, so as to allow a sufficiently free exchange of carbonic acid for oxygen. See RESPIRATION. A., or suspended respiration, may result from several causes. No air, or but a scanty supply, may be admitted, as in strangulation, drowning, choking, or disease in the windpipe; the chest may be prevented from expanding either from a superincumbent weight or paralysis, as when a man breaks the upper part of his neck above the phrenic nerve, thus paralysing the diaphragm; and again, although there may be every capacity for respiration, the air itself may be in fault, and contain too little oxygen in proportion to other elements, as carbonic acid or sulphuretted hydrogen, which act as poisons when inhaled. Aquatic animals may be asphyxiated either by depriving the water they inhabit of oxygen, or impregnating it with the gases just mentioned.

As this condition of A. advances, in drowning or otherwise, the small vessels of the lungs become gorged with blood, which the heart has no longer power to force freely through them, the right side of the heart and pulmonary artery become filled with blood, while but little returns to the arterial or left side of the heart.

The person becomes pallid, except in such vascular parts as the lips, cheeks, and finger-tips, which become blue; and soon the blood, no longer aërated, produces the phenomena of poisoning by carbonic acid. After some slight convulsive movements, the person becomes insensible, the pulsations of the heart grow gradually feebler, and at last cease altogether. In man this occurs in from a minute and a half to five minutes. Some persons, no doubt, as the Ceylon divers, can by habit do without a fresh supply of air for a longer period; and some diving animals have an arrangement of blood-vessels by which they are enabled to be under water for a long time. Restoration of asphyxiated persons may be attempted with hopes of success at a very long period after apparent death. The object of all methods is of course to fill the lungs with fresh air. One of the most efficient is that of the late Marshall Hall: lay the person down at once with his head on his left arm, open the mouth, and draw the tongue forwards, then roll him gently over towards the left till he is nearly quite over on his face, then on to his back again, making the body by its own weight compress the chest, which, on expansion by its elasticity, fills with air. Repeat this about 15 times in a minute. This remedy nearly superseded all others for the restoration of still-born infants and other asphyxiated persons, before the introduction of the method of Dr Sylvester, an account of which is given under RESPIRATION, ARTIFICIAL.

ASPHY'XIANTS. Chemical substances enclosed in shells or other projectiles, and which act by producing a suffocating and poisonous effect. The French secretly made experiments with asphyxiating shot at Brest in 1851. The principle of these missiles seems to have been to carry into an enemy's ship the means of generating deadly gases which would suffocate the crews between decks. Scientific artillerists dread and discountenance these novelties; they have learned to regard war almost as a mathematical science, or, at any rate, as an elaborate application of such science; and they see nothing but savage cruelty in the 'diabolical chemistry' of asphyxiants. General Sir Howard Douglas, in a late edition of his *Naval Gunnery*, says: 'The author learns, with great regret, that some awful experiments have been made with fearful success, in the royal arsenal, with asphyxiant projectiles, combining in a frightful degree incendiary with suffocating effects.' Adverting to sick and wounded men on board a ship-of-war, he exclaimed: 'What shall be said of that inhuman system preparing for naval warfare in this age of enlightened humanity, which would advisedly, purposely, and deliberately consign the whole of these, and all other survivors, to indiscriminate death or mutilation? A ship may be sunk in action; yet there is always time to remove the sick and wounded, and save the survivors; but who shall approach a ship on fire to rescue her crew from the sudden and awful effects of that merciless

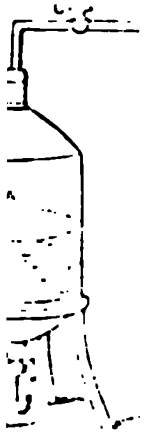
arous system, the object of which is to set
er at heart, and, if possible, blow her up?'
l of Dundonald, Captain Norton, Mr Mac-
nd many other inventors, have within the
years brought asphyxiating compositions
e notice of the English Admiralty and War-
nd the French are known to possess many
store. Some of these compositions are
hich burn fiercely, and ignite wood and
adily; some are contained in shells which,
ng, scatter the suffocating and burning sub-
ll around; and some assume other forms.

DIUM. See FERN, MALE.

SWALL, a town in Colombia, virtually,
a colony of the United States. It is
at the Atlantic extremity of the Panama
in lat. 9° 22′ N., and long. 79° 55′ W., being
miles to the north of the old Spanish
Chagres, 49 miles from Panama, and equi-
rom the great trading capitals of Valparaiso
Francisco. From its commanding position
e of transit, A. is one of the busiest and
sperous towns in the New World. It mono-
s benefits of the traffic in both directions,
most utter exclusion of the rapidly decay-
ma. Already the great link between the
and the west coasts of America, it promises
tant day to connect that ocean with Aus-
dia, China, and Japan.

RATE, the name given to the letter *h* in
as marking, not an articulate sound, but a
(Lat. *spiro*, I breathe). It is also applied to
l consonants. There is felt at once to be
a, accompanied by a difference, between *p*
nd *th*, &c. To express the difference, the
ed the first of such a pair *psilon* (bare),
d *dasu* (rough); the Latin grammarians
terms *lene* and *aspirate*, probably from
ous notion that the difference consists in
tion of the sound of *h*. There being no
ul no character in Latin corresponding to
k *θ* (*theta*), the Romans represented it by *th*;
misleading expedient is continued for repre-
this aspirate and several others in all the
s derived from the Roman. According to
word ought to be *asperate*, i. e., 'roughened.'
sixteen mutes in a complete system (see
), eight are lene, each having its correspond-
ate.

ene—	*p*,	*b*,	*t*,	*d*,	*k*,	*g*,	*s*, *z*.
spirate—	*f*,	*v*,	*th*(an),	*th*(ine),	*ch*,	*gh*,	*sh*, *h*.



spirator.

In the corresponding words of allied languages, nothing is more common than the interchange of an aspirate and a lene: Ex., Lat. *pater*, Eng. *father*; Gr. *thura*, Ger. *thur*, Eng. *door*; Lat. *caput*, Fr. *chef*, Eng. *chief*; Ger. *weib*, Eng. *wife*. Aspirated letters are also frequently interchangeable with one another: thus, Gr. *ther*, a wild beast, is in Lat. *fera*; Lat. *facere*, to do, becomes in Span. *hacer*.

ASPIRATOR is the name of an apparatus employed to draw air or other gases through bottles or other vessels. It is of great use in the examination of gases by the analytical chemist. The simplest form of apparatus is that represented in the figure, where A is a large vessel capable of being filled with water, having a tube with stop-cock at B, a second tube with stop-cock at C, and a thermometer introduced at D. In working, the apparatus is filled with water; the tube C is attached to the vessels through which the gas is to be drawn; and the stop-cocks at C and B being opened, the weight of the water escaping at B acts as suction, and draws in the gas from the tube C and the attached bottles or other vessels. The thermometer at D denotes the temperature of the water, and subsequently gas, contained in the reservoir, while the upright turn of the tube B keeps any air from entering the reservoir by that route.—A more complicated form of A., but one which is much more convenient to experiment with, is that known as Brunners's A.; the principle of action, however, is the same.

ASPLENIUM, a genus of Ferns, of the order or sub-order *Polypodiaceæ*. The species are numerous, and widely diffused both in the northern and southern hemispheres. Many of them are of great beauty; and the small size of some recommends them to cultivators of ferns who find themselves much limited as to space. Some of the species bear the English name *Spleenwort*, as *A. Trichomanes*, *A. viride*, *A. Adiantum-nigrum*, &c., having been formerly supposed efficacious in removing obstructions of the viscera. From the same circumstance the name A. (Gr. *a*, privative, and *splen*, the spleen) is derived. They have now fallen completely into disuse, but were at one time very much employed, chiefly in the form of a syrup like *Capillaire* (q. v.), and were administered not only in cases of cough, asthma, diseases of the liver, and cutaneous diseases, but even in stone and gravel. But perhaps none of them was so extensively used as the species which is styled in old books Common Spleenwort (*A. Ceterach*), now the type of a distinct genus, and known as *Ceterach officinarum*. Some of them, as *A. Trichomanes* and *A. Adiantum-nigrum*, are frequently called Maidenhair. *A. Trichomanes* is a very beautiful little fern, common on rocks and old walls in Britain, and most parts of Europe, found also in some parts of Africa, and in North America. A very common British species, *A. Ruta-muraria*, is popularly known as Wall rue.

ASS (*Equus Asinus*), a well-known quadruped, usually referred by naturalists to the same genus with the Horse (q. v.), but which it has recently been attempted to make the type of a distinct genus (*Asinus*), including all the solid-hoofed quadrupeds (*Solidungula* or *Equida*, see HORSE) except the horse itself. The distinction is founded on the short hair of the upper part of the tail and the tuft at the end of it, the darker stripes with which the colour is marked, and the absence of the hard horny warts which are found on the hinder-legs of the horse, although the fore-legs exhibit warts in a similar position. The long ears of the A. are one of the characteristics of the species, but they are longer in domestication than in a wild state. It is usually also distinguished by a black cross over the shoulders, formed by a longitudinal and a transverse streak, the general colour being gray; but when the general colour is darker or lighter than usual, the cross is often less apparent, or to be observed with difficulty. The facial line is arched.

Some uncertainty still exists as to the origin of the domestic A.; a number of wild races having been described, some of which are perhaps, like the wild horses of America, the progeny of animals that have escaped from domestication. The probability, however, appears to be that the A. is a native of Central Asia, where it is found in a perfectly wild state, in Tatary, Mesopotamia, Persia, &c., on the

banks of the Indus, and even to the southern extremity of Hindustan; but its range does not extend so far northward as that of the wild horse—a circumstance which may perhaps partly account for the inferiority of the domestic A. in northern climates. The wild A. is found both in mountainous districts and in plains; vast troops roam over the great Asiatic deserts, migrating, according to the season, in summer, as far northward as the Ural; in winter, southward to the borders of India. It is fond of bitter and saline herbage, and of brackish water. It was first accurately described by Pallas, under the name *Koulan*, which it bears on the high steppes around the Caspian Sea. It was, however, well known to the ancients, and is called *Onager* and *Asinus sylvestris* by Pliny, who also mentions, under the name *Hemionus*, another species (*Equus Hemionus*), a native of the same regions, now called the *Kiang*, or the *Dziggethai*. The latter name appears to be of Turkish origin, and to signify Mountain A., but seems to be sometimes applied to the one of these species and sometimes to the other. This seems also to be the case with some of their other eastern names, as Khur or Goor, and is a source of no little confusion.—The cross on the shoulders is less observable in the Koulan than it usually is in the domesticated A. It ought also to be mentioned that, in one remarkable particular, the domesticated A. agrees with the *Equus Hemionus*, and differs from the Koulan, the infra-orbital foramen of the skull being situated much lower. But the Kiang neighs like a horse, and the other *brays*. The harshness of the voice of the A. is ascribed to two small peculiar cavities situated at the bottom of the larynx.

The allusions to the wild A. in the Old Testament, and particularly in Job xxxix., naturally excite the surprise of readers acquainted only with the dull domestic drudge, the emblem of patience and stolidity; but to this day they are beautifully appropriate to the wild A. of 'the wilderness,' which has the 'barren land' or 'salt places' for its dwelling, and 'the range of the mountains' for its pasture. —The wild A. has a short mane of dark woolly hair, and a stripe of dark bushy hair runs along the ridge of the back from the mane to the tail. It has longer legs, and carries its head higher than the domestic A. Its troops have always a leader. It is a high-spirited animal, very fleet and very wary, trying to the utmost the powers of the hunter. It is a principal object of the chase in Persia, where its flesh is prized as venison is in Europe, and it is accounted the noblest of game. Xenophon, in his *Anabasis*, describes the wild A. as swifter of foot than the horse, and its flesh as like that of the red deer, but more tender.

The domestic A. is also, in Arabia, Persia, Syria, and other eastern countries, a much finer animal than as it is usually seen in Europe, although in Spain the favourable influence of a more genial climate upon its development is visible, perhaps also of better treatment, the A. being more highly valued. The A. is much used for riding in the East. From Judges v. 10, we learn that, at a very early period, the great were accustomed to ride upon white asses, and a preference is given to white asses in the East to this day. The A. has been domesticated from the earliest times; but it does not seem to have been introduced into Europe till a comparatively recent date. In Britain, it is employed chiefly by the poor, but might probably with advantage be much more generally employed than it is. Its price is scarcely one-twentieth of the price of the horse, and it can be kept at one-fourth of the expense, delighting in the coarse herbage which other animals reject, and satisfied with comparatively scanty fare. The obstinacy ascribed to the A. seems to be very generally the result of ill treatment; and proverbial

The Wild Ass.

as it has become for stupidity, it is probably quite equal in intelligence to the horse.

There are two hybrids between the A. and the horse—the MULE (q. v.), bred between the male A. and the mare; and the HINNY (q. v.), the offspring of the horse and the female A.

The milk of the A. contains more sugar of milk and less caseine than that of the cow, and is therefore recommended as a nutritious diet in cases of weak digestion. Its usefulness in cases of consumption has been long known, and it was often prescribed as a kind of specific when that disease was treated on principles very different from those which regulate its treatment now, and when very nutritious food was not usually prescribed to consumptive patients.

The leather called Shagreen (q. v.) is made by a peculiar process from the skin of the A., which also affords excellent leather for shoes, and the best material for drums. The bones of the A., which are very solid, were used by the ancients for making flutes.

ASSAI, a beverage very much used at Pará and other places on the Amazon, and which is prepared from the fruit of certain species of palm nearly allied to the Cabbage Palm of the West Indies. See ARECA and CABBAGE PALM. The A. palms are remarkably slender trees; the most common species (*Euterpe oleracea* of Martius) rising to the height of sixty or eighty feet, with a smooth stem only about

inches in diameter. The fruit is small, in size
olour resembling aloes, but is produced in great
quantity upon branched *spadices*, which are thrown out horizontally beneath the crown of leaves. It consists of a hard seed, with a very thin covering of a firm pulp or flesh. The tree grows in swamps flooded by the high tides. Boys climb the trees for the fruit, upon which warm water is poured, and by rubbing and kneading, a liquid is procured, consisting simply of the pulp of the fruit and water, which is constantly vended in the streets of Pará, and of which the inhabitants are extremely fond. This is A. It is a thick, creamy liquid, of a purplish colour, and a flavour like that of a freshly gathered nut. It is commonly used along with the bread made from Manioc (q. v.), called *farinha*, and either with or without sugar. Half the population of Pará make a daily meal of A. and farinha; and upon this hundreds are said chiefly to subsist.—The stem of the A. palm is sometimes used for poles and rafters, and its terminal bud cabbage or as a salad with oil and vinegar; s too much valued upon account of its fruit often cut down for these purposes.—An species, *Euterpe Catinga*, is found in forests dry sandy soil and very peculiar vegetation, a as Catinga forests. The beverage made it is sweeter than the common kind, but roduce of the tree is much smaller.

Palm (*Euterpe oleracea*).

L, an important salt-lake in the east of 25 miles south-west of Tajurrah, the chief of Adel, lat. 11° 40′ N., long. 42° 40′ E. Its is 8 miles; its breadth, 4. It lies in a land le for its wild, waste, and sterile character. ed on all sides but the east by hills, and ..0 feet below the level of the sea. Abyss- ans resort to it for the purpose of carry- salt which incrusts its shores like ice, to the depth of half a foot. It has been d that it was at one time connected with the Tajurrah.

a province at the north-east extremity dia, stretching in N. lat. from 25′ 40′ , and in E. long. from 90° 40′ to 97° 1′, and ised, in 1872, 2,207,453 inhabitants on an area 30 square miles. It forms part of the basin Lower Brahmaputra, and is intersected also out sixty other rivers. Being thus irrigated, were, by nature, A. abounds in wood, and is fertile. Among its indigenous productions is a-plant. In the year 1872, 31,303 acres were cultivation for the growth of this plant, and ield was 6,257,643 lbs of tea. The other pro- are rice, mustard, gold, ivory, amber, musk, , iron, lead, petroleum, and coal. From d the principal imports are woollens, India s, salt, opium, glass, earthenware, tobacco, &c.

1826, at the close of the first Burmese war, A. ded to the British. The upper portion of the province, however, was conferred, as a separate principality, on the native rajah, whom the Burmese had expelled; and it was only in 1838, that, in consequence of his misgovernment, the entire country was actually placed under British administration. Since then, the province has exhibited a noticeable improvement, for which, considering that the population is barely 33 to the square mile, there is still, however, almost unlimited scope. The great evil is the prevalence of earthquakes, few months passing without a shock or two. The people, however, seem to think lightly of them—the only one that is specially remembered as being of extraordinary severity having occurred as far back as 1807.

A. is divided into Upper and Lower, which are again subdivided into districts. Gowhati is the only town worthy of the name.

One of the most striking features of A. is the abundance of wild animals, such as tigers, rhinoceroses, leopards, buffaloes, and elephants. Of the elephants, not less than 500 are annually caught; and, when tamed, bands of them may be seen, harmless as cows, in the charge of a single attendant. The forests teem with game, and the rivers with fish.

ASSASSINS, a military order, a branch of the secret sect of the Ismaelites (q. v.). The secret doctrines of these Ismaelites, who had their headquarters in Cairo, declared the descendants of *Ismael*, the last of the seven so-called imaums, to be alone entitled to the califate; and gave an allegorical interpretation to the precepts of Islam, which led, as their adversaries asserted, to considering all positive religions equally right, and all actions morally indifferent. The atrocious career of the A. was but a natural sequence of such teaching. The founder of these last, Hassan-ben-Sabbah-el-Homairi, of Persian descent, and imbued with the free-thinking tendencies of his country, had, about the middle of the 11th c., studied at Nishpur, under the celebrated Mowasek, and had subsequently obtained from Ismaelite *dais*, or religious leaders, a partial insight into their secret doctrines, and a partial consecration to the rank of dai. But on betaking himself to the central lodge at Cairo, he quarrelled with the heads of the sect, and was doomed to banishment. He succeeded, however, in making his escape from the ship, and reaching the Syrian coast, after which he returned to Persia, everywhere collecting adherents, with the view of founding, upon the Ismaelite model, a secret order of his own, a species of organised society which should be a terror to his most powerful neighbours. In 1090, Hassan conquered the fortress of Alamut, in the Persian district of Rudbar; and continued to increase in strength, intimidating princes and governors by a series of secret murders, and gaining possession of several fortified castles, with their surrounding territories, both in the mountain range south of the Caspian, in Kuhistan, and in the mountains of Syria (Massiat). The internal constitution of the order, which had some resemblance to the orders of Christian knighthood, was as follows: First, as supreme and absolute ruler, came the Sheikh-al-jebal, the Prince or Old Man of the Mountain. His vicegerents in Jebal, Kuhistan, and Syria were the three *Dai-al-kebir*, or grand-priors of the order. Next came the Dais and Refiks, which last were not, however, initiated, like the former, into every stage of the secret doctrines, and had no authority as teachers. To the uninitiated belonged first of all the Fedavies or Fedais—i. e., the devoted: a band of resolute youths, the ever ready and blindly obedient executioners of the Old Man of the Mountain. Before he assigned to them their bloody tasks, he used to have them thrown into a state of

ecstacy, by the intoxicating influence of the *Hashish* (the hemp-plant), which circumstance led to the order being called Hashishim, or hemp-eaters. The word was changed by Europeans into Assassins, and transplanted into the languages of the West with the signification of murderers. The Lasiks, or novices, formed the sixth division of the order, and the labourers and mechanics the seventh. Upon these, the most rigid observance of the Koran was enjoined; while the initiated, on the contrary, looked upon all positive religion as null. The catechism of the order, placed by Hassan in the hands of his dais, consisted of seven parts, of which the second treated, among other things, of the art of worming themselves into the confidence of men. It is easy to conceive the terror which so unscrupulous a sect must have inspired. Several princes secretly paid tribute to the Old Man of the Mountain. Hassan, who died at the age of 70 (1124 A.D.), appointed as his successor, Kia-Busurg-Omid, one of his grand-priors. Kia-Busurg-Omid was succeeded in 1138 by his son Mohammed, who knew how to maintain his power against Nureddin and Jussuf-Salaheddin. In 1163, Hassan II. was rash enough to extend the secret privilege of the initiated—exemption, namely, from the positive precepts of religion—to the people generally, and to abolish Islam in the Assassin state; which led to his falling a victim to his brother-in-law's dagger. Under the rule of his son, Mohammed II., who acted in his father's spirit, the Syrian Dai-al-kebir, Sinan, became independent, and entered into negotiations with the Christian king of Jerusalem for coming over, on certain conditions, to the Christian faith; but the Templars killed his envoys, and rejected his overtures, that they might not lose the yearly tribute which they drew from him. Mohammed was poisoned by his son, Hassan III., who reinstated Islamism, and thence obtained the surname of the New Moslem. Hassan was succeeded by Mohammed III., a boy of nine years old, who, by his effeminate rule, led to the overthrow of the order, and was eventually murdered by the command of his son, Rokn-eddin, the seventh and last Old Man of the Mountain. In 1256, the Mongolian prince, Hulagu, burst with his hordes upon the hill-forts of Persia held by the Assassins, which amounted to about a hundred, capturing and destroying them. The Syrian branch was also put down about the end of the 13th c., but remnants of the sect still lingered for some time longer in Kuhistan. In 1352, the A. reappeared in Syria, and indeed they are still reported to exist as a heretical sect both there and in Persia. The Persian Ismaelites have an imaum, or superintendent, in the district of Kum, and still inhabit the neighbourhood of Alamoot under the name of Hosseinis. The Syrian Ismaelites live in the district of Massiat or Massyad. Their castle was taken from them in 1809 by the Nossaries, but afterwards restored. See Hammer, *Geschichte der Assassinen* (Stutt. and Tüb. 1818).

ASSAULT. In the sudden and vigorous attack of a fortified post, which is called an *A.*, the troops are told-off into 'storming-parties,' 'supports,' and 'firing-parties.' The storming-parties are those who take the most terrible duty, being that of making a forcible entry into the place. The firing-parties or musketeers seek to shield the storming-parties as much as possible from the fire of the enemy; they spread themselves out in extended order, to keep down the fire of the garrison—aiming at any soldier who may shew his head above the parapet, and seeking to disable the artillerymen by firing into the embrasures. Many assaults are made by *surprise*; and in that case the storming and firing parties order all their preliminary movements as quietly as possible. In most cases, there is a necessity for the stormers to descend into a dry ditch, and to ascend from the ditch to a breach or a gate in the fortified wall. To aid in this duty, 'ladder-parties' are placed at the disposal of the storming-parties; these men have previously been practised in carrying scaling-ladders, descending and ascending ditches, and adjusting the ladders. In some celebrated sieges, ladders 40 feet long have been used, where the ditch was deep and the wall or bastion high; but it is seldom that a storming-party could venture on so perilous a work, for the men crowded on such a ladder would endanger each other. The 'supports' are troops who keep a little in the rear of the storming and firing parties.

ASSAULT, in Law. See BEATING AND WOUNDING.

ASSA'Y, or ASSA'YING, is the process employed in determining the proportion of pure metal in a metallic ore or in an alloy. This method of analysis is more generally followed in the examination of compounds of silver and gold, but is likewise resorted to in the investigation of ores of iron, copper, tin, zinc, bismuth, antimony, mercury, and lead. In manufactured articles, also, such as silver-plate and gold-plate, some foreign metal (generally copper) is present, to impart hardness to the metal; and in Great Britain, each article is assayed at the Goldsmiths' Hall, previously to being sold, so as to determine the exact richness of the metal whereof it is made. In the A. of compounds containing silver, the apparatus employed is a *cupel*—a small

Cupel.

basin-shaped vessel of the form and size of the figure, made of bone-ash; and a *muffle*, composed of fire-clay, about 8 inches in length and 3 to 4 inches in diameter, shaped like a miniature railway-tunnel,

Muffle.

open at the one end, A, closed at the other end, B, and having numerous slits or air-holes, C, along the side. The more simple A. of silver consists in the examination of argentiferous lead ore. By a preliminary process, the sulphur is separated (see LEAD); and weighed fragments of the mixed lead and silver being placed on cupels, the latter are introduced into the muffle, which has been previously heated in a furnace, where it still remains. The fire is then increased, and air being admitted to the muffle, the oxygen of the air unites with the lead, forming oxide of lead (PbO), which in part volatilises through the openings in the side of the muffle, and in other part sinks into the porous bone-earth of which the cupel is made. Whilst the lead is thus carried away, the silver remains behind as a molten metallic globule, and when the last traces of lead-fumes leave the silver bead, the latter suddenly *lightens*, and immediately thereafter becomes brilliant and white. On being slowly allowed to cool, the globule of silver may be weighed, and the amount of pure metal

letermined. The use of the cupel during this ess has led to the term *cupellation* being em-ed in place of A. When silver contains copper, ch it does in ordinary coinage and silver-plate, it omes necessary to mix lead with the alloy before mpting to separate the copper. The manner in ich the lead is generally added is to roll the y of er and copper in a piece of sheet-lead or l-f and place the whole package on the cupel. ase heating in the muffle, the lead oxidises l, and in part passing into the bone-earth of el, carries the copper with it. The amount a required to effect the separation of copper silver in this way is given in the following e :

ount of Silver in One Part.	Amount of Copper Alloy in One Part.	Quantity of Lead Necessary for One Part of Alloy.	Quantity of Lead in Relation to that of Copper
1000	0	½ part.	
950	50	3 parts.	60 to 1
900	100	7 "	70 " 1
"	200	10 "	50 " 1
	300	12 "	40 " 1
	400	14 "	35 " 1
	500	16 to 17 "	32 " 1
	600	16 " 17 "	27 " 1
"	700	16 " 17 "	23 " 1
	800	16 " 17 "	20 " 1
"	900	16 " 17 "	18 " 1
opper.	1000	16 " 17 "	16 " 1

metallurgic chemist, while performing an A., etermine, by the examination of the stains on cupel after the process has been finished, what tal may have accompanied, and been separated m, the silver, even in minute quantity. Thus, d alone imparts a straw-yellow or orange stain ; per. a gray or dark-brown tint ; and iron, a in.

g the A. of silver by the foregoing or *dry* , a certain loss of metal generally occurs, averages 2 parts in 1000 ; and this circum- has induced the authorities in the mints at Britain, France, and other European s, as well as the United States, to adopt d process for the A. of silver, which will rmine the value of a silver alloy to within 0·5 h a part) in 1000. The humid or wet A. lving the compound of silver in ensity 1·25, and thereafter adding common salt (chloride of sodium, NaCl), es the precipitation of the chloride of gCl) in white flocculi. The common salt is of a definite strength, and is poured out of a ured or graduated vessel, till all further pre-itation of the silver ceases, when the amount ured of the solution of common salt is read off, l by a simple calculation its equivalent in pure is obtained.

A. of gold ores is conducted in a manner to that of silver. When the ore contains d and copper only, it suffices to mix more it, and heat in the cupel in the muffle e, when the lead and copper sink into the , and the gold forms a globule on the upper e. The proportion of lead required is regu-d by the amount of copper present in the alloy.

Proportion of Gold contained in One Part of the Alloy.	Quantity of Lead necessary to completely remove the Copper by Cupellation.
1000 thousands	1 part.
900 "	10 parts.
800 "	16 "
700 "	22 "
600 "	24 "
500 "	26 "
400 " and under.	34 "

When the gold is accompanied by silver as well as copper, iron, and lead, it is necessary in the first place to subject the alloy to the A. process in the ordinary way, which gets rid of the copper, iron, and lead, but leaves the silver still incorporated with the gold. The weight of this residual button gives the combined weights of the silver and gold present in the alloy. The method of separating the silver from the gold is called *parting*, and consists essentially in acting on the alloy with hot nitric acid, which dissolves away the silver, forming the soluble nitrate of silver ($AgONO_3$), and leaves the gold undissolved. When the silver is present in small proportion, the gold assumes a protective influence, and keeps the nitric acid from acting on the silver ; and to effect this separation satisfactorily, it is necessary that there should be about three parts of silver to one of gold. As that proportion does not occur naturally, or in any kind of manufactured gold-plate, it is requisite to incorporate some silver with it. This is generally accomplished by taking the proper quantities of gold and silver, wrapping them up in a piece of lead-foil, and heating on a cupel. The lead, during its disappearance from the heating vessel, causes the most intimate amalgamation of the silver and gold, which are left on the cupel as a metallic button. The latter, on being allowed to cool, is beaten out on an anvil with a smooth hammer, and is then passed through steel rollers, which yield a ribbon of alloy about the thickness of an enamelled address-card. The ribbon of metal being coiled up, is technically called a *cornet*, and when introduced into the flask with nitric acid, the entire solution of the silver is accomplished, whilst the gold is left as a brown-coloured spongy mass, of the shape and size of the cornet. To give the metal the appearance and compactness of ordinary gold, the very friable metallic ribbon is gently transferred from the *parting glass* to a crucible by inverting the former into the latter ; and the liquid which runs in with the gold being poured off, the crucible and its contents are raised to a red heat in a furnace, when the gold recovers its beautiful yellow colour and metallic lustre, and at the same time becomes soft and flexible. The gold is now pure, and in a fit condition to be weighed, and the amount obtained indicates the proportion of pure gold in the original alloy. As the quantity of silver which is required to be present during this process, in order that the *parting* by nitric acid may readily take place, is three parts of silver to one of gold, it is customary to call this department of a gold A. *quartation* or *inquartation*.

During the A. of silver or of gold, it is necessary to guard against any sudden increase or decrease in temperature. Independently of the probable loss of metal through the fracture of the cupels, it is found that when the final buttons of pure metal are obtained on the red hot cupel, if great care be not taken to cool the whole very slowly, the bead of gold or silver *spits*, and little portions are thrown off.

The mode of assaying gold now described cannot always be followed out in the examination of jewellery and other manufactured articles, as, though only a few grains are required for the A., yet the removal of such might entail the destruction of the article, and in such circumstances the *touchstone* is resorted to. This stone was originally brought from Lydia in Asia Minor, and consisted of a coarse-grained quartz saturated with bituminous matter, but black basalt and other stones are now employed for the same purpose. The manner of using the stone is to draw a streak upon it with the auriferous article ; and from the colour of the streak the richness of the gold can be very accurately determined by the practised

assayer. The subsequent action of nitric acid on the golden streak serves still further as a means of determining the purity of the metal, as the acid readily dissolves the copper and silver, and leaves the gold.

ASSA'YE, a village in the territory of the Nizam, lat. 20° 18′ N., and long. 75° 55′ E. It stands in the doab, or fork, of the Juah and Kaitna. A. claims notice chiefly as the scene of the first great victory of the Duke of Wellington, then Major-general Wellesley, won on the 23d September 1803. The British troops in action were only about 4500, while the Mahrattas under Scindia and the rajah of Berar numbered 50,000, of whom 10,000 were commanded by French officers. 98 pieces of cannon, 7 standards, all the baggage, and a large part of the ammunition of the Mahrattas fell into the hands of the conquerors, whose military supremacy was soon acknowledged over a great portion of India. In 1851 a medal was struck in commemoration of the victory.

ASSEERGHU'R, a fort situated on an isolated mountain at the north-east angle of the presidency of Bombay, in lat. 21° 26′ N., and long. 76° 26′ E. Its elevation above the base of the mountain is estimated at 750 feet. Its extreme length and breadth are respectively 1100 and 600 yards; from the irregularity, however, of the outline, the area is computed at not more than 300,000 square yards, or somewhat less than $\frac{1}{10}$th of a square mile. With the exception of two avenues of ascent, both of them difficult and strongly fortified, the space is everywhere terminated by a carefully scarped precipice, varying in height from 80 to 100 feet. This formidable fastness has been twice taken by the British—first in 1803, and finally in 1819.

ASSE'MBLY (*assemblée*), in the conduct of an army, is the second beating of the drum before a march, at which the soldiers strike their tents if encamped, roll them up, and stand to arms.

ASSE'MBLY, GENERAL, in Scotland, Ireland, and the United States, denotes the highest court of the Presbyterian Church. It differs from the Anglican Convocation at once in its constitution and in its powers, representing as it does both the lay and the clerical elements in the church, and possessing supreme legislative and judicial authority in all matters purely ecclesiastical. The General A. of the Established Church of Scotland consists of representatives, clerical and lay, from all the presbyteries of the church. The royal burghs of Scotland also return elders to the General A. of the Established Church, and each of the Scottish universities sends a representative. The Assembly meets once a year, in the middle of May, at Edinburgh, and sits for ten days. Its deliberations are presided over by a Moderator, whose election is the first step in the proceedings, after a sermon by his predecessor. In former times, this office was sometimes filled by laymen: among others, in 1567, by George Buchanan. In modern times, the moderator is always a clergyman. 84 presbyteries, composing 16 synods, return members to the General A. of the Established Church of Scotland. Its relation to the state is represented by a royal commissioner, who exercises no function in the A. beyond that of adding by his presence the sanction of the civil authority to its proceedings. The other functionaries are a principal and a deputy clerk, both clergymen, a procurator, and an agent. All business not despatched during the session of the A. is referred to a commission, with the moderator as convener, which meets immediately after the dissolution of the A., and again quarterly. The General A. of the Free Church of Scotland, which has 16 synods comprising 71 presbyteries, and of the Irish Presbyterian Church, are similarly constituted, the only point of difference being the absence of the royal commissioner. See PRESBYTERY, SYNOD, ACT, &c.

ASSE'MBLY, NA'TIONAL (France). The first general (q. v.), convoked by Louis XVI. on 5th May and opened May 5, 1789, consisted of the three privileged orders, clergy and nobles, and of the third estate or commons. The privileged orders refusing to join the third estate and deliberate in a common hall, the latter, of its own authority, June 17, assumed the title of *Assemblée Nationale*, and the deputies in the name of France. The court attempted to annul this resolution in a royal sitting, June 23; but the deputies of the third estate, along with a few members of the other two orders, had bound themselves by oath not to separate until they had given France a constitution, and had resisted every attempt at violence on the part of the court. They refused to quit the common hall, and at last yielded, and commanded the nobles and clergy to join the National A. This was the beginning of the revolution, and the A. proceeded with astonishing rapidity to metamorphose old France. The abolition of all privileges on the 4th August was followed by that of hereditary jurisdiction, the removal of restraints on religion and the press, and the declaration of the Rights of Man (q. v.). In August 1790, the monastic orders were suppressed, and the remnants of feudalism swept away; in February the *lettres de cachet* and the oppressive salt-tax were abolished; in June, all orders and titles of nobility. In July, non-catholics had the property confiscated from their ancestors restored; Jews were relieved from personal taxation; and game-laws abolished. A decree of October 18 abolished the cruel penalties of Louis XIV. In January 1790, corporations and guilds were abolished, and trial by jury introduced. In February, political rights were conceded to Quakers; in May, the customs at the frontiers were abolished; in June, the torture; and the violation of the secrecy of letters was also declared illegal. In September, all citizens, of whatever creed or religion, received political rights.

The principles on which the Assembly proceeded were the sovereignty of the people, the independence of the communes, the limitation of the royal power through a conditional Veto (q. v.), the separation of the political authorities, and the responsibility of ministers. Accordingly, the A., shortly after it constituted, declared that to it alone, without the royal veto, belonged the legislative power. By decrees, in September 1789, determining that the legislative body should form only one chamber, and should be renewed every two years; that it alone declared the king inviolable, and the throne unable. A decree of 7th November forbade the members to undertake the place of ministers; in December the new organisation of the communes was fixed. By January 1790, France was divided into departments; in April, trial by jury was introduced; in May it was declared that the right of war and peace belonged to the nation alone, that is, to the A.

In regard to finance, which had been the immediate cause of the Assembly's being convoked, reforms were equally thorough. It was decreed at the outset that taxes were to be apportioned and raised without regard to rank or person, and followed the approval of a loan of 80 millions. A decree of November 1789 ordered the sale of the public accounts; another in December established a national bank. In March 1790 came the first law sanctioning the sale of the national domains worth of the national domains; and in May another ordering the issue of *assignats* (q.

property; in October, these assignats were to b no interest. These measures were ...eginning of 1791, by a series of laws ..., taxation, encouragement to indus- ...agement, &c. A committee of the ... reform church matters, made a ... n of the old ecclesiastical system. ecl... ...n that Catholicism had ceased to be rel... n, tithes were abolished, and church com...ated. Church ornaments and valu- re appropriated as patriotic gifts to the civil jurisdiction of the bishops was taken ... monks and nuns were freed from their clergy were put under a civil constitu- ... department was a see, and the com- ...ked and paid bishop and curés. All the ...re amenable to the civil courts, without ... the pope or the interference of any ecclesi- ...uthority whatever. Every clergyman had ... oath accepting this constitution, which ...ration of a number, and subsequently ... of excessive rigour against refractory ...s *insermentés*).

... ...ing thus laid the revolution on a ... ... 0 decrees, and having sworn to ... ...ssion, and got it accepted by the ...ittings, September 30, 1791. From ...d the constitution (which lasted only ... ...is assembly is usually called the ... A. It made way for the LEGISLATIVE ..., which was to reform the civil and laws in accordance with the spirit of the ...stitution. A decree had provided that no ... of the Constituent should be returned to ...dative A. But the democratic party received ...ponderance at the elections, that the A. ...mission from the very first, and commenced ...ith the remnants of the royal authority, ...nded, August 10, 1792, with the over- ... the throne and the suspension of the king. ...tit ...ion had provided for an appeal to the ... ...me cases, and the Legislative A. now ... right by convoking a *National Con-* ..., which, being invested with the powers ...vereign, was to decide on the fate of the ..., and remodel the whole political system. ...tle of National A. has been assumed by ...other parliamentary bodies, originating in ...commotions, and aiming at radical political ...; as the French A. that met after the ... of February 1848, and organised the ... and which was likewise followed, April ... a Legislative A. (see FRANCE); the German ... A. at Frankfort (see GERMANY); and the National A.

...MBLY OF DIVINES, or WEST- ...ER ASSEMBLY, a celebrated convocation ... by the Long Parliament for settling the ..., liturgy, and government of the Church of ... It consisted of 120 clergymen and 30 lay- ... of whom were lords and 20 commoners — with 4 clerical and 2 lay commissioners ... Church of Scotland. Among the more ...shed of the divines were Usher, Saunder- ...nolds, Brownrigg, Ward, Twisse, Lightfoot, ..., Burges, Goodwin, Calamy, and Nye; of ...en, Selden, Prideaux, the two Vanes, Rouse, ...hitelocke, St John, and Maynard. The ... were Henderson, Gillespie, Ruther- ... ... 25 of those whose names were ...d ... ordinance calling the Assembly, ...ted 12th June 1643, never appeared ...ns, one or two of them having died ... ... of the first meeting, and the others ...pleasure of the king. To supply the ...se absentees, some additional members, called the superadded divines, were summoned to attend. This notable Assembly held its first meeting on the 1st of July 1643, and continued to sit till the 22d February 1649, during which time it had met 1163 times. Its most important work was concluded long before that time. One of the first things it did was to give its sanction to the *Solemn League and Covenant*, against which Dr Burges alone stood out for several days. The Presbyterians formed a large majority in the Assembly, and exercised a corresponding influence on its decisions. In doctrine, the members were almost unanimous; but on the subject of church government, opinions extremely opposite were maintained with keenness, especially on the question touching the sphere and limits of the civil power in matters ecclesiastical. The principal fruits of its deliberations were the *Directory of Public Worship*, submitted to parliament April 20, 1644; the *Confession of Faith*, October and November 1646; the *Shorter Catechism*, November 5, 1647; and the *Larger Catechism*, September 15, 1648. These several formularies, which contain a clear and rigid embodiment of Calvinistic theology and Presbyterian church government, constitute to this day the authorised standards of the Presbyterian churches of Scotland, Ireland, and England. The *Directory of Public Worship* was ratified by both Houses of parliament, October 2, 1644, and the doctrinal part of the *Confession of Faith* in March 1648. An order of the House of Commons, October 13, 1647, ordained that the Presbyterian form of church government should be tried for a year, but no further legislation followed. What has hitherto been known as to the details of the proceedings of this remarkable convocation, has been derived chiefly from the *Letters* of Baillie, and Lightfoot's *Journal*. See Hetherington's *History of the Westminster Assembly* (1843); and the 2d volume of Masson's *Life of Milton*, published in 1871 (pp. 539–527), where a list of the members, with brief biographic notices, is given.

ASSENT, ROYAL, is the regal act by which the sanction of the crown to bills which have passed through both Houses of parliament is given. See ROYAL ASSENT.

ASSER, JOHN, the learned and congenial biographer of Alfred, was a monk of St Davids, from the Latin name of which, *Menevia*, he is termed in the old records *Asserius Menevensis*. About the year 880, his reputation for learning and piety procured him an invitation to the court of Alfred, where he resided at intervals during the rest of the king's life, assisting him in his studies, and enjoying an affectionate confidence, of which he seems to have been every way worthy. The king promoted him to various dignities, and finally made him Bishop of Sherburn. The *Saxon Chronicle* fixes the date of his death to the year 910. Several works have, with more or less authority, been attributed to A. The only one undoubtedly his, by which we can now judge of him as a man and a writer, is his *Annales Rerum Gestarum Aelfredi Magni*. This simple and most interesting narrative was first published in 1574 by Archbishop Parker. Its trustworthiness has recently (1842) been questioned by Mr Thomas Wright, in the article 'Asser' of his *Biographia Britannica Litteraria*. This gentleman has assuredly made the most of the objections to its reliability that can be legitimately urged. Langard and Dr Pauli have replied to these, and, at present, the general impression of scholars of Anglo-Saxon literature is that there is no good reason for doubting its general accuracy and fidelity. The best edition is that of Wise (Oxf. 8vo. 1722).

ASSES, FEAST OF. See FOOLS, FEAST OF.

ASSE'SSED TAXES. These are duties assessed and charged upon the people, under the authority of numerous acts of parliament, beginning with the 43 Geo. III. c. 99. The duties now comprised under this branch of taxation are those on inhabited houses, male-servants, carriages, horses, and mules, dogs, horse-dealers, hair-powder, armorial bearings, and game. The duty on inhabited houses was substituted, by the 14 and 15 Vict. c. 36, for a former tax on windows. The A. T. are under the management of the Commissioners of Inland Revenue. See TAXES.

ASSE'SSORS may be defined as persons who are sometimes associated with judicial functionaries, to assist in the argument and procedure before them, and to advise their judgments. They are called *A.*, because, according to the Latin derivation and literal meaning of the word, they sit *side by side* with others. They may be usefully employed by persons in judicial stations whose previous education and pursuits scarcely qualify them for the duties cast upon them. A. are usually barristers or advocates learned in the law, and familiar with judicial proceedings. By the 5 and 6 William IV. c. 76, commonly called the Municipal Corporation Act, it is, by section 37, enacted that the burgesses shall annually elect from among those qualified to be councellors, two auditors and two A., the former to audit the accounts of the burgh, and the latter to revise the burgess list. In the ecclesiastical law of England, a bishop, who is a spiritual judge, is assisted by his chancellor, as the episcopal assessor, and who, in fact, holds courts for the bishop. But in the case of a complaint against a clergyman for any ecclesiastical offence under the Church Discipline Act (the 3 and 4 Vict. c. 86), the bishop is directed to inquire into the matter, assisted by three A., of whom the dean of his cathedral, or one of his archdeacons, or his chancellor, must be one, and a serjeant at law, or an advocate who has practised five years in the court of the archbishop of the province, or a barrister of seven years' standing, another.

The judges of the common law courts, and the Queen's counsel, being serjeants, are, as a condition of their offices, A. of the House of Lords, advising the House on points of law which may be propounded to them by their lordships.

A'SSETS. This is one of those terms in the law of England which in itself bears evidence of a Norman origin. It is derived from the French word *assez*, or more exactly, in Norman-French, *assetz*, 'enough' or 'sufficient,' signifying the property of a deceased person, which is sufficient in the hands of his executor and heir for the payment of his debts and legacies. In strictness, therefore, the term is not applicable to the property of a person who dies intestate, and without any debts to be paid. In general acceptation, however, it is understood to mean the property left for distribution by a deceased person, whether testate or intestate; and in commerce, and also in bankruptcy and insolvency, the term is used to designate the stock in trade and entire property of all sorts belonging to a merchant or to a trading association.

A. are either *personal* or *real*, the former comprehending such goods, chattels, and debts as devolve on the executor; and the latter including all real estate, whether devised or descending to the heir at law. In connection with this distinction, A. are also said to be *A. by descent*, and *A. in hand*, the former of these being recoverable from the heir to whom the land descends, and so far as such lands will extend—A. in hand, again, signifying such property as a person leaves to his executors sufficient for the clearing of burdens and bequests affecting his personal estate. A. are also in their nature either *legal* or *equitable*, according to the nature of the remedy which may be used by creditors against the executor or heir. Where there are several creditors of equal degree, the executor is bound to pay him who first obtains judgment for his debt; and he cannot resist on the ground that nothing will be left for the other creditors. If, after exhausting the whole A. which have come to his hands, by the payment of debts in due order, he be afterwards sued by a creditor remaining unpaid, he is entitled to protect himself by an allegation that he has fully administered, or technically by a plea of *plene administravit*; and upon this plea the creditor is entitled to judgment that he shall be paid out of any other A. that shall come to the defendants, which is called a judgment of A. *in futuro*.

A. is not a technical term in Scotland, but it is nevertheless much used in the legal business of that country.

ASSI'DIANS. See CHASIDIM.

ASSIE'NTO, i. e., treaty, a word specially applied to a compact between Spain and some foreign nation, according to which the Spanish government conferred upon the latter, under certain conditions, the monopoly of the supply of negroes for its American colonies. It was Charles I. of Spain who first concluded an A. with the Flemings. Next, a similar compact was entered into with the Genoese (1580 A.D.), the Portuguese (1696), and on the accession of Philip V. to the Spanish throne in 1702, with the French Guinea Company, which from that time took the name of A. Company, upon the understanding that for ten years it should have the exclusive right of annually importing 4800 negroes of both sexes to the continent and islands of Spanish America. The A. was next transferred to England at the peace of Utrecht in 1713, and made over by government to the South Sea Company for 30 years, permission being also granted to the company to send yearly, during the term of contract, a ship, carrying 500 tons of goods, to these Spanish colonies. The misunderstandings that grew out of this last clause contributed not a little to the war that broke out between the two nations in 1739. At the peace of Aix-la-chapelle in 1748, the English company having still four years to run, their rights were guaranteed to them; but they relinquished them at the general Convention of 1750, upon the payment of £ and the concession of certain commercial advantages.

ASSI'GN, To, in Law, signifies to transfer or make over to a third party a security, a right of action, or other right, whether in possession or in reversion, granted by a party indebted or under obligation to the party assigning. The words of assignation are *to A., transfer*, and *set over*, and they operate to transfer both real and personal property. A *chose in action* (q. v.), contrary to the ancient principle, can now be assigned in England indirectly by the common law, and directly according to the recognised principles of the courts of equity. Besides its general application of the word, as a technical term in conveyancing, both in England and Scotland, it is also employed in England in judicial procedure where the decision of an inferior court is brought under review, and in proceedings in bankruptcy. See ASSIGNMENT, ASSIGNATION, APPEAL, ERROR, BANKRUPTCY.

ASSIGNATION is a legal term in Scots conveyancing, analogous to the English word assignment (q.v.), by means of which the holder of a debt or the creditor in any obligation, or the proprietor of any subject not properly feudal (see FEUDAL SYSTEM), transfers his right or estate to a

e party making the A. is called the *cedent*, rty in whose favour the A. is made is *assignee* or *cessionary*, and the act of thus made is irrevocable, an element in hich has been traced to the practice of h law, a source from which the Scotch the 16th c. borrowed so much—the Court itself being a mere copy of the Parliament direct conveyance of a debt in France was *transport*; the granter, *cédant*; and the *ire*; and these terms, derived from introduced into the Scotch law; s of the parties to an A., as we Unlike the English common-law view gnment, the Scotch A. has the effect of he assignee with the whole right, which cedent, although, according to the ancient e A. gave, not simply the sum or subject ut also the deed or written evidence of r assigned, a form arising from the instrument having been regarded a mandate or power of attorney to make his claim and to act as in In modern practice, however, , to ploy simply the terms 'assign, d make over,' which correspond with the ter of the deed. In order, however, to he A., it must be *intimated* to the common st in, the party originally indebted to the d so essential is this intimation, that in f competing claims against the right estate assigned, the A. first intimated d to one prior in date, but posterior tion. Such intimation ought to *Public* (q. v.), but other formal notice of the A. is sometimes admitted. But there are certain assignations which require no intimation, such as the endorsement of bills of exchange, adjudication (q. v.), which is a judicial A., and marriage, which is a legal A.; and the same is the rule with regard to all right and estate assigned under the operation of the bankruptcy laws. In Scotch agricultural leases, assignees are generally excluded expressly.

But although A. is the strict Scotch term for assignment, the latter is in Scotland the technical term for the transference of certain property, such as property in copyrights, patents, and registered vessels.

ASSIGNATS. After appropriating to national purposes the land belonging to the church, the French National Assembly (see ASSEMBLY, NATIONAL), instead of bringing it into the market at a time of insecurity, when its value was depreciated, issued bonds on the security of it, which were called *assignats*, as representing land *assigned* to the holder. This paper-money consisted chiefly of notes for 100 francs (£4) each, though many of them were for sums as low as ten or five francs, and even lower; and the first issue amounted to 400 million francs. The first A., which were issued in the spring of the year 1790, bore interest; but subsequent issues did not. The facility of this plan of providing government income led to its being repeatedly had recourse to, as the property of wealthy emigrants—persons who abandoned their country in alarm—fell into the hands of the rulers, and was confiscated, till the amount rose to the enormous sum of 45,578 million francs, besides a great number of forged A. manufactured

Fac-simile of Assignat.

d smuggled into the kingdom. The A. naturally soon began to decline, ce once gone, the declension became June 1793, one franc in silver was worth s in paper; in August, it was worth six. ook the most extreme measures to compel ance of A. at their full nominal value. of these were to cause the A. to flow he public treasury, to raise the prices of ities, and to make every one averse to dealings with the state. One of these consequences was attempted to be met by fixing a maximum of prices. But no one could compel producers and dealers to produce and sell at a loss; so that all business became disorganised. At last the value of A. came almost to nothing. Millions of individuals had suffered incalculable loss, and only a few who had bought public lands with the A. that cost them little or nothing, had enriched themselves at the expense of the community. In March 1796, a louis d'or (24 francs) brought 7200 francs in A. After this, they were withdrawn from the currency

in 1796, and redeemed, at $\frac{1}{30}$th of their nominal value, by *mandats*, a new kind of paper-money, which enabled the holder at once to take possession of public lands at the estimated value, while A. could only be offered at a sale. The mandats also soon fell to a seventieth of their nominal value, and were returned to government in payment of taxes or of land.

At length, in July 1796, the system of paper-credit, so obstinately persisted in by government and so disastrous in its results to the public, came to an end. A law was passed, declaring that every one was entitled to transact business in whatever circulating medium he pleased; that the mandats should be taken at their current value; and that the taxes be received either in coin or mandats at that rate. The A. were executed on a coarse kind of paper, and, as will be seen by the accompanying fac-simile, the devices were so meagre as to be easily counterfeited.

ASSIGNEE IN BANKRUPTCY. See BANKRUPTCY.

ASSIGNMENT, in the law of England, is the name given to a conveyance by which the party making the A. transfers or grants over, for a sufficient consideration, a right in expectancy, in reversion, or other right not in possession, such as a bond, a debt, or other *chose en action* (q. v.). In England, according to the strict rule of the old common law, no such right could be assigned or granted over, because such a proceeding was thought to be an encouragement to litigation. The only exception to this general rule was in the case of the crown, which might always either grant or receive a *chose en action* by A.; and now the proceeding is in constant practice, the courts of equity, making the rule itself give way to the expediency of facilitating the transfer of property, having directly sanctioned the practice; and even in the courts of common law the application of the ancient principle is evaded. Mortgages may be assigned; indeed the right to make such a transfer is one of the properties of a mortgage security. A. is also the proper mode of assurance or conveyance for passing leasehold estates for years, and other chattel property; and by the 8 and 9 Vict. c. 106, s. 3, it is enacted that all assignments made after the 1st of October 1845, not being an interest which before the passing of the act might have been created without writing, shall be void at law, unless made by deed. But a mere note in writing, if duly signed by the parties, will nevertheless be supported in equity as an agreement, and pass an equitable interest to the assignee. It also appears that a parol or verbal lease for a term not exceeding three years, nor valid as such within the Statute of Frauds (q. v.), may be assigned by a simple note in writing, if impressed with a proper stamp. Copyright is assignable; indeed, by the 5 and 6 Vict. c. 45, s. 3, copyright is expressly given to the author *and his assigns*; but it is not required, like a patent right, to be in every case under the seal of the proprietor, it being enacted by section 13 of the same act that an A. properly entered in the book of registry at Stationers' Hall shall be as effectual as if made by deed.

In regard to the right of A. generally, it may be laid down that the property in things personal is transferable with absolute freedom; and if they are assigned under a condition which is either repugnant to the gift itself, or against the policy of the law—such as a prohibition to dispose of the property assigned—the condition is void. There are some cases, however, where the right of alienation is, in respect of the incapacity of the owner, suspended; as to which it will be sufficient to remark that the law with respect to the disability of infants, insane persons, and persons under duress, applies in general to personal as well as to real property. A married woman, too, is in general under an absolute incapacity to make any transfer of things personal; for, with the exception of her equitable interest in property settled in trust expressly for her separate use, the goods and chattels which she may have possessed at the time of marriage, or subsequently acquired, belong, by the general rule of law, to her husband. There are also some few cases where, in respect of the nature of the interest itself, its alienation is absolutely prohibited. Thus, generally, the pay or half-pay of a military or naval officer, or the salary of an officer of trust, is, on a principle of public policy, not assignable, the object being to secure to such persons, even against their own improvidence, the possession of those means which are essential to the maintenance of their station and the performance of their duties. The sale or transfer of public appointments themselves is also, in general, contrary to the policy of the law, and in most cases expressly prohibited. See Stephen's *Commentaries*, vol. ii. p. 43.

An A. of goods and chattels is frequently made by a Bill of Sale (q. v.). Bills of Exchange (q. v.) and Promissory Notes (q. v.) are assigned by endorsement.

The corresponding term in the Scotch law is *Assignation* (q. v.). But in that system, A. is the legal and technical word for the transference of property in copyrights, patents, and registered vessels.

ASSIGNMENT OF ERROR is the technical statement of certain grounds on which the judgment of a court of law is sought to be reviewed by a higher tribunal; but by the Common Law Procedure Act (15 and 16 Vict. c. 56., s. 152), it is now limited to the case where the defendant in error intends to rely in support of the judgment on the proceeding in error being barred by lapse of time, or by release of error, or other like matter of fact. See APPEAL and ERROR.

ASSIGNS, or, in Scotch law, **ASSIGNEES**, is the legal name given to parties in whose favour an assignment or assignation (q. v.) is made.

ASSIMILATION. See NUTRITION.

ASSINIBOIA, the district round Red River Settlement. It takes its name from the Assiniboine river, as the settlement itself does from the river into which the Assiniboine flows. See RED RIVER SETTLEMENT.

ASSINIBOINE, a river in the Hudson's Bay Territory. Near lat. 50° N., and long. 96° W., it falls from the north-west into the Red River (q. v.), which discharges its waters into Lake Winnipeg.

ASSISI (*Asisium*), a town of Central Italy, is built upon a steep hill, in 43° 5′ N. lat., and 12° 37′ E. long. Pop. 14,033. It stands in a singularly picturesque situation, and is surrounded by a wall flanked with towers, and overhung by a lofty citadel in ruins. It is the birthplace of St Francis, who here founded the Convento Sacro, the first monastery of the Mendicant order that bears his name, a large and beautiful structure, and one of the earliest specimens of the Gothic style of architecture in Italy. The church and the galleries of the monastery contain fine paintings by Cimabue, Giotto, and other old masters. Besides the Convento Sacro, there are eleven other monasteries in A. Of these, the largest is the Portiuncula, which has a richly decorated church, with a cupola by Vignola. In the last century, this place was a great resort of pilgrims visiting the tomb of the saint, of whom one hundred thousand are said to have been assembled here on one day.

...spies the site of the ancient Assisium, a ... l town of Umbria, and presents the remains ... the baths, and the aqueducts of the ... mans. In the piazza, or square, there ... utiful portico of the ancient temple of ... ing of fluted Corinthian columns and ... re are abundance of olive-trees, and ... springs in the vicinity. The town ... a bishop since 240 A.D. It has ... needles and files.

... s word, literally signifying a 'sitting' ... term used in the principal European ... and very much in the same sense, or ... all, for it has more than one distinctive ... ommon with regard to most of our ... nicality, the Latin language, in the ... (*assideo*), and then the French (*assis*), ... ve led to its introduction into the phra- ... law of England, and, it may be added, ... nd, although in the latter country it ... ited application in judicial procedure ... land, *A.* being in Scotland the old tech- ... ion for a jury. In England, this word ... fy a jury, and it is sometimes used to ... inance, decree, or law. But in modern ... is commonly applied to the sessions or ... judges of the superior law-courts, ... y in each county, for the purpose of ... civil and criminal justice. These ... use in room of ancient justices in ... *in itinere*. They are now appointed ... issued to all the judges of the courts ..., and to other learned persons, such ... d barristers of suitable rank; and ... as are accompanied by writs of *asso-* ... certain persons (usually the clerk ... his subordinate officers) are directed to ... themselves with the justices and serjeants, ... are required to admit the said persons into ... sty, in order to take the assizes, &c., that a ... supply of commissioners may never be ... But, to prevent the delay of justice by the ... f any of them, there is also issued, of course, ... *Si non omnes*, directing that, if all cannot be ... ny two of them (a justice or serjeant being ... proceed to execute the commission. These ... rs or judges of A. are sent twice in every ... to all round the kingdom, to try by a jury ... e counties the truth of such matters ... then under dispute in the courts of ... Hall; and occasionally a third circuit ... is in the course of the year, for the pur- ... jail delivery. The circuits are eight in ... such as the Home, the Midland, the Nor- ... Oxford, the Northern, the Western, the ... ales, and the South Wales circuit; and in ... es, the judges or commissioners sit by ... four several authorities: 1. The commis- ... *peace*; 2. A commission of *oyer* and ... ; 3. A commission of general *jail* delivery. ... r authority is, 4. That of *nisi prius*, which ... mence of the ancient commission of A. ... to the office of justices of A. by the ... ster the second (13 Edw. I. c. ... owers them to try all questions of ... of the courts at Westminster that ... for trial by jury. These, by the ... of the courts, were usually appointed ... at Westminster in some Easter or ... term, by a jury returned from the ... in the cause of action arose; but with ..., *nisi prius*, unless before the day pre- ... edges of A. should come into the county ..., which in modern times they have ... done in the vacations preceding; so that ... has always, in fact, taken place before those judges. And now, by the effect of the statute 15 and 16 Vict. c. 76 (the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852), the course of proceeding is no longer even ostensibly connected with a proviso at nisi prius, but the trial is allowed to take place without the use of any such words in the process of the court, and as a matter of course, before the judges sent under commission into the several counties. The circuit system, however, does not extend to London and Middlesex, which have instead courts of nisi prius, which are held before the chief or other judge of the superior courts for the trial of civil causes, at what are called the London and Westminster Sittings—the times for which sittings are now regulated by the Common Law Procedure Act of 1854 (17 and 18 Vict. c. 125, s. 2); and the establishment of the Central Criminal Court (by the 4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 36, the jurisdiction of which has been recently extended by the 19 and 20 Vict. c. 16), has sufficiently provided for the administration of criminal justice within these districts.

The circuit courts of Justiciary in Scotland, of which there are three—the North, the West, and the South—very much resemble the assizes in England, and have, in criminal matters at least, very much the same jurisdiction; but in civil causes their authority is very limited.

In the sense of an ordinance or law, the term A. has various applications, although chiefly in the more ancient systems of jurisprudence. Thus, the 'Assizes' of Jerusalem were, as we are told in Gibbon's *Decline and Fall* (vol. xi. p. 93), a code of feudal laws for the kingdom of Jerusalem, formed in 1099 by an assembly of the Latin barons and of the clergy and laity under Godfrey of Bouillon. Then there were the 'Assizes' or ordinances regulating the price of bread, ale, fuel, and other common necessaries of life, but all of which have been abolished. The same regulations appear to have prevailed in Scotland in ancient times. See JURY TRIAL, FAIRS.

ASSOCIATE SYNOD, ASSOCIATE PRESBYTERY, &c., designations adopted among the SECEDERS (q. v.) from the Church of Scotland. There is also an Associate Synod in America, and an Associate Reformed Church, both of which have sprung from the Scottish Secession.

ASSOCIATION. See CO-OPERATION; also, SOCIETIES, LEAGUE, COMPANY.

ASSOCIATION OF IDEAS. This is a phrase of great importance in the Philosophy of the Human Mind, as expressing the most pervading fact at the foundation of our intelligence. By giving, therefore, a somewhat full exposition of this subject, we are able to explain, at once, a considerable number of the complex phenomena of mind in a more satisfactory way than by treating the several phenomena separately. What is meant by Association of Ideas, is familiarly illustrated by such occurrences as the following: When we see the sky becoming overcast, we think of rain as about to follow, the notion of rain not having previously been present to our mind. When we hear the church-bells, we are apt to think of the crowds in the street, or of some of the other circumstances of public worship. When we pass a house, we are reminded of its occupier; and meeting a person we know, we may be carried in thought to his office, and from that to other persons holding the same office, and so on. If an object is before my eyes, as a mountain, I am said to receive an impression or sensation of it, in consequence of the actual presence of the thing; but it is possible for me to remember the mountain, or to have an idea of it, when far away from the reality, in which case there must be some power in the mind itself, different

from the susceptibility to present objects, a power of retaining, reviving, or resuscitating those states at first induced by contact with the actual. Besides the sights, and sounds, and touches caused by contact with real things, we are greatly occupied with sights, sounds, and touches remembered, anticipated, or imagined, which is to live in a world of ideas; and it is in this world that the process termed Association has its sphere. When an idea is brought before the mind without its original, as when I picture to my mind the late Duke of Wellington, the circumstance is owing to the mention of his name, or of some incident connected with him; and my remembrance of his personal appearance, as I have seen him when alive, is said to be the result of an association existing in my mind between two ideas, so that the one is able to recall or restore the other. The association between names and things comprehends one of the most extensive applications of the power in question.

The circumstances under which one idea brings forward another into the view are principally these two—viz., first, previous *proximity;* and second, *likeness.* The terms 'Contiguity' and 'Similarity' are used in Mental Philosophy to express them. The first is exemplified in the examples of association given above; for in most of those it will be found that the conjoined notions have been frequently in the view at the same time, in consequence of which they have, as it were, grown together, or become part of the same whole. Thus, we have often noticed the darkened sky followed by a shower; the two facts have occupied the attention simultaneously, and in virtue of some power belonging to our mental framework, they have cohered into an inseparable couple or aggregate in the mind. This is proximity, or contiguity. When one idea suggests another which was never in company with it before, it is generally through the force of some *likeness* between the two. I meet an old man in the street with a very peculiar face, which reminds me of the bust of Socrates. These two things had never accompanied one another in my mind before, and therefore it could not be the force of proximity that made the second to arise at the instigation of the first; but there was a certain amount of likeness or similarity between the old man's features and the features of Socrates, as represented to us in the bust; and it is a fact of our constitution, no less certain and no less important than the foregoing, that in cases where something now before the mind has a strong cast of resemblance to something formerly observed or conceived by us, but not at present thought of in any way, the present is apt to recall that past idea, whatever it may be. By the force of likeness, the traveller in new countries is constantly reminded of the scenes and objects familiar to him, and so is induced to draw comparisons between the one and the other. Identification and comparison both imply that things are brought together by virtue of their similarity, they not having been in company before. The principle of proximity operates most in Memory, Habit, and Routine; similarity has to do with invention and originality, and is essential to the processes of Reason and Imagination.

Law of Contiguity.—The principle of association by proximity is not confined to ideas. We must state it in a more comprehensive form, in order to comprise the full sphere of its application; for our mechanical habits are formed through the very same power of our constitution that enables us to recall or remember ideas. The taught movements of a soldier or of a skilled workman are connected together so firmly that one succeeds to another almost of its own accord. Everything of the nature of acquisition supposes a plastic property in the human system, giving permanent coherence to acts that have been performed together.

The following is a general statement of the law under consideration:

Actions, Sensations, States of Feeling, and Ideas, occurring together, or in close succession, tend to grow together, or cohere in such a way that when any one of them is afterwards presented to the mind, the others are apt to arise.

And first, as to association of Actions, or voluntary movements. When we perform a train of movements without any further aid of the will than to commence the series, there must be a fixed connection between each and the one that follows. this connection may be either instinctive or ac There are various cases of instinctive tra as the action of the heart, lungs, and inte the movements of deglutition. When a food reaches the back part of the muscles of the throat seize hold of it to the stomach, independent of connected movements in this case are in the original structure of the nervous lar system. In walking, there is partly an tive tendency to alternate the limbs, and confirming acquisition, the result of practi in those complicated operations that are taught to execute in the various life, the associating principle is e apparently simple and easy act of complicated acquisition; in other sive group of associated movements. the morsel is followed by the movemen that carries it to the mouth; the mouth is simultaneously; after which follow the of biting and chewing; all which take pl the certainty of a machine, and without attention directed to them. These asso originally built up by slow degrees. rule, it takes many repetitions to union between successive and ments as is implied in the above

A good example of the association of is furnished in our acquirement of spok as in committing to memory words, say passages of books. When a child has acquired the Lord's Prayer, the chain of is so firmly knit, that the articulation 'Our Father' is followed irresistibly succeeding, and so on to the end. The case is between the vocal to the enunciation of many times through this stream of nervous power, in some way not at present explain, acquires a te into this one definite track, and in futu on the movements in the exact order tha so frequently followed.

It is not merely actual mov joined together in this way, bu ment; for a man, meditating in speaking out his thoughts, can co so as to remember them afterwards.

When we proceed to Sensations and or subsequent traces, of Sensations, and with these the variety of our movements ideas, we find an unlimited scope for the principle; and the consequen of its spread far and wide in the d of our knowledge, and our acti possible here to present a few

In the various mechanical acqu include the whole of special hand and skill, as well as the use of the in the more general actions of daily life. be traced the linkings of a

rith sensations and ideas. The helmsman a ship associates in his mind each deviation edle from the proper point with the specific exertion to be applied to the wheel to e ship's direction. The workman fabricat- od, metal, or stone, acquires a firm connec- ween each aspect of the material and the nower to be applied to bring it one step desired form. The power of copying e see, as in writing, drawing, moulding, completely mastered, is made up of asso- between a visible appearance, and the train calculated to reproduce it. After is done, as it is called, mechani- hout those operations of considering, remembering directions, that are essen- learner in a new art. The associations up after a certain amount of practice, are ese associations between movements and as to the eye, or sensations of sight. In number of crafts, the eye is the guid- the operator, but not in all. Some- t is vocal, as in performing music, and ing musical instruments, in speak- , the touch is the guiding sense, as in cookery, the taste and smell direct r. Each accomplished workman has in many hundreds, not to say thousands, of or aggregates of definite movements with vements and with sensations, contracted in e of his apprenticeship to his calling.

into the circumstances that favour and xtensive circle of acquisitions, we shall hat may be named as of importance. lace, *a natural activity of tropic vessel*, ant flow of power to the active nerves in a great and various mobility of , as a good basis of locally a pure nerve force of the system runs freely towards ular framework, being perhaps expended ways, as in the thinking powers, more than to attain difficult mechanical arts. ortant circumstance is *the quickness or sense* involved in the operation. A ve to minute degrees of effect, is e various occupations that turn on arances; a good ear is indispensable to the arts of producing sounds; and so on. aturally dull sensibility to flavour, no man become a good cook, or a taster of tea or third consideration is *the natural power association* belonging to the individual

Some minds have originally a more ll iveness than others, either for things r special departments. We see this er of boys one together at school, and learning together. Some are always ng the start of the rest in rapidity of nt; and although the reason may be found of the other circumstances now mentioned, ration shews that when everything else is ar, there remain natural differences in the with which the adhesive bond is cemented; iring without effort what others take both labour to accomplish. The fourth circumstance is the *interest* taken in the work, gree to which it engages the feelings of the This is a material consideration, account- the acquisitions made in matters that we strong taste for without our having a pre- in those other points that constitute apacity. These four conditions apply more acquisition generally.

ailed exemplification of ible ture might be given thr f the human intellect.

of speech, as already said, contain a wide range of instances. The adhesion of language is partly in the vocal organs, partly in the ear, and partly in the eye, when we come to written and printed characters. The associations of names with things, with actions (as in obeying direction and command), and with other names (in acquiring foreign languages), are a gradual growth favoured by such conditions as the above. The acquirements in Science, Fine Art, and Business, and in everything that constitutes skill or knowledge, proceed upon this plastic property of the mind. It also enlarges the sphere of our pleasures and pains. There are connections established in the mind between our states of feeling and the things that have often accompanied them, so that the accompaniment shall have power to revive the feeling. It is thus that we contract affections, both benevolent and malevolent, towards persons and things, our friends, our home, our country, our property, our pursuits.

This power of stirring up dependent associations to an extent that may be almost called unlimited (although there are limitations), is peculiar to the animal organisation. Nothing parallel to it occurs in the mineral or vegetable world. It is a property of mind alone, and has its seat in the nervous tissue. We know that growth or change is requisite to the process of the adhesion; for it proceeds most rapidly in youth, health, and nutrition, and decays in old age, and during exhaustion and disease. And even to keep our acquisitions from fading away, it is requisite that they should be occasionally revived. A language acquired in early years may be utterly lost by disuse. Constant practice seems particularly necessary in early childhood; children's acquisitions are very liable to deteriorate, if not kept up and confirmed by new additions.

Law of similarity.—This may be expressed as follows:

Present Actions, Sensations, Thoughts, and Emotions tend to revive their Like among previous impressions.

If the mind worked only by the principle of contiguity, nothing would ever occur to us except in some connection already formed. But some explanation is necessary as to the precise relationship subsisting between the two distinct forces of mental resuscitation, in order to shew at once their distinctness and their connection. When the cohesive link between any two contiguous actions, sensations, or ideas, is confirmed by a new occurrence or repetition, it is perfectly obvious that the present impression must revive the *sum total* of the past impressions, or reinstate the *whole mental condition* left on the occasion immediately *preceding*. Thus, if I am disciplining myself in the act of drawing a round figure with my hand, any present effort must recall the state of the muscular and nervous action, or the precise bent acquired at the end of the previous effort, while that effort had to restore the condition at the end of the one *preceding*, and *so on*. But this reinstatement of a former condition by a present act of the same kind, is really and truly a case of the principle before us, or of like recalling like; and without such recall, the progressive adhesion of contiguous things would be impossible. It would appear, therefore, that similarity is tacitly assumed in the operation of contiguity, and is indispensable to the process by which our acquisitions are gradually built up. Why, then, do we set up the associating force of likeness as something independent and distinct? To answer this question, we must advert to the fact, that in those cases where the same impression is deepened by every new repetition, the old and the new are not merely similar, they are *identical*, and the resuscitation takes place without fail, and

as a matter of course. But in going deeper into the explanation of the human intellect, we encounter many classes of similars, where there is not absolute identity, but the mixing up of a certain amount of *diversity* with the likeness actually existing. The botanist classing together all the plants of the same order, as, for example, the *Rosaceæ*, has to be struck with the occurrence of certain common characters—viz., the properties that distinguish the order—in the midst of great varieties in all other respects. It is important that he recognise these general marks, whether the plants be trees or shrubs, whether they be poisonous or wholesome, and under many other diversities. It is exceedingly important in science, in the business of life, and even in the creations of fine art, that the mind should take cognizance of likeness surrounded by unlikeness; which is the case that renders it necessary to characterise as distinct the associating force now under discussion. In the case of perfect identity between a present and a past impression, the past is recovered, and fused with the present, instantaneously and surely. So quick and certain is the process, that we lose sight of it altogether; we are scarcely made aware of the existence of an associating link of similarity under such circumstances. But when we pass from perfect to imperfect or partial identity, we are more readily led to perceive the existence of this link of attraction between similars, for we find that the restoration sometimes does not take place; cases occur where we fail to be struck with a similitude: the spark of resuscitation does not pass between the new impression and the old dormant one. Then it is that we recognise differences between different minds; one man tracing resemblance and making out identity better than another. Moreover, we can assign reasons connected with the culture of the individual, which partially explain superiority or inferiority in this important faculty; just as we have pointed out the conditions favourable to the rapid growth of the adhesive bond of proximity. The failure in reinstating an old impression by virtue of a present one like it, is solely ascribable to the want of perfect identity. When in some new presentation of an object, the old familiar form is muffled, obscured, distorted, disguised, or in any way altered, it is just a chance if we recognise it; the amount of likeness still remaining will have a tendency to revive the object, while the points of difference or unlikeness will operate against the revival, and tend to restore things of their own kindred. If we hear a musical air that we are accustomed to, the new impression revives the old as a matter of course; but if the air is played with complex harmonies and accompaniments which are strange to us, it is possible that the effect of these additions may be to check our recognition of the melody; the unlike circumstances may repel the reinstatement of the old experience more strongly than the remaining likeness attracts it. If our hold of the essential character of the melody is but feeble, and if we are stunned and confounded by the new accompaniments, there is every probability that we shall not be put upon the old mental track made by the same air; in other words, we shall not identify the performance.

A few examples may next be given, to shew the workings of this associating power, and the consequences thence arising. The intellectual operations known under the names Classification, Generalisation, Induction, and Deduction, all proceed upon the discovery of likeness among things lying wide asunder in space and time, and very often veiled by diversity. Thus, in order to include in one list all the species of the *rose*, botanists have had to trace the characters of the genus through its various members, wherever they occur, and under the greatest differences in every other respect. It takes a keen identifying faculty—that is, a strong natural tendency for the resurrection of like to meet like—to see the resemblance of some of these species to the rest; and it has happened in many departments of knowledge that a class has remained incomplete for a time, purely from the disguised character of some of the individuals. So in the process termed *induction*, by which a general law is arrived at by comparing instances of it everywhere, there must be an attraction of similars, in order to bring together in the mind the collection of particulars that the induction is based upon. Thus, Newton assembled in his view the various transparent bodies that he had found in the course of his experiments to refract or bend light strongly, his only intellectual instrument for doing so being the bond of likeness operating as a power of recall. Having looked at them in company, he saw that some were remarkable for their weight or specific gravity, and others for containing inflammable ingredients; upon which he raised the general induction, connecting these two properties with high refrangibility. Then, *deductively*, he applied the generalisation to the diamond, which refracts light more than any other known substance; and as it is not a heavy material, he extended the other inference to it—namely, that it was made up of some inflammable material, an inference afterwards confirmed by the discovery that it is crystallised carbon. Many of the greatest discoveries in science have turned on the identification of modes of action never before supposed the same, as when Franklin was struck with the resemblance between the atmospheric thunder and lightning and the phenomena of common electricity.

Another wide field for the operation of the same principle, is the region of *illustrative comparison*, whereby two things widely remote are brought together, in the view either to elucidate one another, or for the sake of ornament and poetic effect. Most men of genius in literature and poetry have contributed original illustrations, similes, metaphors, or comparisons in the course of their compositions. Shakspeare carries the palm in this faculty. The writings of Bacon are remarkably rich in those that serve the purpose of exposition. Science is with him the 'interpretation' of nature: final causes are 'vestal virgins;' they have no fruit: fallacies are 'idola.' Edmund Burke, another master of illustrative comparison, has termed revolutions the 'medicine' of the state, and regular government its 'food.'

If we inquire into the circumstances that render one mind more prolific in new identifications and comparisons than another, apart from difference of original capacity, we must refer mainly to the fact, that the one has had the greater previous familiarity with the class of things thus brought up by the attraction of similarity. A mathematician is the most likely person to bring up comparisons from mathematics; a botanist is prepared to identify plants; a travelled man provides illustrations from foreign countries; a historian, from history. The sailor is notoriously rich in nautical similes and illustrations. When any one not specially versed in a subject is yet prone to draw upon it profusely in the way of comparison, we must then refer to great natural endowment as the sole explanation. But our space does not allow us to dwell further on the subject. (For the full exemplification of both the associating principles and of the complications that they give birth to, see Bain on *The Senses and the Intellect*.)

The earliest known attempt to lay down the laws whereby thought succeeds to thought, is that contained in Aristotle's treatise on Memory. He

...s three different principles of mental ...s—viz., Similarity, Contrariety, and Co... He has been followed by most other ... as regards all the three principles. It ... clearly seen and generally admitted, ... is not an independent associating ... a thing suggests its opposite or con... will be found that the two have been pre... ogether in the mind, and have therefore ... a mutual hold by contiguity. Such, for ... is black and white, wet and dry, health ...ess, prosperity and adversity, &c. Con... fact, have a natural inseparability; they ... class of relatives like father and son, which ...h other necessarily, and have no meaning ... mutual reference. It requires no new ... of our constitution to account for sugges... ...icular case. Moreover, when things ...ontrasted with one another, as high ... a fall, the mind is greatly impressed ...k of transition, and so retains a lively ... of the sequence, having by that means ...endency to pass from the one to the ..., then, the enumeration of Aristotle is ... the two principles that we have now ...d.

... recognised the principle of contiguity as ...lation of reminiscence; but the Aristotelian ...er, Vives, who wrote in the 14th c., was the ...ecify in minute detail the various circum... ... determune the adhesive bond of recollec... ...'s enumeration is well known to have ... three principles of resemblance, con... causation, which he illustrates as ... picture naturally leads our thoughts to ..., [resemblance]. The mention of one ... in a building naturally introduces an ... discourse concerning the others, [contin... ...d if we think of a wound, we can scarce ... reflecting on the pain which follows it, ...].' Causation, however, is merely a case ...nity; so also we may say of Order in Place, ...er in Time, which have been given as ...iples.

... has been made to generalise Similarity ...ency, but without success. For a full and ...w of the history of these laws, see Sir W. ... edition of Reid.

A'N, ESSUA'N, or **ESWA'N**, the ancient ...own of Upper Egypt, on the east bank of ... near the borders of Nubia, 110 miles south ..., in lat. 24° 5′ 30″ N., and long. 32° 55′ E. ... few remains existing of the ancient city. ... columns present themselves among the ... not seem of an early date; and part ... still remains with a dilapidated portico. ...a-wall, that part which lies to the south ... town is still standing; and beyond it is ... of A., where there are numerous tombs, ...aphs, with Arabic inscriptions. In the ...hood there are several granite quarries, ...them remarkable for remains of ancient ... that had been cut from the rock, and ...hewn, and for antique inscriptions and ...announcing the removal of blocks and the ... the Egyptian monarch by whose orders ... been quarried. The environs of A. are ...d sandy; but the palm thrives, and the ...hich are excellent, form the staple of the ...ome traffic is carried on in senna, henna, ... wicker-baskets, and slaves.

...ient name Syene is the Coptic word *sounn* ...signifying 'opening;' and the modern one ... by adding the Arabic *el*, 'the,' softened ...viz., *Es-suan*, 'the opening.' A. and its ...are highly interesting to geologists and mineralogists; that kind of granite called syenite receives its name from the town.

ASSU'MPTION, a village and river of Lower Canada. About 8 miles below the village, the river flows into the St Lawrence, or rather into the Ottawa, nearly opposite to the lower extremity of the island of Montreal.—A., or Asuncion, is also the name of the capital of Paraguay, on the left bank of the river of that name. It has a population of 17,890, and has a trade in hides, tobacco, timber, wax, and Paraguay tea. The city was founded in 1535 by the Spanish, and soon became a place of importance, though not of beauty, being ill built, dirty, and disagreeable. The surrounding country is rich in pastures, and also produces crops of wheat, maize, sugar, tobacco, honey, wax, &c.

ASSU'MPTION OF THE VIRGIN MARY. A festival of the Romish Church. In the 7th c., the idea originated that the soul and body of the Virgin had been carried up to heaven by Christ and his angels. The Roman Catholic Church, therefore, has, ever since that period, kept the 15th of August in memory of Mary's translation into glory; although, from the 4th c. until then, it had kept the same day in memory of her death. Liguori, in his *Glory of Mary*, gives a very minute account of the circumstances of her Assumption.

ASSU'RANCE. See ISSURANCE.

ASSURANCE, COMMON, is described by Blackstone as the legal evidence of the translation of property, whereby every man's estate is assured to him, and all controversies, doubts, and difficulties are either prevented or removed. For an account of these common assurances or *conveyances*, as they are generally termed, see DEED and CONVEYANCE.

A'SSYNT, a mountainous, moorish, and very rugged district or parish, 25 miles long, and 15 broad, in south-west Sutherlandshire. It mostly consists of a net-work of rocky heights, interspersed with a multitude (200) of dark, motionless tarns or pools, of various sizes, with some larger lochs, the largest, Loch Assynt, being 10 miles long and 1 broad. The district consists of gneiss, Silurian rocks, and primitive limestone. There are a dozen mountains 3000—3500 feet high. Some of the mountains are covered with white bleached stones and protruding rocks like patches of snow. The mountains have frequently the form of artificial pillars and cairns, and are the remains of an enormous denudation of the nearly horizontal strata of the district. Suil Veinn is a perfect sugar-loaf, towering nearly 2000 feet above a rugged table-land of gneiss hills, 800 to 1000 feet above the sea. In Advreck Castle, on a promontory on the east side of Loch A., the famous Marquis of Montrose was confined in 1650.

ASSY'RIA (called Athura on Persian cuneiform inscriptions, and Assura on the Median) was the northernmost of the three great countries that occupied the Mesopotamian plain. It was bounded on the N. by the Niphates Mountains of Armenia; on the S., by Susiana and Babylonia; on the E., by Media; and on the W., according to some, by the Tigris, but more correctly by the water-shed of the Euphrates, for many Assyrian ruins are found to the west of the Tigris. It was thus about 280 miles long from north to south, and rather more than 150 broad from east to west. This plain is diversified by mountain-chains on the north and east, and watered by the Tigris and its affluents, between two of which - the Zab rivers - lay the finest part of the country, called Adiabené. As it was the boundary-land between the Semitic people and Iran, it became the scene of important political events. Its extraordinary fertility enabled it to support a large population. The high degree of prosperity

and civilisation reached by its inhabitants in very early times is attested not only by ancient writers, but by the extensive ruins of mighty cities, by the canals and contrivances for irrigation, and by the many proofs—furnished by recent excavations—of an acquaintance with the arts and sciences. The ruins of many cities are grouped around Nineveh; while lower down, the Tigris exhibits an almost unbroken line of ruins from Tekrit to Bagdad. Under the Mohammedans, this fine country is now almost a desert.

History.—Ancient authorities differ widely from each other respecting the rise and progress, the extent and the duration, of the Assyrian empire. Ctesias, a Greek of Cnidus, court-physician to Artaxerxes Mnemon, is quoted by various ancient writers; and his information, though utterly incredible and fabulous, has been followed by most classical historians, and by the whole series of ecclesiastical writers. Many ingenious but futile attempts have been made to reconcile his history with the Scripture narrative. Berosus, a priest of Bel at Babylon, who wrote about 268 B.C., and Herodotus, differ widely from Ctesias, but are confirmed in many important particulars by the Bible, and by the continually increasing evidence derived from cuneiform inscriptions.

In the Bible narrative, we are told that Nineveh was founded by Asshur from Babylon (Gen. x. 11). The latter city, therefore, must have been the capital of a more ancient empire, as Berosus asserts, and recent discoveries go far to prove, though Greek writers maintain the reverse. The next notice we have of A. does not occur till 770 B.C., when Pul, king of A., invaded Palestine, but was bought off by Menahem, king of Israel. Tiglath-pileser, who succeeded Pul (738 B.C.), conquered Syria, and carried off many of the Jews into captivity. Next, Salmanezer (730 B.C.) subdued Israel, which, at the instigation of the Egyptians, had refused to pay tribute. The next is Sennacherib (713 B.C.), who attacked Egypt, and threatened Judah under Hezekiah. He was slain by his two sons, and succeeded by his son Esarhaddon, who was also master of Babylon (2 Chron. xxxiii. 11), which, under Nabonassar, had been independent of Nineveh since 747 B.C. Very little credit is to be attached to the expedition of Holofernes recorded in the book of Judith.

After this, the empire appears to have gradually decayed, until at last, in the reign of Sardanapalus II., or Saracus, a league was formed for its destruction between Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, and Cyaxares, king of Media, which was strengthened by the marriage of Nebuchadnezzar, son of the former, to Nitocris, daughter of the latter. The war and siege are said to have been interrupted by an invasion of the Scythians, which drew off Cyaxares; but at length Nineveh was taken and destroyed about 606 B.C., or, according to Rawlinson, 625. In the time of Darius Hystaspes, A. rebelled without success in conjunction with Media. In the time of Herodotus, the capital had ceased to exist; and when Xenophon passed it, the very name was forgot, though he testifies to the extent of the deserted city, and asserts the height of the ruined walls to be 150 feet. An inconsiderable town seems to have existed on its ruins in the reign of Claudius; and the last notice we have of Nineveh in the classics is in Tacitus.

According to the Greek legends, the Assyrian empire was founded by Ninus. To this monarch and his consort Semiramis are ascribed expeditions on an incredibly magnificent scale against Bactria, Ethiopia, and India. We are told that Semiramis led an army of 3,000,000 infantry, 500,000 cavalry, and 100,000 chariots, and a fleet of 2000 ships, and was encountered by forces more numerous still, and defeated; that she returned to Nineveh, where she soon afterwards died, and was reckoned among the gods, and was succeeded by her son Ninyas, an effeminate prince. The succeeding part of the history as related by Ctesias is equally false, though that writer managed to make the ancient world give credit to his narrative in preference to that of Herodotus. He gives a list of monarchs from Ninus to Sardanapalus, which is now considered to be a clumsy forgery. According to him, for thirty generations after Ninyas, the kings led a life of luxury and indolence in their palace; the last of them, Sardanapalus, made a vigorous defence against Arbaces, the rebel governor of Media, but finding it impossible to defend Nineveh, he set fire to his palace, and burnt himself with all his treasures; this event took place 1306 years after Ninus. Now, the above account represents Nineveh to have perished nearly centuries before the real date, which was abo... B.C., and is utterly incompatible w... Herodotus assigns to the empire a ... years, and Berosus of 526. In a... these conflicting accounts, histori... that Nineveh was twice destroy... tion is now generally rejecte... H... Nineveh was actually destroyed by ... from the condition of the slabs an... in its ruins, which shew the actio... heat.

A. became a Median province, 605 B.C., and ... wards, in conjunction with Babylonia, f... of the satrapies of the Persian empire. In ... at Gaugamela, near Arbela, in A., ... defeated Darius Codomannus. In 312 ... became part of the kingdom of ... capital was Seleucia, on the T... wards subject to the Parthian ... was Ctesiphon, and was more than ... in possession of the Romans. When the monarchy of the Sassanides was destroyed successors of Mohammed, A. was sub... califs. Their seat was Bagdad fr... 1258. It has been under the Turk... which period it was wrested from the ...

We shall now proceed to mention a points that have been satisfactori... from the cuneiform inscriptions. F... indebted to Rawlinson's *Herodotus*.

It has not been ascertained when A. first independent of Babylon (q. v.). The seat of ment was first at Asshur (now *Kileh-Sherg* right bank of the Tigris, 60 miles south of capital, Nineveh. At this place have been ... bricks and fragments of vases bearing the ... the earliest known Assyrian kings. For Semiramis are to be considered as of Greek writers. The earliest ... *Bel-lush*, one of a series of fo... probably occupy from 1273 to ... B.C. next series of six, the names of five ... the famous Kileh-Shergat cylinder, purely historical document as yet d... Mesopotamia.

Tiglathi-nin, the last of the Kileh-Sh... was succeeded by his son, Asshur-... warlike Sardanapalus I. of the Gre... Calah, the modern *Nimrud*, his ca... miles further north, on the left ba... His annals are very complete. ... quests, he mentions that he had t... Tyre, Sidon, and other Phœnician c... the founder of the north-west pala... at which, next to that of Sennacherib at ... is the largest and most magnificent of ... Assyrian edifices. The greater portion of

ow in the British Museum are from this

n I. was succeeded by his son Shal-
s deeds are briefly recorded on the
now in the British Museum, the full
being apparently reserved for the colossal
h seem to have been the usual dedication
story. Of his campaigns, the most inter-
s we are those in which he defeated Ben-
Damascus, and his murderer and successor
According to his own account, Shalman-
ated Hazael, killing 16,000 of his fighting-
capturing more than 1100 chariots (884
obelisk also records the tribute paid by
Khumri, i. e., Jehu, son of Omri, king
Jehu was son of Jehoshaphat, and
utmost to extirpate the family of
bably Jehu, like other usurpers, was
entify himself with the family which
dispossessed, and of course the Assyrians
the title he gave himself.
h, probably the Pul of the Scriptures, is
on a pavement-slab from Nimrud to have
tribute from Samaria, Tyre, Damascus,
Palestine, which assertion agrees with
m (2 Kings xv.) of the 1000 talents
With this king ends the first
we have 18 monarchs from
va-lush (1273—747 B.C.).
Assyrian empire begins with Tiglath-
(747 B.C.), and ends with the destruction
(625 B.C.). It is plain from Scripture
empire was in a flourishing condition
reigns of those kings who came in con-
Hebrews, and this account exactly
the monuments, but contradicts Her-
ably, on the accession of Tiglath-
lon had revolted, and this partial
reached Herodotus in an exaggerated
annals of this prince exist only in a very
y state. The name of his successor,
has not yet been found on the monu-
capture of Samaria is usually ascribed
but his successor, Sargon, expressly
maria was taken by himself in his
on's palace at *Khorsabad*, near
ed the valuable series of monu-
Louvre. Sargon was succeeded
acherib. He fixed the seat of
Nineveh, and employed the forced
300,000 men to repair the great palace.
his reign, he built a new and more mag-
fice, which he decorated with sculptures
ing his various exploits. This is the
xcavated by Layard. It contained at least
ne halls—one of them 150 feet by 125,
leries, one of 200, the other of 185
numerable chambers. The exca-
covers above eight acres. The annals
extend only to his eighth year.
length his successful attack upon
vasion of Judæa, the submission of
, and his deportation of 200,000 Jews.
dition is not to be confounded with the
vasion, in which he failed ignominiously,
is not recorded on his monuments. His
ion very shortly after his return to Nine-
his second expedition, readily accounts
ce.
n, his son and successor, held his court
at Nineveh, sometimes at Babylon.
his name have been discovered at
blet at Babylon dated in his reign.
how Manasseh was brought to him at
a he was led captive from Jerusalem
). No record has as yet been dis-

covered of this expedition against Palestine. His edifices are not inferior to those of his predecessors. He employed Greek and Phœnician artists, and to them probably we owe the beautiful bas-reliefs that adorn the edifices of his erection. The decline of the empire probably commenced with Asshur-banipal II. The arts of peace flourished, while the military vigour of the nation declined. The sculptures of this reign are decidedly superior to the earlier in spirit, delicacy, and freedom from conventionality. The slabs shew that hunting, not war, was this king's favourite pursuit. He was succeeded by his son Asshur-emit-ili, the last king of whom any records have yet been discovered. It is uncertain whether Nineveh was destroyed under him, or under a successor, the Saracus of Berosus, the effeminate Sardanapalus of the Greeks. The character usually given of this last king, as a debauchee throwing off his indolent habits, and after performing prodigies of valour, perishing by a glorious death, rather than surrender, is derived solely from Ctesias. All we distinctly know is that, finding himself betrayed to the Median king by Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, he set fire to his palace and perished in the flames.

We may here note a singularly important cuneiform discovery made by Mr George Smith of the British Museum, and the substance of which was made public at a meeting of the Biblical Archæological Society in December 1872. While engaged on an examination of the collection of Assyrian tablets in the British Museum, Mr Smith lighted upon a curious series of legends, including a copy of the story of the Flood. On discovering these documents, which were much mutilated, he searched over all the collections of fragments of inscriptions, consisting of several thousands of smaller pieces, and ultimately recovered 80 fragments of these legends. The tablets were originally at least 12 in number, forming one story or set of legends, the account of the Flood being on the 11th tablet. Of the inscription describing the Flood, there are fragments of three copies, containing duplicate texts. These texts belong to the time of Asshur-bani-pal (circa 660 B.C.), and were found in the library of that monarch in the palace at Nineveh. The original text, according to the statements on the tablets, belonged to the city of Erech, and appears to have been either written in or translated into the Semitic Babylonian at a very early period. Mr Smith is of opinion that its composition cannot be placed later than the 17th c. B.C., while it may be much older. The Assyrian story of the Deluge is both like and unlike the Scripture narrative. The Flood is sent as a punishment for sin; the builder of the ark is called Sisit (the *Xisuthrus* of the Græco-Chaldæan Berosus); he gathers into the vessel all his male and female servants, all the sons of the army, and all the beasts of the field; the storm of rain lasts only six days, and yet submerges the whole earth; all life is destroyed; Sisit sends forth a dove which can find no resting-place, and returns; then a swallow, which is also forced to return; then a raven, which does not come back. The ark rests on a mountain, the animals are liberated, an altar is built by the grateful patriarch, and Bel, the Great God, makes a 'covenant' with Sisit. The minuter details of this Assyrian legend diverge greatly from the Hebrew account, and lead to the conclusion that in each we have an independent tradition of some great natural catastrophe in the early ages of human history. Mr Smith notices that the Biblical narrative is the version of an inland people; the name of the ark in Genesis means a chest or box, and not a ship; there is no notice of the sea or of launching, no pilots are spoken of, no navigation is mentioned. The

inscription, on the other hand, belongs to a maritime people; the ark is called a ship, the ship is launched into the sea, trial is made of it, and it is given in charge to a pilot. This seems to point to the Persian Gulf as the birthplace of the old legend. Mr Smith is of opinion that, 'beneath the mounds and ruined cities of Chaldæa, still awaiting exploration, lie, together with older copies of this Deluge text, other legends and histories of the earliest civilisation of the world.' Mr Smith returned in 1874 from a lengthened exploration of the Chaldæan ruins, and gave an account of his valuable discoveries in a work entitled *Assyrian Discoveries* (1875).

Government.—The government was despotic, as suited the character of the people. The empire was a mere congeries of kingdoms bound to the supreme authority only by certain obligations of paying tribute, giving presents, and shewing due respect. Each kingdom retained its own rulers, laws, and religion, although we do find some attempts to rule by satraps and collectors of tribute. Tiglath-pileser also boasts, in an inscription, of having punished and crucified the Chaldæans who refused to worship his gods. In consequence of this imperfect organisation, the empire was exposed to frequent revolts of the subject nations, when such opportunities offered as a disputed succession, or want of energy in the ruling prince. Then the labour of conquest had to begin anew, and it was sought to diminish the danger of the central power by inflicting severe punishments on the rebels. The history of the Jews has made us familiar with one of these devices—viz., the wholesale deportation of the inhabitants of the offending district. It may be readily believed that such an empire, though imposing from the magnificence and wealth of the capital, yet, from the impoverishment and weakness of the subject states, was continually liable to fall to pieces, and was ill fitted to resist an attack from without. That A. did actually last for five centuries, was owing to a long succession of warlike princes, and to the energy of the population.

Religion.—The religion of the Assyrians was nearly identical with that of the Babylonians. It was a gross polytheism, their gods being thousands in number, and each village having its own particular deity. From thousands of theological tablets now in the British Museum, it is known that each divinity had many names, and some of them as many as fifty titles besides. Again, many deities that are prominent in the Babylonian pantheon are either unknown or occupy a subordinate position in the Assyrian. Besides, the same gods did not remain equally popular throughout. The supreme god was Asshur, probably the deified patriarch. His worship was confined to Assyria. He is generally associated in the inscriptions with *Nin* and *Nergal* (2 Kings xvii. 30), who are represented by the man-bull and the man-lion. The winged globe, so often seen in the sculptures, from which a figure with a horned helmet shoots his arrows, is supposed to be the emblem of Asshur. Next in rank is the governing triad, answering to the Pluto, Jupiter, and Neptune of the classical mythology; the next group corresponds to Æther, the sun and the moon; then five inferior deities, representing the five planets. Each god is associated with a goddess. Mylitta, or Beltis, is the 'queen.' The male and female powers of the sun are represented in the Scripture phrase, 'Adrammelech, and Anamelech, gods of Sepharvaim'—that is, of Sippara, a town a few miles above Babylon. *Bel-merodach* was originally an inferior deity, son of Hea, the fish-god; but under the later Babylonians, we find him monopolising the greater part of the homage which used previously to be divided among several. Nisroch (2 Kings xix. 37) has not been yet ascertained. Nebo (Isaiah xlvi.) is one of planetary gods, and corresponds to Mercu systems of notation, divisions of time, the pla stars, animals and metals, divination and a were all more or less closely connected with t

Ethnology.—The Assyrians have been ass some ethnologists to the Aryan race, but it generally acknowledged that they were a b the Semitic family of nations, and the members of the same grand division of the as the Syrians, the Phœnicians w the Jews, and the modern Arabia... as e c. B.C., Semitism, as a distinct ethnic e appears to have first developed itself. The races, variously called Scythic, Turanian, or appear to have once been spread over the space from the Caucasus to the Indian Oce from the Mediterranean to the mouths of the Their type of language has continued to our exist in four-fifths of Asia, and in some of the corners of Europe, as among the Finns, Lapps and Hungarians. In Mesopotamia, and of the Nile, where natural advantages early to form settled communities, inartificial type of language was ... Hamitism, and afterwards still fu into Semitism. Then seems to have ... series of migrations. Asshur went f at this time from Babylon to A., Abra... followers to Palestine, the Joktanian Ar Arabia. From these seats, Semitism was aft carried to Cyprus, to the southern seaboard o of Asia Minor, to Carthage, Sicily, Spa Western Africa.

The traditions of A. indicate a very early tion between Ethiopia, Arabia, and the cities Euphrates. Mesopotamia undoubtedly co large proportion of Arabians, and this acc the fact that Herodotus styles Sennach of the Arabians and Assyrians. The Cu colonies of whom were planted in Armenia Assyrian kings, are supposed by some been a foreign tribe, which had immigrate north, and become a priestly caste. But race, of which the Chaldæan is a tribe, is — probability thought to have inhabited from the remotest times, and by it civilisation in Mesopotamia was ori... ably the art of picture-writing was p Hamitic tribes who lived in the valley o and passed eastward to the Euphrates. language appears to have been formed l ism attained its peculiar development ... tion. Long after Semitism had become pre in Mesopotamia, the *Akkad* or Chaldæa continued to be the scientific language in the tablets relating to mythology, astro science, as well as most historical and officia were written. This alphabet was adopt certain modifications by the Semitic tribes became predominant in Assyria. ... cu characters were elaborated from the fo... of objects, and gradually became phonet... symbolic, and for convenience of engra the form of arrow-heads, instead of the ... flowing forms which are introduced by plastic materials. After the Aryan race more extensively in Western Asia, th monarchs, when they wished to make an cation to their subjects generally intel it necessary to publish it in three langu ing to the principal divisions of hum... hence the trilingual inscriptions of Beh which consist of an Indo-European, a Tura Semitic column. It is still necessary in places to employ three tongues, repres...

...e families, the Persian, the Turkish, and ...a.

...ties, *Civilisation*, &c.—The excavations ... by M. Botta, French consul at Mosul, and ...d near Mosul, Khorsabad, and Koyunjik, ...as we have partly seen, to very interesting ...s. The palaces and buildings that have ...open are full of sculptures, all covered ...ptions, in deciphering which considerable ...been made, and more may be expected. ...st remarkable monuments now in the ... are two winged, human-headed ...ures, and as many in length; winged ...aded bulls of similar dimensions with the ...l sphinxes; and the famous obelisk of ..., sculptured on the four sides. On ... represented a victory, a prisoner pros... feet of the king, and foreign people ...ute, and leading such animals as the ...amel, elephant, lion, and rhinoceros—

Lion-hunt.
(From the North west Palace at Nimrud.)

...ound only in lands far east of the Tigris. ...liefs are very numerous, exhibiting especi... and hunting. The march, the onset, the ... siege, the passage of rivers, the submis... ...eatment of captives, secretaries noting ...er of heads taken in battle, and the amount ... the chase of the lion, of the antelope, of ...ss, and other animals—such are the ...subjects of the Assyrian sculptor. Nor ...ated in the conventional style of Egypt, ...anner which, for grace, spirit, correctness ...y of execution, excels everything else ...Asiatic art. The artists sometimes follow ...representation different from ours; for ...a bull has five legs given him, in order ...all points of view he may be seen with ...adder stands edgeways against a wall, to ...not a pole. But a truthful impression is ...d at, and it is this that gives these ...eir value. The labour bestowed on the ... of a priest's dress, and in the tasteful ... an article of furniture, proves them to ...rk of an ingenious and painstaking people. ...bas-reliefs we gain but little information ...the private life of the Assyrians. There ...which represent the fodd'ring of cattle, ...ding on mules, &c.

...atural to expect that Nineveh a wealthy ...ious city—imported many of the products ...countries, yet the manufactured goods ...ainly be of home production. The jars, ...as bottles, carved ornaments in ivory and ..., engraved gems, bells, earrings, arms, ... excellent workmanship. The orna...ially are in good taste, and evince no ...le skill in the working of metals. Trans... was not unknown, nor the use of the magnifying agent. The Assyrians knew the ...of the arch, the use of the lever and roller, ...nstruction of aqueducts and drains. In the arts of peace, they appear to have been not inferior to any ancient nation; while their conquests, and the long duration of their empire, suffice to prove their capacity for war.—See Rawlinson's *Five Great Monarchies of the Ancient World, Chaldæa, Assyria, Babylonia, Media, and Persia* (1861); and Mr George Smith's paper read at a meeting of the Biblical Archæological Society, December 1872.

A'STACUS. See CRAYFISH and LOBSTERS.

ASTA'RTÉ (styled Ashtaroth in the Old Testament), the name of the chief female deity of the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Syrians (Syria Dea), also worshipped by the Jews in times when idolatry prevailed. A. was the original from which the Greeks borrowed their Aphrodite (q. v.). As Baal was god of the sun, A. was goddess of the moon. Her chief temples were in Tyre and Sidon. According to ancient accounts, her worship was of a licentious character. The oldest known image of her —that in Paphos—represented her simply under the form of a white conical stone. In Canaan and Phœnicia she was subsequently typified under the form of a cow, or sometimes she had only a cow's or bull's head; still later, her emblem became a star; and finally, she was conceived of as the 'queen of heaven,' sitting on a lion, her head surrounded with rays, and in the one hand a thunderbolt, in the other a sceptre.

ASTA'RTÉ, a genus of Mollusca, with bivalve shells, the type of a family *Astartidæ*, very closely allied to the *Veneridæ* or Venus family. It is interesting chiefly with reference to geologic changes and the history of life and organisation, because only a few species seem now to exist, and these limited to the North Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, whereas the fossil species are extremely numerous, commencing with the *lias* period, and distributed over the whole world. The Astartidæ may be regarded as having given place to the Veneridæ, which commenced with the oolitic period, and are among the most abundant bivalve mollusca of the present time.

A-STAY', the position of an anchor when, during heaving, the cable forms an acute angle with the surface of the water.

A'STER (Gr. a star, from the form of the flowers), a genus of plants of the natural order *Compositæ*, which Lindley has therefore chosen to call *Asteraceæ*. The ray and the disk are of different colours. The genus contains a great number of species, both herbaceous and shrubby, which have been arranged into six or seven groups, regarded by many as distinct genera. One species only, *A. Tripolium* or *Tripolium vulgare*, the Sea Starwort, is a native of Britain. It is common in salt marshes. A number of perennial species are in cultivation as garden-flowers, of which the New-England A. (*A. Novæ Angliæ*) and the Michaelmas Daisy (*A. Tradescanti*), both natives of North America, are perhaps the most common, and, with some of the other species, are prized as among the comparatively few flowers to be seen at that dull season when autumn is giving place to winter. But the best known and most valued of all the asters is the China A. (*A. Chinensis*), a summer annual, of which many varieties are in cultivation, and new ones are continually introduced. It was brought from China in the earlier part of the 18th c. The varieties exhibit great diversities of form and colour. The plant delights in a rich free soil. In the northern parts of Britain, the seed is generally sown in April in a hot-bed, or in pots under a frame, and the

young asters are planted out in the open air in May. They flower from July to the end of autumn, and contribute much to the liveliness of the flower-garden.—*A. argophyllus*, or *Haxtonia argophylla*, is a shrub, a native of Van Diemen's Land, smelling strongly of musk. The whole plant has a whitish aspect. It grows to a considerable size, but succeeds in the open air only in the very south of England.

ASTERABA'D. See ASTRABAD.

ASTE'RIAS AND ASTERI'ADÆ. See STAR-FISH.

A'STERISK (Gr. a little star), a sign or symbol (*), used in writing and printing either as a reference to a note at the bottom or on the margin of the page. The obelisk (q. v.), or dagger (†), and many other marks, are similarly employed; but when there are several references on the same page, it is now common to use the numerals 1, 2, 3, &c. The A. and other similar signs may have any arbitrary meaning assigned to them at the will of the writer, an explanation being previously given what the signification is to be. The Greek grammarians, or critics, used the A. to mark a passage that had been unjustly suspected, but was to be held as genuine, or a passage in any way remarkable; the obelisk, again, marked an interpolated or an objectionable word or passage.

ASTEROI'DS. See PLANETOIDS.

ASTEROPHY'LLITES (Gr. *aster*, a star, and *phyllon*, a leaf), a generic name, under which are included many of the most abundant fossil plants of the coal-measures. The leaves are arranged in a stellated manner around the stems or branches. The A. are ranked among the exogenous or dicotyledonous fossils, but they are of doubtful affinity, and the exact determination of their place in the system has not yet been accomplished.

A'STHMA is a disease characterised by the breathing, previously natural, becoming difficult, and accompanied by wheezing and a distressing sense of tightness in the chest. A. generally appears at first after some inflammatory affection of the respiratory mucous membrane, and more especially in those who have led dissipated lives. In others, it is clearly hereditary, and frequently affects several members of the same family. A. may be habitual, or may occur in spasms, generally preceded by some premonitory symptoms, as in some by great drowsiness; others, says Dr Hyde Salter, 'know by extreme wakefulness and unusual mental activity and buoyancy of spirits; and I knew one case in which an attack of ophthalmia occurred.'

The spasms may occur at any hour; but in nineteen out of twenty cases they waken the patient from sleep between three and four in the morning. The horizontal position facilitating the flow of blood to the right side of the heart, and therefore to the lungs, the disadvantage at which the muscles of respiration are placed, and the greater readiness with which sources of irritation act during sleep, explain this fact.

Persons subject to A. scarcely dare fall asleep after any imprudence in diet; if they continue awake till their supper is fairly digested, and the stomach empty, they may go to sleep fearlessly, and have a good night's rest. The asthmatic paroxysm is thus described by Dr Salter, the latest authority on this common but terrible disease: 'The patient goes to bed and sleeps two or three hours, becomes distressed in his breathing, and begins to wheeze, so as to waken those in adjoining rooms. He awakes, changes his position, falls asleep again and again, and the miserable fight between A. and sleep go on, till the increased suffering does not allow patient longer to forget himself for a moment becomes wide awake, sits up in bed, throws h forward, plants his elbows on his knees, and fixed head and elevated shoulders, labou breath like a dying man.'

If the spasm is protracted, the oxygenat blood is imperfectly performed, owing to supply of air, and his extremities get c but at the same time the violent respiration cover him with swea always small. The muscles of the attached to the ribs, act as extraor of respiration. The chest enlarge paroxysm, but in it there is almost tion of air. The respiratory tubes all small, and the parts at which they are so constr are constantly shifting.

The remedies for A. are numerous, but not depended on. They consist in paying attenti the digestive system, and in anti-spasmodics, taken internally or by inhalation.

A'STI (*Asta Pompeia*), a city of Pi government of Alessandria, lies on of the Tanaro, on the railway from T 26½ miles E.S.E. of Turin. Pop. It is a large town, with walls considerably and the streets generally very narrow an It is the seat of a bishop, and has a co and a royal college. There is carried on able trade in silk and woollen fabrics, le hats, as well as in wines and agricultura A. is a town of high antiquity, having been for its pottery before its capture by the G 400 B.C. On the occasion of its being and destroyed in an irruption of G rebuilt by Pompey, and received Pompeia. In the middle ages, A. most powerful republics of Upper captured and burnt by the Emperor 1155; and after a series of vicissitudes the possession of the Visconti of Naples, it was ceded to the French, in whose remained till the middle of the 16th c came into the possession of the Dukes of it still remains. Alfieri was born here, district of Asti, one of the six subdivisions government of Alessandria, is bounded on and N. by the province of Turin, S. by by Alessandria Proper, and N.E. by the Casale. The surface is hilly and picturesoil rests upon limestone abounding in fo fertile, producing corn, fruit, and wine. brated for a fine white wine resembling called *vino d'Asti*. Silk is one of its most ant products.

ASTON, LUISE, a German authoress of note, but principally known for her zeal in of the 'rights of women.' She was born ab in the vicinity of Halberstadt, and at an was married to a wealthy English man Their union was not happy; perhaps her views of society and of the proper position sex contributed to the estrangement of their thies. After separating from her attracted public attention, especially appearing on the streets in man's dr cigars, &c. This conduct brought collisions with the police, and she wa to leave the city. During the Slesvig however, she found a nobler sphere for nature, and displayed the greatest her self-sacrificing devotion as an hospital n has written various books, the principal are

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Many passages of our old writers are unintelligible without some knowledge of astrological terms, numbers of which have taken root in the language. In the technical rules by which human destiny was foreseen, the heavenly *houses* played an important part. Astrologers were by no means at one as to the way of laying out those houses. A very general way was to draw great circles through the north and south points of the horizon, as meridians pass through the poles, dividing the heavens, visible and invisible, into twelve equal parts—six above the horizon, and six below. These were the twelve houses, and were numbered onward, beginning with that which lay in the east immediately below the horizon. The first was called the house of life; the second, of fortune, or riches; the third, of brethren; the fourth, of relations; the fifth, of children; the sixth, of health; the seventh, of marriage; the eighth, of death, or the upper portal; the ninth, of religion; the tenth, of dignities; the eleventh, of friends and benefactors; the twelfth, of enemies, or of captivity. The position of the twelve houses for a given time and place—the instant of an individual's birth, for instance—was a *theme*. To construct such a plan was to *cast* the person's nativity. The houses had different powers, the strongest being the first; as it contained the part of the heavens about to rise, it was called the *ascendant*, and the point of the ecliptic cut by its upper boundary was the *horoscope*. Each house had one of the heavenly bodies as its *lord*, who was strongest in his own house.

ASTRO'NOMY (Gr. *astron*, a star, *nomos*, a law)

colder parts of the Old World, shrubby, and often spiny, or unarmed and herbaceous. A number of the shrubby species yield the substance called Tragacanth (q. v.), or Gum Tragacanth.—*A. Boëticus*, an annual, native of the south of Europe, with upright branching stems, is cultivated in Hungary, Germany, and other parts of Europe, for its seeds, which are roasted, ground, and used as a substitute for coffee, or mixed with it to improve its flavour.—The Sweet Milk-vetch, or Wild Liquorice (*A. glycyphyllos*), a native of Britain and other parts of Europe, perennial, with long and very thick roots, which penetrate deep into the soil, and almost prostrate stems, three feet in length, is occasionally cultivated for food of cattle, yielding a very abundant herbage. Cattle are not fond of it at first, but are said to become fond of it after being accustomed to it for some time. The roots have somewhat of the sweetness of liquorice.

ASTRAKHA'N, originally a province of the Mogul empire, but united with the Russian empire in 1554. At present, A. forms one of the south-east governments of Russia in Europe, and is bounded on the S. by the Caspian Sea and the Caucasus; on the W., by the country of the Don Cossacks; on the N., by the government of Saratov; and on the E., by Orenburg. Area, 50,000 sq. m.; pop. (1867) 319,278. The province of A. is almost entirely a barren waste, the only fertile portions being the banks of the Volga, which divides the province into two equal parts. Salt is procured from the marshes of the steppes, considerable numbers of cattle are reared, and the annual value of the sturgeon-fishing in the Volga is as much as 2,500,000 rubles (about £400,000). The climate varies from 70° F. in summer, to 13° in winter. The population is composed of diverse elements—Russian, Tatar, Georgian, Armenian, Bokharese, Persian, and Hindu.

ASTRAKHA'N, the chief town of the government of the same name, is situated on an island of the Volga, and near the Caspian Sea, in lat. 46° 21′ N., and long. 48° 4′ E. It is the seat of a Greek archbishop and an Armenian bishop; has thirty-seven Greek, two Roman Catholic, one Protestant, and two Armenian churches; fifteen mosques, an Indian temple, a gymnasium, a seminary for priests, a botanical garden, and many manufactories. Pop. (1867) 47,839. The houses are mostly of wood, and irregularly built. The fisheries in the Volga supply occupation to great numbers of the inhabitants of A. and its neighbourhood. The principal exports are leather, linen and woollen goods, salted sturgeon, caviar, and isinglass. Imports consist chiefly of gold-embroidered silken goods from Persia, silk stuffs, woollen goods, rice, rhubarb, raw silk, drugs, &c. From July to October, the neighbourhood of A. is frequently visited by swarms of locusts.—A. is the name of a fine description of fur, the produce of a variety of sheep found in Bokhara, Persia, and Syria.

A'STRAL SPI'RITS. The star (Gr. *astron*) and fire worship of the eastern religions rested on the doctrine, that every heavenly body is animated by a pervading spirit, forming, as it were, its soul; and this doctrine passed into the religio-physical theories of the Greeks and Jews, and even into the Christian world. In the demonology or spirit-systems of Christendom in the middle ages, A. S. are conceived of sometimes as fallen angels, sometimes as souls of departed men, sometimes as spirits originating in fire, and hovering between heaven, earth, and hell, without belonging to any one of these provinces. Their intercourse with men and their influence were variously represented, according to the notion formed of their nature. As the belief in spirits witchcraft reached its height, in the 15th c., demonologists, or special students of this subj systematised the strange fancies of that wild per and A. S. were made to occupy the first rank am evil or demoniacal spirits. Paracelsus, however, others attributed to every human being an ast spirit, or sidereal element, in which the human so or spirit proper, is thought to inhere, and which li for a time after the person dies.

ASTRI'NGENTS, medicines employed fo purpose of contracting the animal fibres and cl so as to check fluxes, hæmorrhage, The drugs most commonly used as catechu, oak-galls, rhatany-root, &c. vegetable A. owe that property, in w part, to tannin. A severe degree powerful astringent.

ASTROCA'RYUM (from t Gr. and *karyon*, a nut), a genus of l sixteen species are known, America, remarkable for the abun and formidable spines—in some cases, a with which almost every part—stem, l and fruit-stalk—is armed. They have pinnated leaves; some of them are lofty, of very moderate height, as 8—15 feet, w are almost or altogether stemless. The fru species is eatable—a juicy pulp covering a seed—as the fruit of the MURUMURÚ pal *Murumuru*), the pulp of which is said to re a melon in flavour, has a sort of musky odo is highly esteemed. It is a palm of only about feet high, abundant about Pará and elsewher the Amazon. Cattle roam the forests in que its fruit, and swine fatten on the seed, which crush with their teeth, although to break it req a smart blow of a hammer, and in h

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ASTROLABE (from two Greek words signifying 'stars'), the name given by the Greeks lar instrument for observing the stars. s, arranged as in the Armillary sphere used for this purpose. A projection of pon a plane, with a graduated rim and king altitudes, was known as an A. in ays of astrology, and was the badge of r. The A. has been superseded by the instruments of modern astronomy.

ASTROLOGY meant originally much the same , 'the knowledge of the stars,' but was restricted to the science of predicting s, especially the fortunes of men, from of the heavenly bodies. This was con- igher, the real science; while the mere f the stars themselves, their places and nomy), was, till a very recent period, ostly with a view to (judicial) astrology. the most ancient forms of superstition, prevailing among the nations of the East Chaldæans, Hindus, Chinese) at the very ery. The Jews became much addicted a ity. It spread into the West and beginning of the Christian era. Astrologers played an important part at Rome, where they were called Chaldæans and Mathematicians; and though often banished by the senate and emperors under pain of death, and otherwise persecuted, they continued to hold their ground. The Roman poet Manilius, author of an astronomical poem still extant, was addicted to A.; and even Ptolemy the astronomer did not escape the infection, which in his time had become universal. It accords well with the predestinarian doctrines of Mohammedanism, and was accordingly cultivated with great ardour by the Arabs from the 7th to the 13th c. Some of the early Christian fathers argued against the doctrines of A., others received them in a modified form. In its public capacity, the Catholic Church several times condemned the system; but many zealous Catholics, even churchmen, have cultivated it. Cardinal d'Ailly, 'the Eagle of the doctors of France' (died 1420), is said to have calculated the horoscope of Jesus Christ, and maintained that the deluge might have been predicted by A. For centuries the most learned men continued devoted to this delusive science; Regiomontanus, the famous mathematician Cardan, even Tycho Brahé and Kepler could not shake off the fascination. Kepler saw the weakness of A. as a science, but could not bring himself to deny a certain connection between the positions ('constellations') of the planets and the qualities of those born under them. The Copernican system gave the deathblow to A. When the earth itself was found to be only one of the planets, it seemed absurd that all the others should be occupied in influencing it. The argument has really little force, but it produced the effect. Belief in A. is not now ostensibly professed in any Christian country, though a few solitary advocates have from time to time appeared, as J. M. Pfaff in Germany, *Astrologie* (Bamb. 1816). But it still holds sway in the East, and among Mohammedans wherever situated. Even in Europe the craving of the ignorant of all countries for divination is still gratified by the publication of multitudes of almanacs containing astrological predictions, though the writers no longer believe in them.

Many passages of our old writers are unintelligible without some knowledge of astrological terms, numbers of which have taken root in the language. In the technical rules by which human destiny was foreseen, the heavenly *houses* played an important part. Astrologers were by no means at one as to the way of laying out those houses. A very general way was to draw great circles through the north and south points of the horizon, as meridians pass through the poles, dividing the heavens, visible and invisible, into twelve equal parts—six above the horizon, and six below. These were the twelve houses, and were numbered onward, beginning with that which lay in the east immediately below the horizon. The first was called the house of life; the second, of fortune, or riches; the third, of brethren; the fourth, of relations; the fifth, of children; the sixth, of health; the seventh, of marriage; the eighth, of death, or the upper portal; the ninth, of religion; the tenth, of dignities; the eleventh, of friends and benefactors; the twelfth, of enemies, or of captivity. The position of the twelve houses for a given time and place—the instant of an individual's birth, for instance—was a *theme*. To construct such a plan was to *cast* the person's nativity. The houses had different powers, the strongest being the first; as it contained the part of the heavens about to rise, it was called the *ascendant*, and the point of the ecliptic cut by its upper boundary was the *scope*. Each house had one of the he as its *lord*, who was strongest in his

ASTRO'NOMY (Gr. *astron*, a

teaches whatever is known of the heavenly bodies. A. may be properly divided under three heads. 1. *Geometrical or Mathematical A.*, including the exact determination of the numerical and geometrical elements of the heavenly bodies—that is, their distances, shapes, magnitudes, the figures they describe in their motions, &c. 2. *Physical A.*, or the nature of the powers or forces that carry on the heavenly motions, the laws that they observe, and the calculation of the motions from a knowledge of these laws. 3. *Sidereal A.*, or whatever is ascertained regarding the universe of the fixed stars. *Practical A.* might form another division, which would include a knowledge of the various astronomical instruments; and a familiarity generally with the rules and calculations by which the requisite results are deduced from observations.

Such parts of this extensive subject as are deemed suited to the present work, will be found under their appropriate heads, such as CIRCLE, TRANSIT INSTRUMENT, ABERRATION OF LIGHT, REFRACTION, PARALLAX, EQUATOR, PRECESSION, TIME, SOLAR SYSTEM, SUN, LIBRATION, PLANETS, FIXED STARS, COMET, &c. A brief sketch of the history of astronomical discovery is all that can be attempted in the present article.

The history of A. dates from a very early period. It is the most ancient of all the sciences. The Chinese, Hindus, Chaldæans, Egyptians, and even the Greeks, are known to have investigated the heavens very long before the Christian era. But with the first four nations, A. may be said to have been a sentiment rather than a science—a vague notion built up out of crude speculations, rather than a correct theory founded on systematic observation. In China, A. was intimately associated with state politics; the Indians, Chaldæans, and Egyptians made it a matter of religion; and each of these nations applied it to astrological purposes. In Greece alone was it prosecuted for its own sake.

The Chinese, Chaldæans, Hindus, and Egyptians each claim the honour of having been the first students of A., and each has had advocates to support its claim. The Tirvalore tables (asserted by the Hindus to belong to an epoch of 3102 years B.C.—the commencement of the Cali-yug, or iron age, of their mythology—at which period a conjunction of the sun, moon, and planets is said to have occurred) are, so far as their date is concerned, altogether unreliable. Modern calculations have conclusively proved that no such conjunction could possibly have taken place at the time specified; and the elements of the tables are, in the general opinion of scientific men, of a character far in advance of the actual observations of that period. There is no doubt that the epoch is fictitious—that the date of these tables is fixed much earlier than their internal evidence justifies; but it is matter of dispute whether they were the result of the observations of Hindus themselves at some later period before the Christian era, or whether they were constructed after that era from data furnished to them by the Arabs or Greeks. Those who hold the former view, quote the well-known mathematical attainments of the Indians, and their aversion to intercourse with foreigners, as arguments in its favour; those who support the latter, point out that the tables are a mean between those of Ptolemy and Albategnius, or Al Batani, a distinguished Arabian astronomer, and therefore likely to have been derived from these two sources. Those who are interested in the question of the originality of these tables, may refer to Delambre, and to Bailly's *Hist. de l'Astronomie Indienne*.

The Chinese have astronomical annals claiming to go back 2857 years B.C. In these there is little record of anything but of the appearance of comets and solar eclipses; and regarding the latter phenomena, they tell nothing, save the fact and date of their occurrence. Professional astronomers were compelled to predict every eclipse under pain of death. The popular idea was, that an eclipse was a monster having evil designs on the sun, and it was customary to make a great noise, by shouting, beating of gongs, &c., in order to frighten it away from its solar prey. The many eclipses which the Chinese report have been recalculated, but not more than one anterior to the time of Ptolemy could be verified. At an early period, however, the Chinese appear to have been acquainted with the luni-solar cycle of nineteen years (introduced into Greece by Meton, and since known as the Metonic Cycle), and they had also divided the year into 365¼ days. Solstitial observances are said to have been [illegible] by a gnomon in the 11th c. B.C. To the [illegible] scientific books by one of th[illegible] Hong-Ti), 221 B.C., the Chi[illegible] many theories, or methods [illegible] The precession of the equinoxes was [illegible] the Chinese until 400 A.D., but long prior were familiar with the motion of the

The mass of evidence seems in [illegible] plains of Chaldæa being the primal seat tive A. The risings and settings of [illegible] bodies and eclipses were subjects of observ[illegible] notation by their priests at a very remote Simplicius and Porphyry [illegible] had transmitted to [illegible] Alexander the Great, [illegible] during 1903 years preceding [illegible] by the Macedonians. Ptolemy gives from this catalogue, but the earli[illegible] further back than 720 B.C. The [illegible] fore is, that the statement of Simplicius, [illegible] early date, is an exaggeration. In these o[illegible] the time is only given in hours, and the [illegible] diameter eclipsed within a quarter; but they are, they are the earliest reliable ob[illegible] extant; and a comparison of th[illegible] observations, led Halley to [illegible] trine of the moon's ac[illegible] now moves round the [illegible] than formerly. It is [illegible] habit of diligent ob[illegible] were acquainted with [illegible] cycle of 6585⅓ [illegible] which the moon makes about 223 synod[illegible] tions, and experiences the same number of alike, too, in order and magnitude, com[illegible] with cycle. The clepsydra as a clock, for determining the solstices, and a hemi[illegible] for ascertaining the positions of the [illegible] by the Chaldæans, and they have invention of the zodiac and the du[illegible] of the day.

The Egyptians, it is supposed, were the first instructors of the Greeks in A. They do not, however, appear to have observed much for themselves. The meaning of what data they have left behind them can be guessed at only in a few instances. No mention is made by Ptolemy of the idea entitled to them, that the planets Mercury and Venus move round the sun; the probability therefore is, Ptolemy not being likely to overlook such a novel thing, that they entertained no such notion at the time of his visit, but that it is an after-thought of more recent ages. From the accuracy with which some of the pyramids face the cardinal points, there is a supposition that they must have been erected for astronomical purposes; but if it be true, as is stated, that Thales taught the Egyptians how to find the height of the pyramids by the shadow, and that the latter informed Herodotus

twice been seen to rise in the
on is that the A. of the ancient
agre and absurd.
is little else than tradition.
have the honour of elevating it into a
history, and to the dignity of a science.
B.C.), the founder of the Ionic school,
foundation of Greek A. He it was who first
held the theory of the earth's sphericity.
re he divided into five zones. He predicted
of a at solar eclipse, but this it is now
he have casually succeeded in
at this time having no observa-
own to guide them—by means of the
, or period of eighteen years and ten
h gives a regular recurrence of eclipses.
the Greeks, who, prior to his time, were
to navigate their vessels by the Great Bear
approximation to the north—acquainted
lesser constellation of that name, a much
e for the mariner. His system, however,
a good deal of absurdity. Among other
held the stars were composed of fire,
was the centre of the universe.
Thales held opinions which in
are wonderfully in accordance with
Anaximander, it is said, held that
moved about its own axis, and that the
t was reflected from the sun. To him is
ted, on somewhat slender authority, the
grand idea of the plurality of worlds.
who transferred the Ionic school from
hens, is said to have offered a conjec-
the earth, the moon had habitations,

(500) B.C.), who was the next astro-
minence, was very far in advance of his
He promulgated, on grounds fanciful
theory, the truth of which, however, has
established, that the sun is the centre of the
world, and that the earth circulates round
also first taught that the morning
were in reality one and the same
views of Pythagoras met with
art from his successors until the
Co us. Between Pythagoras and
the Alexandrian school, nearly a
turies later, the most prominent names
nical annals are those of Meton (432 B.C.),
introduced the luni-solar cycle, as already
ted, and in conjunction with Euctemon,
d a solstice at Athens in the year 424 B.C.;
(330 B.C.), who improved the Metonic
loxus of Cnidus (370 B.C.), who brought
the year of 365¼ days, and wrote
on A.; and Nicetas of Syracuse, who
o have taught the diurnal motion of
its axis.

Alexandrian school, owing its existence to
lcent Ptolemies, we are indebted for the
matic observations in A. Hitherto the
d. rested on no better evidence than the
sures of sagacious minds, and these being
to the testimony of the senses, met with
acceptance from the world. The Alex-
hool origi ted a connected series of obser-
ve to constitution of the universe.
of fixed stars were determined,
planets carefully traced, and the
inequalities more accurately ascer-
ar distances were calculated with
itable to the purpose by trigono-
methods, and ultimately the school of
andria presented to the world the first system
nomical astronomy that had ever comprehended
ve plan of the celestial motions.

we know to be false, and inferior to the Pythagorean notions; but it had the merit of being founded upon a long and patient observation of phenomena, a principle which finally brought about its own destruction, while the previous theories were the results of pure hypothesis.

The most interesting circumstances connected with the early history of the Alexandrian school are the attempts made to determine the distance of the earth from the sun, and the magnitude of the terrestrial globe. Aristarchus of Samos—the pioneer of the Copernican system, as Humboldt calls him—is the author of an ingenious plan to ascertain the former. See ARISTARCHUS OF SAMOS.

Among other eminent members of this school were Timocharis and Aristyllus, who made the observations, which, together with observations of his own, enabled Hipparchus (q.v.) to discover the precession of the equinoxes; Eratosthenes (q.v.), who was the first who attempted to determine on true principles the magnitude of the earth, and to clear, as Humboldt expresses it, 'the description of the earth from its fabulous traditions;' and Autolycus, whose books on A. are the earliest extant in the Greek language.

We have now arrived at by far the greatest name we have yet met in astronomical science—that of Hipparchus of Bithynia (160—125 B.C.), and here may be said to begin the real written history of scientific A.; for not until his era were there facts correct enough and sufficient in number upon which to build a system. Hipparchus was at once a theorist, a mathematician, and an observer. He catalogued no less than 1081 stars. This is the first reliable catalogue we have. He discovered, as we have already mentioned, the precession of the equinoxes; he determined with greater exactitude than his predecessors had done, the mean motion, as well as the inequality of the motion of the sun; and also the length of the year. He also determined the mean motion of the moon, her eccentricity, the equation of her centre, and the inclination of her orbit; and he suspected the inequality afterwards discovered by Ptolemy (the evection). He invented processes analogous to plane and spherical trigonometry, and was the first to use right ascensions and declinations, which he afterwards abandoned in favour of latitudes and longitudes.

For more than two centuries and a half after the demise of this indefatigable astronomer, we meet with no name of note. Ptolemy (130—150 A.D.) is the next who rises above the mass of mediocrities. Besides being a practical astronomer, he was accomplished as a musician, a geographer, and mathematician. His most important discovery in A. was the libration or evection of the moon. He also was the first to point out the effect of refraction. He extended and improved many of the theories of Hipparchus, and was the founder of the false system known by his name, and which was universally accepted as the true theory of the universe, until the researches of Copernicus exploded it. The Ptolemaic system, expounded in the *Great Collection*, or, as it was called by the Arabs, the *Almagest*—from which source most of our knowledge of Greek A. is derived—placed the earth immovable in the centre of the universe, making the entire heavens revolve round it in the course of twenty-four hours.

With Ptolemy closes the originality of the Greek school. His successors were men of no mark, confining themselves for the most part to astrology, or to comments on earlier writers. It is to the Arabs that we owe the next advances in A. They commenced making observations 762 A.D., in the reign of the Caliph Al Mansur, who gave great encouragement to science, as did also his succ
ssd Haroun Alraschid' and Al Mamo

whom were themselves diligent students of A. For four centuries, the Arabs prosecuted the study of the science with assiduity, but they are chiefly meritorious as observers. They had little capacity for speculation, and throughout held the Greek theories in superstitious reverence. They, however, determined with much more accuracy than the Greeks had done the precession of the equinoxes, the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the solar eccentricity; and the length of the tropical year was ascertained within a few seconds of the truth. The most illustrious of the Arabian school were Albategnius or Al Batani (880 A.D.), who discovered the motion of the solar apogee (see ANOMALISTIC YEAR), and who was also the first to make use of sines and versed sines instead of chords; he corrected the Greek observations, and was altogether the most distinguished observer between Hipparchus and the Copernican era; and Ibn-Yunis (1000 A.D.), an excellent mathematician, who made observations of great importance in determining the disturbances and eccentricities of Jupiter and Saturn, and who was the first to use cotangents and secants.

In the northern part of Persia, an observatory was erected by a descendant of the renowned warrior Genghis Khan, where some tables were constructed by Nasir-Eddin; and at Samarcand, Ulugh Beg, a grandson of Timur, made, in 1433 A.D., many observations, and the most correct catalogue of stars which, up to his time, had been published.

In the 13th c., A. was again introduced into Western Europe, the first translation from the *Almagest* being made under the Emperor Frederick II. of Germany, about 1230; and in 1252 an impulse was given to the science by the formation of astronomical tables under the auspices of Alfonso X. of Castile. An Englishman, named Holywood (Sacrobosco), in 1220 wrote a book of great repute in its day on the spheres, chiefly abridged from Ptolemy; and among others who did much to promote a taste for A. were Purbach (1460), Regiomontanus (John Muller), who died in 1476, and Waltherus, a pupil of the latter, who made numerous observations of merit.

We now come to the illustrious name of Copernicus (b. 1473, d. 1543), to whom was reserved the grand honour and the danger—for there is ever danger in bringing old notions into disrepute by introducing new systems of truth—of exploding the Ptolemaic idea, and of promulgating a correct though imperfect theory of the universe. His system is in some part a revival and systematic application of the opinions said to have been held by Pythagoras. It makes the sun the immovable centre of the universe, around which all the planets revolve in concentric orbits, Mercury and Venus within the earth's orbit, and all the other planets without it. In the Copernican theory, there were many of the old notions which have since been exploded. It is a current belief that Copernicus, afraid to state boldly such heterodox views of the universe as those he entertained, gave them forth in the form of an hypothesis. Humboldt, in his second volume of *Cosmos* (p. 345), denies that he did so. This distinguished authority says: 'The language of Copernicus is powerful and free, and bursts forth from his inmost convictions, and thus sufficiently refutes the ancient opinion, that he has brought forward the system which is immortalised by his name, as an hypothesis made for the convenience of calculating astronomers, or for one which has but a probable foundation.' The same author also refutes the popular notion that Copernicus died a few hours after receiving a printed copy of his book. He was broken down in body and mind when his work *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies* was brought to him, but he did not die until 'many days afterwards, on the 24th May 1543.'

Among the contemporaries of Copernicus were Rheinhold, who constructed the Prutenic tables; Recorde, who was the first to write on A. in English; and Nonius, a Portuguese, who invented a method for dividing the circle. The study of A. was also much aided about this time by the liberality of the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, William IV.

Decidedly the most industrious observer and eminent practical astronomer from the time of the Arabs to the latter half of the 16th c. was Tycho Brahé (b. 1546, d. 1601). Considerable odium attaches to him on account of his repudiation of the Copernican system, but it should not be forgotten that in the time of Tycho that system was not supported by the conclusive evidence we are now in possession of. Tycho's system, which made the sun move round the earth, and all the other planets round the sun, they moving with it round the earth, explained all natural phenomena then observed equally well, while it must have appeared more probable than the crude and, at that era, undemonstrable theories of Copernicus. Tycho Brahé compiled a catalogue of 777 fixed stars, more perfect than any that had previously appeared. He made the first table of refractions, and discovered the variation and annual equation of the moon, the inequalities of the motion of the nodes, and the inclination of the lunar orbit, and rejected the trepidation of the precession, which had hitherto injuriously affected all tables. He also made some interesting cometary investigations.

To his researches are mainly due the discovery by Kepler (b. 1571, d. 1630) of those famous laws which have rendered his name immortal. See KEPLER. To Kepler is due the credit of divesting the Copernican system of its absurdities. Kepler is also said to have had some notion of the law of gravitation.

Galileo Galilei (b. 1564, d. 1642) first applied the telescope (which he made from a general description of the instrument of Hans Lipperhey of Holland, who was the first inventor of the telescope) to the investigation of the heavens. He was rewarded by the discovery of the inequalities on the moon's surface. The important discoveries of the four satellites of Jupiter, the ring of Saturn—not then distinctly recognised as a circle—the spots on the sun, and the crescent form of Venus, followed in quick succession. For propagating the Copernican doctrine of the world, Galileo incurred the displeasure of the priests, and was compelled by the Inquisition to retract his opinions.

But the eternal laws of nature are not to be suspended by the recantation of a philosopher forced by the tyranny of priestcraft. The earth moved gaily on round the sun in spite of both; and scientific truth was now too old to remain in the restrictive leading-strings of any ecclesiasticism.

The next great epoch in the history of A. brings us to England and Newton (b. 1642, d. 1727). In the interval, practical A. had profited largely by the logarithms of Napier; the mathematical researches of Descartes; the application of the telescope to the quadrant by Gascoigne, an Englishman, and afterwards by Auzout and Picard; by Römer's discovery of the progressive motion, and measurement of the velocity, of light; by the invention of Vernier; and the application of the pendulum to clocks by Huygens, who also brought into use the spiral spring, and made some valuable observations on the ring and satellites of Saturn; as well as by the investigations of Norwood, Horrocks, Hooke, Hevelius, Gilbert, Leibnitz, and Dominicus Cassini, to the last of whom especially the scientific world owes much. Among

other valuable observations and dis- y be mentioned his thorough investiga- odiacal light, his determination of the iter and Mars, and of the motions of ...tes from their eclipses, his discovery l character of Saturn's ring, and also of ... satellites. Newton's fame rests upon ery of the law of gravitation, upon which on belief is he was led to speculate by the apple. Newton announced his discovery incipia in 1687, which was briefly that ticle of matter is attracted by, or gravitates other particle of matter, with a force proportional to the squares of their dis- The first gleam of this grand conclusion is ve so overpowered Newton that he had to ulations, and call in a friend to finish tical computations that were incom- overy is perhaps the grandest effort ... of which we have any record. de the important discovery of the ... ets round the sun in conic sections, arth's form to be an oblate spheroid, ry of the moon and tides, invented ... wrote upon Optics.

the foundations of physical A. were thus l by Newton, Flamsteed—the first astro- ... at Greenwich, to whom, until recently, s has been done -and Halley were roving and extending the practical ... of the science. To the former we are for numerous observations on the fixed planets, satellites, and comets, and for a of 2884 stars. His *Historia Cœlestis* new era in sidereal A. Dr Halley, who suc- lamsteed as astronomer royal, discovered ated mean motion of the moon, and certain es in Jupiter and Saturn, but he is most r his successful investigations into the nd nature of comets. His successor was ey, who, in the year of Newton's death, important discovery of the aberration of ich furnishes the only direct and conclusive have of the earth's annual motion. To we are indebted for our knowledge of the of the earth's axis. He was, besides, an l observer, and left behind him at his ards of 60,000 observations. Altogether, is deservedly one of the most honoured modern A. Dr Maskelyne, who was l to the observatory after Bradley, origi- *Nautical Almanac*.

to mention the names of men who from of Bradley to the present time have added, y and practice, to our knowledge of A., tend this synopsis much beyond the limit assigned to it. If the 18th c. opened with ved from the physical demonstrations of it closed magnificently with the telescopic s of Sir William Herschel, who added to ...se a primary planet (Uranus) with its gave two more satellites to Saturn, resolved ...-way into countless myriads of stars, and d the mystery of nebulæ and of double e stars. Laland, Lagrange, Lacaille, and , in the latter half of the 18th c., did their researches and analyses to systematise ove the science of A. The instrumental observation were also, during that time, to high perfection. Laplace, in his great e *Mécanique Celeste* (1799–1808), gave ther proof was needed of the truth and ... of the Newtonian theory.

...e. opened with the discovery of the four ...ets—Ceres, in 1801, by Piazza; Pallas and Olbers—the former in 1802, and the latter in 1807; and Juno, by Harding, in 1804. In 1845, Hencke discovered the fifth of this group revolving between Mars and Jupiter, to which the name of Astræa was given; and, by the beginning of 1875 140 Planetoids (q. v.) had been discovered. The greatest event of the century has been the discovery of the planet Neptune in 1846.

Observations upon Uranus had shewn the motions of that planet to present great irregularities, which could not be explained by the action of Jupiter and Saturn; and after carefully examining the analytical theory of Uranus, Leverrier, a young academician of France, in the summer of 1846, published the elements of an undiscovered planet, the cause of the perturbations. He boldly predicted its existence, calculated its mass, and referred to its place in the heavens; and scarcely a month afterwards, on the 23d of September, the hitherto concealed object (Neptune) was found by M. Galle of Berlin. But it has only been by accidental circumstances that France has the honour of this remarkable achievement. Mr Adams of Cambridge had arrived at results more perfect than those of Leverrier, and had communicated them to Mr Challis, professor of A. at Cambridge in September 1845, a year before the discovery of the planet, and nearly a year before the publication of Leverrier's final calculations. Mr Challis, it appears, commenced a search for the planet on July 29th, and on August 4th and 12th, he actually seized the planet, and recorded two positions of it, but did not recognise it, through not comparing his observations, which a pressure of occupation, and an impression that the discovery required a much more extensive search, prevented. But for this, and the non-publication of the Cambridge mathematician's results at the time they were forwarded to Sir George Airy in October 1845, the honourable position of M. Leverrier would have been occupied by Mr Adams, and that of M. Galle by Mr Challis.

The century, however, has been chiefly remarkable for its laborious efforts to correct, systematise, and extend the results of former discoveries. Admirable and extensive catalogues of stars and double stars, and of nebulæ, have been made; and optical and other instruments have been brought to what appears almost a state of perfection. Lord Rosse's reflecting telescope, with a speculum six feet in diameter, being the triumph of modern mechanical and mathematical skill. In more recent years, research has been directed chiefly towards the physical nature of the sun and other heavenly bodies by means of spectrum-analysis. See SPECTRUM; SUN.

ASTUR. See FALCONIDÆ and GOSHAWK.

ASTURIAS, a northern province of Spain, bounded on the E. by Santander, on the S. by Leon, on the W. by Galicia, and on the N. by the Bay of Biscay. The low hills of Leon and Old Castile rise gradually to the mountain-chain which forms the south boundary, and towers to a height of about 11,000 feet in the summit *Peña-de-Peñaranda*. The main road from Leon to Oviedo passes over the mountain-chain at Pajares. The northern slopes are broken by steep and dark valleys or chasms, which are among the wildest and most picturesque in Spain. The summits of the mountains are covered with snow even as late in the year as August. The climate is damp; clouds hang almost continually about the peaks, gathering to them the fogs of the Atlantic. From the mass of calcareous rock, marble crags rise from 200 to more than 400 feet. The principal kinds of wood are oak, chestnut, silver and Scotch firs. Some of the forests in the remoter districts are very superb. Alpine pasturage decks the slopes, and a richer covering of green

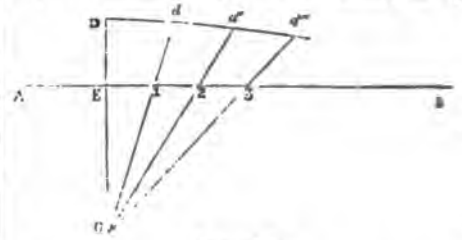
is found in the narrow valleys. In the wider valleys, the soil yields barley, wheat, maize, figs, olives, grapes, oranges. The coasts have good fisheries. The chief minerals of the province are copper, iron, lead, cobalt, arsenic, antimony, and coal. The pasturage of the higher valleys supports an excellent breed of horses, with numerous horned cattle.

A. was never firmly occupied by the Arabs, but afforded a place of refuge to the Goths in the 8th c. Here the famous Pelayo was made king in 718 A.D.; and his successors, after contending successfully against the Arabs, were made kings of Leon in the 10th c. The Asturian still boasts of his independence as a free hidalgo, and is simple in manners and brave, but less industrious and sociable than his neighbours in Biscay and Galicia. Many Asturians leave their province to seek a livelihood in other parts of Spain, and after saving money, return to dwell among their native hills and valleys. They have been termed the Swiss of Spain; and they are equally faithful and fond of money. Among them, the *Vaqueros* form a distinct caste, intermarrying among themselves, and leading a nomadic course of life, spending the winter on the sea-coast, and the summer on the hills of Leytariegos. OVIEDO, the capital of A., has, since 1833, given its name to the whole province. The other considerable towns are the ports Gijon and Aviles. The whole area of A. includes 3686 square miles, with a population of (1870) 610,883.

The eldest son of the Spanish king has the title of Prince of A., professedly an imitation of the English Prince of Wales, having been taken at the solicitation of the Duke of Lancaster in 1388, when his daughter married the eldest son of Juan I.

ASY'LUM, a place of refuge. In ancient times, sacred places, especially the temples and altars of the gods, were appointed as asylums to which criminals, as well as persecuted individuals, might flee for refuge; and to molest them in such places was regarded as an impiety. An analogous institution is found in the laws of the Jews as described in the 35th chapter of Numbers, where six 'cities of refuge' are appointed for persons guilty of manslaughter. Among the Greeks in early times, these asylums might be sometimes useful in preventing hasty retribution; but in the course of time they were so much abused that their sanctity was in a great measure disregarded. Thus Pausanias, who fled to the altar of Minerva, was taken and slain there by the Lacedæmonians, and in other cases the refugee was compelled to leave the A. by fire or starvation. In Rome, the Emperor Tiberius abolished all such places of refuge from law, excepting those in the temples of Juno and Æsculapius. The custom of allowing to real or supposed criminals a place of safety in temples, was also adopted by the Christian Church. In the time of Constantine the Great, the churches were made asylums; and Theodosius II. extended the privilege to all courts, alleys, gardens, and houses belonging to the church. In 681 A.D., the synod of Toledo extended the privilege of A. to a space of 30 paces around every church. In the lawless periods of the middle ages, the influence of the church often prevented deeds of gross injustice and violence; but the sanctity of churches was abused by criminals; and this led to several modifications which gradually destroyed the privilege of Sanctuary (q. v.). In England, it was abolished by acts passed in 1534 and 1697. The word A. is now applied to places of shelter for unfortunate or destitute persons, and especially to hospitals for the insane. See LUNACY.

ASYMPTOTE (Gr. not coinciding), a line that approaches nearer and nearer to some curve without ever meeting it. An example of an A. will be seen under HYPERBOLA. As another illustration, let AB be a straight line which can be produced to any length towards B. Take any point, C, without the line, and draw a perpendicular reaching to any



Asymptote.

distance, D, beyond the line; set off any equal distances, E—1, 1—2, 2—3, &c., along AB; and draw C1*d*, C2*d'*, C3*d''*, &c., making 1*d*, 2*d'*, 3*d''*, &c., equal to ED. Now, it is evident that each of the points *d*, *d'*, &c., is nearer to the line AB than the one to the left of it; if, therefore, a curve is traced through these points (the curve is called the *conchoid*), it must continually approach the line AB. On the other hand, it is evident that the curve can never meet AB; for a line drawn from C to any point in AB, however distant that point, must, when produced, cross AB. AB is thus an *A.* to the curve. To the senses, indeed, the curve and line seem become one, because all physical or sensible lines have breadth. It is only with regard to mathematical lines (see LINE) that the proposition is true; and the truth of it has to be conceived by an effort of pure reason, for it cannot be represented.

ATA'CAMITE, an ore of copper, found as a crust on the lavas of Vesuvius and Etna, especially on those of Vesuvius erupted in the years 97, 1794, 1820, and 1822. It occurs abundantly in some parts of South America, as at Atacama in Peru, from which it derives its name; at Remolinos, Santa Rosa, and other districts in Chili; and at Sarapca in Bolivia, where it is associated in veins with ores of silver. The natural varieties of A. are crystallised, massive, and pulverulent or granular. The massive or compact variety is usually reniform, with a fibrous structure. The crystals are short and needle-shaped; the primary form is a rhombic prism. It has been sometimes described as a chloride of copper, but incorrectly; and sometimes as a hydrochlorate (muriate) of copper; it is rather to be regarded as a combination of protoxide of copper with chloride of copper. It is a rich and productive ore, containing about 55 to 60 per cent. of copper. The percentage composition of various specimens of A. is as follows:

	Copper Protoxide.	Muriatic Acid.	Water.	Total
Compact atacamite,	72·0	16·3	11·7	100
" "	76·5	11·0	12·5	100
Sandy atacamite, . .	70·5	11·5	18·0	100
Crystallised atacamite,	73·0	16·2	10·8	100

A. often forms on the surface of copper exposed to the air or sea-water; and the greenish incrustation observed on antique bronze utensils, weapons, and other articles, and commonly known as the *æruginis nobilis*, is composed of this salt. On some antique bronzes from Egypt the A. is crystalline. Atacamite is worked in South America as an ore of copper; and considerable quantities are sent to England to have the metal extracted therefrom. See COPPER.

ALPA, the favourite son of Huayna of Peru, who died in 1525, about seven Pizarro's arrival in Peru. The mother ing of the pure Inca blood, her son was luded from inheriting the throne; but figure, bold spirit, and quick intelli- upon the affections of his father, that bed he declared it to be his will that ceive as his portion the ancient kingdom cently conquered), while Huascar, his hould possess Peru. For five years the ed on terms of real or apparent friend- length the restless ambition of A., who tly aspiring to new conquests, excited ess of Huascar, who, in an evil hour, l to send an envoy to his brother, with to require him to render homage for a of Quito. A. fired at the proposal, instantly declared. Placing himself at army of veterans which his father invaded Peru, and in the spring of defeated Huascar on the plains of neighbourhood of Cuzco, the tropolis, only a few months al the Spaniards. Huascar was , and confined in the strong fortress of an followed, according to Garcilasso de series of atrocious massacres of all in ran the blood of the Incas; but his are so monstrous, and possess so little they are rejected by Prescott as redible. In the meantime, the embarked at Tumbez; and after and perilous march through the Pizarro, at the head of his two approached the victorious camp found some fifty thousand men By a daring but diabolical stratagem, ained possession of the person of the d come to visit him in a friendly spirit. st was explaining the Christian religion, er of the pope over all the kingdoms of nd how the pope had presented Peru narch, in whose name they had tly interrupting him, told him pe whoever he was) must be a crazy of giving away countries which were When he inquired on what authority were made, the priest pointed to the ch A. dashed the book on the ground, and gan to fill with Indians. The moment The crime which Pizarro had resolved ight before must be executed then or waved a white scarf, which was the l upon. The mysterious artillery poured into the terrified masses of Peruvians, h cavalry rode them down with y. Confusion seized the natives; ted—being unarmed—to this horrible ly anxious to save their sacred Inca; efforts to accomplish this proved un- l after exhausting hours in the miserable rder, the inhuman Spaniards succeeded him. A. was treated with a great show at first, and more especially when he ransom, 'not merely to cover the floor, the room in which he stood with gold he could reach.' When A.'s brother, was still a prisoner, heard of this, he more advantageous terms for himself. this, A. had him secretly assassinated. treasure which was to constitute the A. now began to pour in, and at length d his freedom. Thus Pizarro refused to cused A. of plotting against him. The much base treachery on the part of the Spaniard, was a mock-trial, in which A. was condemned to be burned. On the 29th of August 1533, he was led to the stake, but on agreeing to be 'baptised,' his sentence was commuted to death by strangulation.

ATALA'NTA, a mythical personage, the daughter of Jasus and Clymene, was born in Arcadia, and celebrated as a huntress, well skilled in the use of the bow and arrow. Her father, who had wished a son, exposed her, while an infant, on Mount Parthenios, where she was found near the entrance of a cave by hunters, who are said to have brought her up, and afterwards restored her to her parents. While living as a wild mountain-maiden, she slew the centaurs Rhœcus and Hylæus. Afterwards, she sailed with the Argonauts (q. v.) to Colchis, and took a prominent part in the chase of the Calydonian boar (q. v.). She had many suitors, but was merciless in the conditions which she imposed on them. Being the swiftest of mortals, she offered to become the wife of him that should outstrip her—the penalty of defeat being death. At length she was conquered by a trick of one Meilanion, whom she was compelled to marry. He obtained from Venus a gift of three golden apples, which he successively dropped in the race; and A. was so charmed by their beauty, that she could not refrain from stooping to gather them, and so lost.—Mention is made of another A. in Greek antiquity, to whom a different parentage is assigned, but regarding whom the myth is essentially the same.

ATARAIPU', a term signifying *Devil's Rock*. It is applied to one of the most singular eminences in the world, a granite pyramid in British Guiana, which rises abruptly from the plain about 900 feet, wooded for rather more than one-third of the height, but bare thence to the peaked summit.

ATCHAFALAY'A, a branch of the Mississippi at its delta. It forms so large an angle with the main river, that, after a course of only 130 miles, it enters the Gulf of Mexico, 120 miles to the west of New Orleans. From the Red River, which enters the Mississippi just above its own point of departure, the A. had received so much drift-wood, as formed at last a stationary raft 10 miles long, 220 yards broad, and 18 feet deep—an obstacle to navigation which the state of Louisiana required four years to remove.

ATCHEE'N, a kingdom forming the north-west part of Sumatra; area, 2260 sq. m.; pop. 500,000; in 95° 20'—97° 40' E. long., and 2° 50'—5° 40' N. lat. The interior is mountainous—Abong Abong, 11,000 feet; Loose, 11,000; the Golden Mountain, 6460; Batu Gapit, 6155; Tampat Tuan, 4020. The natives well made, industrious, intelligent, treacherous. In March 1873, the Dutch declared war, and though at first repulsed, may now be said to have conquered the country. A., the capital, lies on both sides of the river in 5° 35' N. lat., and 95° 25' E. long., in a large valley formed by ranges of hills, of which the Golden Mountain is the highest. Pop. 36,000. They barter for opium with Penang and Singapore, pepper, edible nests, gold-dust, camphor, benzoin, sulphur, satin-wood, betel-nuts, &c.

ATCHEVEMENT is a term nearly equivalent to armorial bearings, and is often used when speaking of the arms of a deceased person as displayed at his funeral or elsewhere. In this sense it is more commonly used in its abbreviated form of Hatchment (q. v.).

A'TÉ, according to Homer, the daughter of Jupiter—or of Eris, as Hesiod says—was a vengeful goddess, ever attending *dysnomia*, or transgression of law, though she herself prompted men to such. She was banished from Olympus by Jove, whom she

had incited to take an oath of which he subsequently repented. She then travelled to and fro over the earth with great rapidity, always intent on exercising a pernicious influence upon mankind. But her steps were followed by the goddesses *Litai* (prayers), benevolent daughters of Jove, who healed those who had been afflicted by A. The tragic writers describe A. as the goddess of retribution. Their representations almost identify her with NEMESIS and ERINNYS.

A'TELES (Gr. incomplete), a genus of American monkeys, of the division with long prehensile tails, to which the name SAPAJOUS (q. v.) is sometimes collectively applied. In the genus A., the head is round, and the facial angle about 60°; the limbs are remarkably long and slender, upon which account the English name SPIDER MONKEY (q. v.) is sometimes used as a generic designation; and the forelimbs are either entirely destitute of a thumb, or have a mere rudimentary one, a peculiarity in allusion to which the name *A.* was given. The name Coaita or Quata is frequently given to some of the species of A., but is sometimes limited to *A. Paniscus*, as Spider Monkey sometimes is to *A. arachnoides*. One of the best known species is the Marimonda (*A. Belzebub*), a common monkey of Guiana, and which occurs in immense numbers on the banks of the Orinoco.

ATELIERS NATIONAUX, or NATIONAL WORKSHOPS, a term under which such institutions became renowned in connection with the French revolution of 1848. In almost all countries and ages, there have been projects for organising labour under public authority, designed generally for the benevolent purpose of obviating the distress caused by casual depressions in trade. However distinctly the laws of political economy were laid down on the point, it could always be said that these were merely theoretic, and therefore this one instance of practical experiment, however calamitous in its day, left behind it a valuable lesson. The principles of political economy on this matter are—that competition only can fix the extent to which labour is required in any department, and the rate at which it must be remunerated; that it is this competition which gives the workman a stimulus to labour effectively and profitably; and that if this stimulus were withdrawn, and all were paid alike, whether they worked well or ill, all would work ill, the public would be losers, and the large fund out of which labourers are supported under the competitive system would cease to exist. Immediately on the formation of the Provisional Government in February 1848, a permanent department was established, called *The Committee of the Government for the Workmen*. This establishment acted on the doctrine, that all workmen were entitled to have a living provided for them on a certain uniform scale. They did not forcibly abolish private employment, but they held out inducements which made workmen leave and employers break up the existing establishments. Consequently, nearly all the Parisian workmen threw themselves on the government, and others flocked in from other quarters in alarming numbers. It was found that these crowds of men, who claimed the privilege of employment by the state, had very little idea of the duty of working, even were there distinct employment for them. But when the body had increased to considerably above a hundred thousand, the government found that they had this ever-increasing mass to feed, and nothing to feed them with, since trade thus meddled with was in reality ruined. It was consequently found necessary to put an end to the system, and the result was the bloody battle of Paris, which brought about the restoration of despotism. One incidental experiment will perhaps best explain the ruinous tendency of the whole the Hôtel Clichy, 1500 tailors were assemb uniforms for the new *garde mobile*. Th to receive among them for the complet much as an army-contractor would have In the meantime, they were paid two fra subsistence money; the rest was to be div them at the end. The men were buoyed notion that they were to receive not onl proper wages, but the indefinite and e which they supposed to form the profi. tractor, forgetting that such profit about 3 per cent. Their disappoin when they found nothing to divide. fact, a loss. When paid their two fran more than half what they obtained when a contractor—they were paid more tha their labour and the profit of the transa The reason is pretty obvious. Each m for himself, and paid for his work on the system, exerted himself; but when one n tions went virtually for nothing, unless 1499 others to exert themselves to the sam all were alike lazy.

ATELLA'NÆ, *Fabulæ Atellanæ*, *Ludi Osci*), a kind of popular drama in introduced from Atella, a town in Campan Capua and Naples. After the Greek been brought to Rome by Livius Androni *Fabulæ Atellanæ* were still retained as and after-pieces. They are not to be with the Greek satiric drama, although th of both was to some extent the same. It satyrs figured; while the former pers Oscan characters. The *Macchus* and *B Fabulæ Atellanæ* may be considered the o modern Italian arlecchino (harlequin), characters of the same stamp. They favourite characters; spoke the Oscan excited laughter by its quaint old-fashi and phrases. The A. were neither so the *comœdia prætextata*, nor so low as t *tabernaria*, but indulged in a kind of decent drollery. The caricature was at pleasant, and though quizzical, it did no obscenity, like the *mimi*. Respectable R who could not appear as actors in the r drama without losing *caste*, were allo parts in the *A.* A few fragments of th farces have been collected by Bothe in hi *Latinorum Scenicorum Fragmenta* (Leip. also Munk, *De Fabulis Atellanis* (Leip. 1

A TE'MPO (Ital.), in time. A ter denote that, after some short relaxation the performer must return to the origina movement.

A TE'MPO GIU'STO (Ital.), in co A term used to denote that, after a rec performer should keep the music true a which, during the recitative, had been suit the action and passion of the scene.

A'TESHGA (the Place of Fire), a r peninsula of Apsheron, on the west co Caspian Sea. It is considered sacred by t or Persian Fire-worshippers, who numbers, and bow before the holy issue from the bituminous soil. It is in diameter, and from its centre, in clear creeps forth a blue flame (caused by the the naphtha), which shines with great br night.

ATEU'CHUS. See BEETLE and

ATH, or AATH, a strongly fortified t province of Hainault, Belgium, situate Dender, in lat. 50° 36′ N., long. 3° 46′ E.

hosn and college, and important manu-
of , calicoes, lace, gloves, cutlery, large
, and carries on a brisk trade. Pop.
ancient church of St Julien in A. is
extraordinarily high tower. The town
l times besieged and taken: in 1697,
Vauban; in 1706, by the allied forces
Dutch general Owerkerke; in 1745, by the
after a short siege; and in 1792, by the
the Republic under Berneron.

ABA'SCA, a river and lake in the north-
America, forming part of the great basin of
ie, and lying, therefore, beyond the
v Territory, properly so called. The
the Rocky Mountains near Mount
st point in the range. Its actual
ll lake, already mentioned under
AMERICA as the Committee's Punch
h sends its tribute at once through the
Frozen Ocean, and through the Columbia
acific. Its general course is north-east,
passing through A. Lake, or rather crossing
end. it turns towards the north-west, and,
e of 30 or 40 miles, unites with the
from beyond the Rocky Mountains, to
e River, which, again, after passing
Slave Lake, takes the name of the
—*Lake* A. receives nearly all its waters
A. river, and is probably unique in this,
principal feeder traverses not its length but
th, and that not in its middle, but at its
y. The lake's single outlet is the river A.
about 59° N., and the long. between 106°
, the length 230 miles, and the average

ALI'AH, the daughter of Ahab, king of
ried Jehoram, king of Judah, who died
After the death of her son Ahaziah, who
d him, but reigned for only one year, she
er own way to the throne by putting
(as she supposed) all the seed-royal.
hosheba, the daughter of king Jehoram,
Ahaziah, took Joash, the son of Aha-
d stole him from among the king's sons,
re slain.' The young prince thus rescued
rately educated in the temple, and, after
reigned six years, the high-priest Jehoiada
ash on the throne (878 B.C.). A., hearing
e attending the coronation, hastened to
, where the people were shouting, 'God
ing!' As she looked round in astonish-
the young king, whom she had supposed
ad, surrounded by priests, Levites, rulers,
and a rejoicing multitude, she 'rent her
and cried, "Treason! treason!"' By the
l of high-priest, she was led out of the
d in the gateway of the palace. The
, with its altars and images, was broken
s narrative (2 Kings xi.; 2 Chronicles
10—12, xxiii.) is the subject of Racine's
Athalie.

, C, a king of the Western Goths,
ments lay on the north bank of the
ube, in the 4th c. Having taken advan-
weakness of the Roman empire when
armies were engaged in suppressing the
Procopius, war was declared against him
peror Valens. A. acted strictly on the
during two campaigns, in which the
gained no advantage over him; but in
year of the war (369 A.D.), he hazarded
battle, and was defeated, whereupon he
peace, and, with that object, had a confer-
h Valens in a boat on the Danube. Peace
luded, and A. had his attention occupied in
settling dissensions arising out of the Arian controversy which then agitated his people, when the first advance of the Huns on Europe alarmed the Gothic nation. A. attempted to secure the eastern borders of his kingdom; but the Huns forced the passages of the Dnieper, defeated the Goths, and advanced in great force into the plains of Dacia. When, in 374, the Western Goths were received by the Romans as allies, and had settlements granted them on the south of the Danube, A., with a part of his people, refused to accompany them, removing to the west, and fortifying himself against the new enemy. In 390, however, he was obliged to retire, when he accepted the hospitality of the Empire, and removed to Constantinople, where he met with a cordial and honourable reception by the Emperor Theodosius. At this time died Fritigern, the king of the Goths that had settled on the south of the Danube; and A. being made king of the whole Western Gothic nation, concluded a treaty of peace, in behalf of the whole, which had the effect of incorporating that people with the other subjects of the empire. He died at Constantinople in 381.

ATHANA'SIAN CREED, the third of the three œcumenical symbols, derived its name from its composition being attributed to Athanasius; it is also known, from its initial words in Latin, as the creed *Quicunque Vult*. The first part of this creed contains a detailed exposition of the Trinity; the second, the doctrine of the incarnation. Modern criticism has called in question the title of Athanasius to be considered the author of this creed. It was known as early as the beginning of the 6th c., but not under its present name. It is spoken of as 'Athanasius's Tract on the Trinity,' in some Articles of the middle of the 8th c., and is supposed to be alluded to, 'as the Faith of the holy prelate Athanasius,' in the Council of Autun, about 670. Athanasius himself makes no mention of this creed, although its doctrines are essentially his; nor do any of the church fathers. Other two circumstances speak against its authenticity: it is in Latin, and Athanasius wrote in Greek; the expressions, again, are different from those used by Athanasius in speaking of the same things. By Protestants, therefore, and even by most Catholics, its Athanasian origin has been given up, and its production has been assigned with most probability to the 5th c., and to Gaul; Hilary, Archbishop of Arles (about 430), being conjectured to be the author. The title of Athanasian probably became attached to it during the Arian controversy in Gaul, as being an exposition of the system of doctrine which was opposed to the Arian system, and which would naturally be called Athanasian from its chief propounder. It was received into the public offices of the Gallic Church in the 7th c., and by the middle of the 10th c. it was adopted at Rome and all over the West. In Britain, it was probably in use as early as 800. The Greek Church was late in receiving it, and even then not without altering the article concerning the 'Procession of the Holy Ghost.' The Reformers adhered to the A. C., and Luther called it 'a bulwark of the Apostles' Creed.' Even those churches that do not in any way acknowledge it as a symbol (as the Presbyterian Churches of Britain and America, as well as the Independents) generally accept its doctrines.

The A. C. is the most rigid and intolerant of the three Catholic symbols, and has given rise to much controversy; and though still generally received by Protestants as well as Catholics, the regard once had for it has declined. The points in this creed that give offence to some are defended by others, on the plea that it was not drawn up for the sake of gratuitously dogmatising on abstruse speculative

truths, but to counteract other dogmas which were held to be dangerously heretical. Waterland, in his *Critical History of the Athanasian Creed*, says: 'The use of it will hardly be thought superfluous so long as there are any Arians, Photinians, Sabellians, Macedonians, Apollinarians, Nestorians, or Eutychians, in these parts.' (See Articles under these heads.) With respect to what are called the 'damnatory clauses' (the clauses, namely: 'Which Faith except every one do keep whole and undefiled, without doubt he shall perish everlastingly;' and: 'This is the Catholic faith, which except a man believe faithfully, he cannot be saved'), the churches which adopt the creed do not mean by them to imprecate curses, but to declare, as a logical sequence of a true faith being necessary to salvation, that those who do not hold the true faith are in danger of perishing; as it is said, Mark xvi. 16, 'He that believeth not shall be damned.' These clauses are also held to apply to those who deny the substance of the Christian religion, and not infallibly to every person who may be in error as to any one particular article. A rubric to this effect was drawn up by the commissioners appointed in 1689 for the review of the English Common Prayer Book, but none of their suggestions took effect. Compare also the 18th Article of the Church of England with these clauses.

ATHANA'SIUS, Primate of Egypt, was born in Alexandria about the year 296 A.D. There are no particulars on record of his lineage or his parents. Alexander, then officiating as primate or patriarch of Alexandria, brought him up in his own family, and superintended his education, with the view of his entering on the Christian ministry. In his youth, he often visited the celebrated hermit St Antony, and embraced for a time the ascetic life with the venerable recluse. He was but a youth and only a deacon when appointed a member of the first general council at Nice, in which he distinguished himself by his erudition and his eloquence.

His patron, Alexander, having died in the following year, he was duly elected to the primacy by the clergy and people; and was but newly installed in his office, when Arius, who had been banished at the time of the condemnation of his doctrine at Nice, was recalled, and made a recantation of his erroneous principles. A., it is said, refused on this occasion to comply with the will of the emperor that the heretic should be restored to communion. On this account, and in consequence of several other charges brought against him by the Arian party, he was summoned by the Emperor Constantine to appear before the synod of Tyre, in 335 A.D., which deposed him from his office. His sentence was confirmed by the synod of Jerusalem in the following year, when he was banished to Treves. In 338, Constantius, now Emperor of the East, though unfriendly to the principles of the Trinitarians, recalled A. from his banishment, and restored him to the primacy at Alexandria. His entrance into the city was like a triumphal procession; but the Arians soon rose against him, and (in 341) he was again condemned by a council of 90 Arian bishops assembled at Antioch. Against this decision a protest was made by 100 orthodox bishops at Alexandria; and in a council held at Sardis, 300 bishops, with Julius, bishop of Rome, at their head, confirmed the decision in favour of A., who was again replaced in his office (349 A.D.). The Arians once more acquired the ascendency after Constantius (in 353) had been made Emperor of both the East and the West; for in that year A. was condemned by a council held at Arles, and the sentence was confirmed by another held at Milan in 355, the influence of the sovereign being strongly exerted to secure his condemnation. As the resolute patriarch had declared that he would not leave his place without an express order from the emperor, violent means were resorted to for his expulsion. While engaged in conducting divine service, he was interrupted by a company of soldiers, from whom he made his escape into the Egyptian desert. A price was set on his head; and to avoid his persecutors, he retired from the usual haunts of the anchorets to a remote desert in Upper Egypt, where he was attended by one faithful follower. Here he wrote several works to confirm orthodox Christians in their faith. On the accession of Julian to the imperial throne, toleration was proclaimed to all religions, and A. returned to his former position as Patriarch of Alexandria (361 A.D.). His next controversy was with the heathen subjects of Julian, to whom the patriarch, by his zeal in opposing their religion, had made himself very offensive. To save his life, he was compelled again to flee from Alexandria, and remained concealed in the Theban desert until 363, when Jovian ascended the throne. After holding office again as patriarch for only a short space of time, he was expelled anew by the Arians, under the Emperor Valens. A. now found refuge in the tomb of his father, where he remained hidden four months, until Valens, moved by petitions from the orthodox Alexandrians, restored the patriarch to his see, in which he continued till his death in 373 A.D.

A. was the leading ecclesiastic in the most trying period of the history of the early Christian Church. His ability, his conscientiousness, his judiciousness and wisdom, his fearlessness in the storms of opposition, his activity and patience, all mark him out as an ornament of the age, as well as the most influential public character in matters of religion. Though twenty years of his life were spent either in exile, or what was equivalent to it, yet his prudence and steadfastness, combined with the support of a large party, crowned his exertions with complete success. He was a clear thinker, and as a speaker, was distinguished for extemporaneous precision, force, and persuasiveness.

His writings are polemical, historical, and moral; all marked by a style simple, cogent, and clear. The polemical works treat chiefly of the doctrine of the Trinity, the incarnation of our Saviour, and the divinity of the Holy Spirit.

The earliest edition of the collected works of A. in the original Greek appeared in two volumes, folio, at Heidelberg in 1600. It was accompanied with a Latin translation. The most complete edition is that published at Padua in 1777. A.'s Four Orations against the Arians, and his Oration against the Gentiles, were translated by S. Parker (Oxford, 1713); also, his Treatise on the Incarnation of the Word was translated by W. Whiston, forming part of that gentleman's *Collection of Ancient Monuments Relating to the Trinity and Incarnation*, London in 1713. The Epistles of A. in defence of the Nicene Creed, and on the Councils of Ariminum and Seleucia, together with his first Oration against the Arians, were translated, with notes, by the Rev. John Henry Newman, Oxford (1842).

A'THEISM, a word of modern formation, from Gr. *atheos*, 'without God,' signifies the doctrine of those who deny the existence of a God. The term atheist conveys such terrible associations to almost all minds, that there is perhaps no reproach from which men shrink more; and yet it has been freely applied by the zealous of all ages to those whose notions of the invisible powers differed from their own. The imputation is the most damaging that can be made, and it requires only a little ingenuity to make out a case of *constructive* A. from any set of opinions at all differing from the common. Thus, the ancient Greeks accused some of their philosophers

they did not deny the existence of a
nly rejected the common notions of a
gods. And in the Christian Church,
doctrine of the Trinity had been fixed and
those that denied the divinity of Christ
unusually branded as atheists.
error inspired by this name is strikingly
way it is repudiated by the adherents
(*n.* v.), who reject a personal god,
idealised principle of order that
universe. It is hardly to be denied,
that the idea associated with the word God
involved personality as its very essence;
or the purpose of avoiding odium, there
propriety in retaining the word when
so completely altered.
iew of those who, like Kant, believe it
to *demonstrate* satisfactorily the existence
it must be held on other grounds, is
e A., in opposition to the *dogmatic*
attempt to disprove that existence.

Y, Isle of, a marsh at the junction of
and Parret, in the middle of Somer-
Alfred, when driven from his throne,
enemies, and founded, in 888, a
ev, now entirely gone. Among the
fe in this spot is a ring of Alfred's,
the Oxford Museum. The name
as 'island of the nobles,' or 'royal

AN, the grandson of Alfred the Great,
895 A. D., and was the first Saxon
took the title of king of England,
lf only assuming that of king of the
He was crowned at Kingston-upon-
in 925, and seems to have possessed both
bition and high talent. It is supposed that
was to unite in subjection to his single
entire island of Britain. His resources,
were not equal to the undertaking, and he
ontent himself with the acquisition of
of Cornwall and Wales. On the death of
ing of Northumbria, who had married one
ghters, A. took possession of his dominions,
ted the alarm and animosity of the neigh-
states, and a league, composed of Welsh,
Irish, was formed against the English
purpose of placing Aulaff, the son of
her's throne. A fierce and decisive
t at Brunenburgh, in which the
dly defeated, and which became
n song. After this, the reputation
into the continent. His sisters were
into the royal families of France and
, and he himself enjoyed the greatest
and consideration. At home, he exhibited
terest in the welfare of his people, improved
, built monasteries, and encouraged the
n of the Bible into the vernacular. He died
ster on the 25th October 941, in his 47th

NÆUM (Gr. *Athenaion*), the Temple of
(Gr. *Athene*) at Athens, which was fre-
by poets, learned men, and rhetoricians, who
d aloud their works. – The A. in Rome was
or college erected, by the Emperor Hadrian,
dy of poetry and rhetoric, with a regular
fessors. It existed for a long period. In
of Theodosius II., it had three professors of
ric of grammar, five of sophistry or dialec-
of philosophy, and two of jurisprudence.—
n times, the name A. has been revived as an
on for certain literary institutions, and also
ective title for literary essays and reviews.
e title of two weekly journals of literature
and the fine arts—one published in London, the
other in Paris.

ATHENÆUS, a Greek *rhetor* and *littérateur*, born at Naucratis in Egypt. He lived at the close of the second and beginning of the third century. His work, entitled *Deipnosophistæ* (Banquet of the Learned), in fifteen books, but of which we possess the first two, and parts of the third, eleventh, and fifteenth only in an abridged form, is very interesting, as it has preserved for us copious fragments of old writers, and treats, in the form of dialogue, of almost all the topics of ancient Greek manners, private and public life, arts, sciences, &c. It is not a work indicative of any high ability; the author, for the most part, appears in the character of an agreeable, well-read, epicurean gentleman, excessively fond of *tit-bits*, both of scandal and cookery. He tells many stories to the disadvantage of people whom history praises; but these we are by no means bound to believe, nor, indeed, is he a man whose opinions are worth much on any subject; but as a melange of literary, social, and domestic gossip, the value of the work is unrivalled. A. appears to have read enormously; he states that he had made extracts himself from 800 plays of the middle comedy alone. But his dialogue is prolix and lumbering; and his work is not irradiated by a single gleam of genius, and has only achieved immortality through being a store-house of miscellaneous information, that otherwise would have been lost to the race. The best editions are by Schweighäuser (14 vols. Strasb. 1801—1807), and Dindorf (3 vols. Leip. 1827). There is an English translation of A. in Bohn's Classical Library (3 vols. Lond. 1854).

ATHENA'GORAS, an early Christian philosopher, who taught first at Athens, and afterwards at Alexandria. He is one of the oldest of the apologetical writers, and is favourably known by his *Legatio pro Christianis*, which he addressed to the Emperor Marcus Aurelius in the year 177 A. D. He therein defended the Christians against the monstrous accusations of the heathen, viz., that they were guilty of atheism, incest, and cannibalism. His work is written in a philosophical spirit, and is marked by great clearness and cogency of style. We likewise possess a valuable treatise of his on the resurrection of the dead.

ATHENA'IS, an Athenian of distinguished beauty, the daughter of Leontinos the Sophist, was born about the close of the 4th c., A. D. She received from her father a superior education, being skilled in Greek and Latin literature, rhetoric, astronomy, geometry, and the science of arithmetic. After his death, she repaired to Constantinople, to obtain justice for the harsh treatment to which her brother subjected her. Here her beauty and intelligence made her the favourite of Augusta Pulcheria, sister of Theodosius II., who considered that she would make an excellent wife for the emperor. In 421, A. having been baptized and named Eudocia, was married to Theodosius, and in 438, made a splendid pilgrimage to Jerusalem, bringing with her, on her return, the supposed relics of the first martyr, Stephen. Afterwards, she lost the favour of Pulcheria the real manager of affairs—and was banished from the court. She then retired to Jerusalem, where she suffered many persecutions, and died, in the odour of sanctity, 460 A. D. A. wrote an epic poem on the war of Theodosius against the Persians, and several other metrical works which have not been preserved.

ATHENS, the capital of the ancient state of Attica, is said to have been founded by Cecrops, about 1550 B. C., and styled Cecropia; but even the ancients themselves doubted this tradition. Equally

uncertain is the story that it was first styled A., in honour of Athene, during the reign of Erichthonius. The ancient citadel was situated on the top of a square craggy rock, 150 feet high, with a flat summit, 1000 feet long, and 500 broad. Gradually, as population increased, A. extended itself over the wide and beautiful plain below. This increase is said to have been occasioned by the organisation of the twelve Attic tribes into a political confederacy or union by Theseus, the brightest figure that shines through the 'dark ages' of Attic history. The position of A. near the Gulf of Saronica, opposite the eastern coast of the Peloponnesus, was favourable to the acquirement of naval power. The city, which was distant four or five miles from the sea, possessed three harbours, all situated on the south-west, and connected with it by walls. The oldest of these harbours was Phalerum. It was also the nearest to the city, and accessible at all times by a dry road. The Peiræus was first used as a harbour by Themistocles. Munychia was the Acropolis of the whole rocky peninsula termed the Peiræus, and of immense importance strategetically. The two last harbours were connected with the city by the famous 'long walls,' of which we read so much in Athenian history. They were forty stadia, or nearly five miles in length. Two streams flowed in the vicinity of A.; on the east side, the Ilissus, which also washed the southern part of the city; and on the west, the Cephisus, about a mile and a half beyond the walls. To the west lay Salamis, with Eleusis on the north-west, Phylæ and Decelea on the north, Marathon on the north-east, and Hymettus on the south. All along the coast rose splendid buildings.

The whole of the magnificent prospect was crowned by the Acropolis, where all the most glorious monuments of A. were assembled. First rose the Parthenon (q.v.), or Temple of Minerva, a pile which even now, after the lapse of centuries, remains among the wonders of the world. The Propylæa, all built of white marble, formed the entrance to the Parthenon. Close to it, on the north side of the Acropolis, rose the Erechtheium, the most venerated of all Athenian sanctuaries, and connected with the oldest religious history of the city. The whole of it was destroyed by the Persians, but was restored during the Peloponnesian war. Its ruins still exist, and allow us to form a very correct idea of its external form and structure. In some points, it differed from all other examples of Greek temples. But it would be tedious and unprofitable to mention in detail all those magnificent buildings which were the glory of ancient Athens. It is sufficient to say, that gods were never more superbly honoured in any land. That enthusiastic love of the beautiful which animated the Athenians, turning their religion into an art, and making worship an education in æsthetics, is nowhere so clearly visible as in their religious architecture. Their mythological faith stood daily before their eyes in monumental splendour, for almost every deity had his temple or shrine in the city. Two of the finest buildings – the Temple of Theseus, and that of Jupiter Olympus – were on the outside of the city; the first to the north-west, the second to the south. The former was both a temple and a tomb, inasmuch as it held the remains of Theseus himself. It was built about 465 B.C., and was therefore older than the Parthenon. It had the privilege of an asylum for slaves, and the large space of ground which it enclosed was frequently used as a muster-ground for the Athenian soldiery. It was built of the favourite Pentelic marble, in the Doric style of architecture, and is the best preserved of all the monuments of ancient Athens. For centuries it was a Christian church, appropriately enough dedicated to St George, the chivalrous hero of the 'dark ages' of Christianity, as Theseus had been of the 'dark ages' of Attic history; but is now the national museum of the city. The Temple of Jupiter, of which sixteen grand Corinthian columns are still extant, to the south-east of the Acropolis, and near the right bank of the Ilissus, in size, splendour, and beauty, excelled all other Athenian structures. Immense sums of money were expended upon it from the time when it was commenced by Pisistratus, until it was completed by Hadrian, a period of 700 years. The building of it was frequently suspended, so that Philostratus calls it 'a struggle with time.' At the time the Persians sacked the city, it was fortunately only beginning to be built, and so escaped destruction. Aristotle speaks of it as a work of despotic grandeur, and equal to the pyramids of Egypt. The exterior was decorated by about 120 fluted columns, 61 feet in height, and more than 6 feet in diameter. It was 354 feet long, and 171 broad, and contained the celebrated statue of the Olympian Jupiter in ivory and gold, the work of Phidias.

Besides these wonders of art, the city contained places of interest of which the memory will perpetually remain—the Academy where Plato, whose estate lay near it, gave his lessons in a grove of plane-trees adorned with statues; tradition alleged it to have belonged originally to Academus. Hipparchus surrounded it with a wall, and Cimon adorned it with walks, fountains, and olive-grove. The Lyceum, the most important of the Athenian gymnasia, where Aristotle lectured; and, near to this, the Cynosarges, where Antisthenes the Cynic expounded his 'harsh and crabbed' doctrine; the hill of the Areiopagus, where the most venerable court of judicature was held; and the Prytaneum, or senate-house. About a quarter of a mile to the west of the Acropolis rises a low hill, which marks the locality of the Pnyx, a place of public assembly, forming a large semicircular area, bounded at the base by a limestone wall, from which projects a pedestal, carved out of the rock, and ascended by steps. This most interesting place has been preserved almost in its integrity, and, as we look around, we are carried back to the times when some six thousand Athenian citizens were here assembled, when the orator, standing upon the pedestal, could survey the Acropolis, with all its temples, the venerable Areopagus, and beyond the city, the extended plains and villages of Attica, with corn-fields, olive-grounds, and vineyards.

A., in its most flourishing period, numbered 21,000 free citizens; from which we may calculate that it contained about 200,000 inhabitants. More than two thousand years have passed over the beautiful city, and still its remains excite the admiration of the world. The Turks surrounded it with wide irregular walls, partly built out of the ruins of the old walls, and containing many fragments of noble columns. Of the Propylæa, the right wing, or Temple of Victory, was destroyed in 1656 by the explosion of a powder-magazine. Six columns, with lofty arches, remain to mark the site of the opposite wing. The interior of the Parthenon was used for some time as a Turkish mosque. Eight columns remain on the east of the front, several colonnades at the sides; and of the back pediment, where the combat of Minerva and Neptune was sculptured, nothing remains save the head of a noble horse, and two decapitated female figures. Of the pediment in front, several figures belonging to the group representing the birth of Minerva are preserved in the British Museum, and justly regarded as master-pieces of ancient sculpture. Of all the statues which the Parthenon contained, only one

t of Hadrian, has been preserved. Ruined as it
= been, the general aspect of the Parthenon is still
Of the Erechtheium (or Temple of Neptunus
ina) considerable vestiges remain, especially
l female figures styled Caryatides.
ons and vast extent of the two theatres
traced, though grain is now grown in
All these remains belong to the Acro-
city below, there are no such splendid
The Horologium, or octagonal Temple
ads (built by Andronicus Kyrrhestes), has
been well preserved; but a few fragments found in broken walls are all that remain to tell of the splendid Gymnasium built by Ptolemæus. Beyond the city, the attention of the spectator is arrested by the sublime ruins of the Temple of Jupiter Olympus. Pedestals and inscriptions have been found here and there, sometimes buried in the earth. The sculptures on the friezes of the interior of the Temple of Theseus, representing the exploits of Theseus, have been well preserved, while the external sculptures are almost utterly destroyed. A Turkish burial-place

Temple of the Winds, Athens.

occupies the hill where the Areiopagus held its
The site of the Lyceum is indicated only
ered stones, and a modern house and garden
the place of the Academy. Scarcely anything
to shew the old magnificence of the harbours
Phaleros, and Munychia.
is probable that, in the time of Pausanias, many
s remained belonging to the period before
n war, as Xerxes, during his short time of
er A., would scarcely have been able to
re than the fortifications and principal
dings. Themistocles, in his restoration
, had chiefly a regard to utility; Cimon
ation to its decoration; but Pericles far
them in the magnificence of his designs,
were too vast to be carried into effect in later
The civilisation, spreading from A. as its
sl Macedon and other states into dan-
r. The defeat at Chæroneia was as fatal
as to the liberty of the Athenians.
at the Peiræus had been destroyed
the naval power, and with it the whole
importance of A., rapidly declined. It is
the city was treated leniently by its con-
the temples and statues were preserved
lation, and A., with all the trophies of eight
of greatness, remained under the Antonines;
free national spirit of the Athenians had
for ever, and slowly, but surely, the fine
the fate of Grecian liberty. Their trea-
ch had been spared by the Roman emperors,
gradually stolen away by various thievish
ctors, especially for the decoration of Byzan-
or were destroyed by irreflective Christian
and barbarian invasion. About 420 A. D., the
st religion and temple-service of A. had entirely
peared; afterwards, the schools of philosophy
closed by Justinian, and Greek mythology
radually forgotten. St George took the place
ena, and the Parthenon was converted into a
The surviving industry of A. was inir-
of Sicily, who removed its silk ma

In 1456, A. fell into the hands of Omar, and, to consummate its degradation, under the low, sensual Turks, the city of Athens was regarded as an appanage of the harem, and governed by a black eunuch. The Venetians, having captured the city in 1687, intended to carry away as a trophy the quadriga of victory from the west front of the Parthenon, but shattered it in their attempt to remove it. In 1688, A. was again delivered into the hands of the Turks, and the work of demolition now proceeded rapidly. The grand remains of antiquity were used as quarries to supply materials for all ordinary buildings, and, in the course of another century, the city was reduced to its lowest point of degradation.

Modern A. (styled by the Turks Athina or Setines) is now the capital of the new kingdom of Greece. Previous to the Greek revolution (1821), it was a provincial city of inferior importance, the seat of a Greek metropolitan bishop, and under the jurisdiction of the Turkish governor in Eubœa. In 1821, the war of liberation commenced, and the Turks surrendered Athens in the following year; but again captured it in 1826, and took the Acropolis in 1827. After this it was left in ruins until 1830, when Attica was declared united with Greece by the protocol of the London Conference. In 1834, Otho, the son of the Bavarian monarch, who had been elected to the sovereignty of the new kingdom, removed his residence from Nauplia to A. Improvements now proceeded rapidly: Turkish manners and customs disappeared; the contemptible wooden houses and crooked streets were superseded by new ones - among which the Hermes, Æolus, Athene, and New Stadion streets are conspicuous; and, in 1836, the foundation of a new palace was laid, and it was completed in 1843. The municipal affairs of A. are now regulated by a mayor
chos) and council elected by the citizens.
A. has a gymnasium, a library enriched
donations from France and Germany
ity, where about 52 professors a

engaged. The number of students is between 500 and 600. Several interesting works have been printed in A. The French government has founded an Archæological Institute, and several missionary societies have appointed agents here. A. has almost no trade except in walking-sticks and smoking-tubes made of black-thorn. Pop. (1871) 44,510.

Political History of A.—It was the Ionic race that manifested most signally the distinguishing characters of Greek civilisation; and of this portion of Hellas, A., in the brilliant part of its history, stands out most prominently. According to tradition, its political power was first established by Theseus, king of Attica, who made A. the metropolis. Here he instituted the great popular festival of the Panathenæa, and, by encouraging settlements in the city, greatly increased its population. He divided the citizens into three classes: nobility, agriculturists, and mechanics. Until the death of Codrus in 1068 B.C., A. was governed by kings; afterwards, by archons elected from the nobility. The time of holding office was limited to ten years in 752 B.C., and to one year in 683 B.C., when nine archons were annually elected, one being called the *archon eponymus*, because the year was distinguished by his name. Here begins the authentic history of A. These archons, together with the council of nobles, afterwards called the Areiopagus, exercised the whole power of the state, and administered justice. The Athenian government was thus, like all other Hellenic governments, an oligarchy; but the changes introduced by the archon Solon, 594 B.C., though remarkably moderate, laid the foundation of that democratic constitution which was afterwards perfected by Cleisthenes. The condition of the population at the time of Solon was one of extreme suffering and discord, arising chiefly from the oppressive execution, by the aristocratic archons, of the law of debtor and creditor. This law was of old extremely harsh in Greece as well as in Rome; it assigned the debtor that could not fulfil his contract as the slave of his creditor. The great part of the soil of Attica was in the hands of the rich, and the mass of the population, who tilled the lands as tenants, were either in hopeless arrears, or already, with their families, actual slaves. Driven to desperation, the populace were ready to rise in mutiny; the oligarchy were afraid or unable to enforce the laws; and thus it was agreed to confer dictatorial power on Solon, well known for his wisdom, integrity, and sympathy with the people, and allow him to solve the problem. The disease being desperate, Solon applied the desperate remedy of abolishing existing contracts, liberating those that had been reduced to slavery, and forbidding for the future any one from pledging his own person or that of a member of his family. He next reformed the political constitution by dividing the freemen into four classes, according to the amount of their property. It was only the richer classes that paid taxes and were eligible to the offices of state; but all had votes in the assembly that elected the archons, and all sat in judgment on their past conduct, on the expiry of their year of office. The government, though still oligarchical, was thus modified by popular control. Its free operation was for some time (560—510 B.C.) interrupted by the usurpation of Peisistratus and his sons, whose *tyranny*, however, was mild and enlightened, the forms at least of the Solonian constitution being preserved.

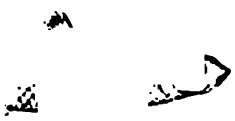
On the banishment of the Peisistratidæ (510 B.C.), a further political reform was introduced by Cleisthenes, who extended the basis of the constitution, and rendered it essentially democratic. To Cleisthenes is ascribed the origin of the practice called *ostracism* (q. v.).

Then followed the brilliant period of the Persian war, when out of the circumstances which had seemed to threaten destruction, A. rose to the highest point of power and prosperity. Miltiades at Marathon, and Themistocles at Salamis, gained the victories which infused new courage and enthusiasm into the Greek nation. The period between the Persian war and the time of Alexander the Great, or from 500 to 336 B.C., was the most glorious in Athenian history; and in 444, Cimon and Pericles raised the city to its highest point of grandeur and beauty. But under Pericles, the beginning of a decline took place, through the decay of ancient morals and the Peloponnesian war, which ended in the capture of A. by the Lacedæmonians. After this, A. retained only the shadow of its former power and dignity. The thirty appointed ministers of government were, in fact, so many tyrants, supported by the Lacedæmonian army. After eight months of despotism had been endured, the tyrants were expelled by Thrasybulus, a free constitution was restored to A., and a new period of prosperity commenced. But it was not destined to endure long; a formidable foe, Philip of Macedon, now appeared in the north. The Athenians having opposed him in the Phocian war, Philip took from them several of their colonies. Then followed the defeat of the Athenians at Chæroneia (338 B.C.), a fatal blow to Greece. A. with other states became subject to Macedon. The free spirit of the citizens was broken, and in moral character they degenerated. After Alexander's death, a fruitless attempt was made to regain their liberty. Antipater instituted an oligarchy of wealth. Soon afterwards, A. was taken by Cassander, and placed under the rule of Demetrius Phalereus, who employed his power wisely and beneficently. Once more the old constitution of A. was restored by Demetrius Poliorcetes, and a short interval of independence was enjoyed, until the city was taken by Antigonus Gonatas. After liberating themselves from the dominion of Macedon, and joining the Achaian confederacy, the Athenians were so misguided as to support Mithridates against the Romans. This last error was fatal. Sulla conquered A., destroyed the port of the Peiræus, and left only the appearance of liberty and independence, which entirely vanished in the time of Vespasian. Still, after the spirit of liberty and progress had departed, A. long remained safe from spoliation. The Romans, in their respect for Grecian pre-eminence in art and philosophy, and moved also by religious reverence, long regarded Athens as a captive too noble and beautiful to suffer any indignity.

A'THENS, a name applied to twenty-three places in the United States. The most important of these is a thriving town in Georgia, 92 miles to the west-north-west of Augusta. It is the terminus of a branch-railway, which joins the Georgia Central. It contains a cotton manufactory, and is the market for an extensive cotton-growing region. It is the seat also of Franklin College, a flourishing seminary of education.

A'THERINE (*Atheri'na*), a genus of small fishes allied to the Mullet family (*Mugilidæ*), but latterly separated into a distinct family, *Atherinidæ*. The Atherines have more than twice as many vertebræ as the Mullets; they are of a rather slender form, but few of them exceed six inches in length. They have a protractile mouth, and very small teeth; some are quite toothless. Almost all the known species, which are numerous, and found in the seas of different parts of the world, have a broad silvery band along each flank. Some of them are much esteemed for their delicacy. They all congregate in great shoals. They abound in the Mediterranean.

cies, *A. Presbyter*, is very common on the
ast of England and on some parts of the
Ireland, but is rare on the east coast of
In the markets of some of the southern



Atherine (*Atherina Presbyter*).

England, where the Smelt (q. v.) is
it is sold under that name: in Brighton
other places, it is called *Sand Smelt*.
fish abounds, it is often taken by anglers
shore, biting readily at almost any bait.

OMA, or 'fatty deposit,' is generally
the tissues of aged persons, or those who
ed dissipated and ill-nourished lives. In
ea. it is yellow and cheesy, shewing under
e fatty granules and crystals of choles-
common situation is between the
coats of arteries, and is dangerous,
as interferes with the elasticity of the
, rendering it more liable to injury, and
repair itself, should any occur. A. gene-
sed— aneurism (q. v.). Cysts filled with con-
; bread-sauce, which frequently occur
termed atheromatous tumours.

(Gr. *athleo*, to contend), the name
competitant, pugilist, wrestler, or runner,
Greece. Athletics were studied in
a branch of art, and led to several
of diet, exercise, &c., applicable to
ces of life. Bodily strength and activity
highly honoured by the Greeks, that the
position in society totally different from
modern pugilist. When he proposed to
lists at the Olympic or other public games,
examined with regard to his birth, social
and moral character. A herald then
forth and called upon any one, if he knew
graceful to the candidate, to state it. Even
genius contended for the palm in athletic
Chrysippus and Cleanthes, the famous
ers, were victorious athletes, or, at least,
i.e., persons who pursued gymnastic
not as a profession, but for the sake of
as at the present day we have gentle-
n, amateur-pugilists, &c. The profound
Plato appeared among the wrestlers in
mian games at Corinth, and also in the
games at Sicyon. Even the meditative
d to have gained a prize at Elis, and
for athletic training to Eurymenes,
ds gained a prize at the same place.
the honour of an Olympian victor, that
city was regarded as ennobled by his suc-
he himself considered sacred. He entered
ugh a special breach made in the walls;
pported at the public expense; and when he
honoured with a public funeral. Euthymus,
a , who had, with only one exception,
victorious at Elis, was honoured with
ch, even during his lifetime, homage
by command of an oracle. Athletic sports
witnessed at Rome 186 B.C. They were
d by M. Fulvius at the end of the Ætolian
became excessively popular in the time
ors. At Rome, the athletes formed a

, a small town in the of
Ireland, on both sides of the Shannon, chiefly in the county of Westmeath, but partly in that of Roscommon. It is the largest town between Dublin and Galway, and lies on a commanding situation, 3 miles below Lough Ree, in a carboniferous limestone district. The chief manufactures are felt-hats, friezes, linens, and stays. A canal here, a mile long, enables large river-steamers to navigate the Shannon for 116 miles, from Killaloe to Carrick-on-Shannon, uninterrupted by the river-rapids. The Shannon is crossed by a fine bow-string and lattice iron bridge of two arches, 175 and 40 feet span. Pop. in 1871, 5748. A. sends one member to parliament. A. Castle, on the Roscommon bank of the Shannon, was founded in the reign of King John, and has now been rendered one of the chief military positions in Ireland. The fortifications cover 15 acres, and contain barracks for 1500 men.

ATHOLE (Pleasant Land), a district of 450 square miles, in the north of Perthshire. It occupies a great part of the southern slopes of the Grampian mountains, and is intersected by many narrow glens, down which flow the rapid tributaries of the Tay. It is chiefly composed of gneiss and quartz rock, with beds of primary limestone. Dr Hutton's explorations among the granite veins in Glen Tilt, were among the chief means of establishing the Plutonic theory of geology. A. was once one of the best hunting districts in Scotland. Athole deer-forest is said to contain 100,000 acres, and 15,000 head of deer, of which 100 are killed annually. In the picturesque Pass of Killiecrankie, in this district, 17 miles north-west of Dunkeld, Claverhouse fell in 1689, though victorious over the troops of King William III.

ATHOR, or ATHYR, but properly, *Het-her*, i.e., 'the habitation of God,' the name of an Egyptian goddess who, in the mythological system of that people, is ranked among the second class of deities. She was the daughter of Ra, the sun. By the Greeks, she was identified with Aphrodite (Venus). The cow was regarded as her symbol, and, in hieroglyphics, she generally appears with the head of that animal, bearing between her horns the figure of the sun's disk. A. is also represented as a cow itself, and as a bird with human face, horns, and the sun's disk. On the oldest monuments, she is frequently portrayed bearing a temple on her head, as in the Athor-capitals of the Ptolemaic buildings, falsely supposed to be heads of Isis. Originally, the goddess had a cosmogonic significance; later, she was called the 'mistress of dance and jest,' and held in her hands, as symbols of joy, the cord of love and the tambourine. Queens and princesses were often represented by the figure of A. Her worship was generally spread through Egypt. Her most sacred abode was at Denderah. After her the third month of the Egyptian year was named.

ATHOS, HAGION ORÓS, or MONTÉ SANTO, i.e., the Holy Hill, the principal mountain of a chain extending, in a peninsular form, from the coast of Macedonia into the Ægean Sea, between the Gulfs of Contessa and Monté Santo, and connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus. The length of the peninsula is 40 miles; breadth, 4. According to tradition, it received its name from A., son of Neptune, or from A., a giant who battled against the gods. The highest summit in the chain, or Mount A. proper, a solitary peak at the southern extremity of the peninsula, rises 6350 feet above the sea-level. In ancient times, several towns were built on A. Herodotus mentions five. The most memorable thing in connection with A., is which Xerxes cut through the isthmus escape the stormy gales which rendered round the promontory very peril

had shattered the fleet of Mardonius some years before. Traces of this canal still exist. In the middle ages, A. was covered with monasteries, of which 20 still remain (besides several hermitages, chapels, &c.). The largest are the monasteries of Ivoron and St Laura; the richest, Vatopædi. The entire number of monks who inhabit the 'Holy Hill' is about 8000. They form a kind of monastic republic under the Turkish government, to which they pay an annual tribute of nearly £4000. The monks follow the rule of Basilius, and lead an ascetic life, engaged chiefly in agriculture, gardening, and the care of bees. In diet, they restrict themselves to herbs, fruits, and fish. They carry on a considerable trade in amulets, images, crucifixes, wooden articles of furniture—all of their own manufacture—and also reap profits from the numerous visits of pilgrims. Karyæs, the principal place in the peninsula, is picturesquely situated in the midst of vineyards and gardens, and has 1000 inhabitants. Here the market is held; but no female, even of the animal kind, is permitted to be present, or even to enter the peninsula. In the middle ages, A. was the centre of Greek learning and Christian-Byzantine art. Now, scarcely more than two or three monks, of tolerable education, can be found in a monastery. The libraries are neglected, though containing several beautiful old manuscripts, some specimens of which have been brought to Western Europe. They contain, however, little or nothing of value in classical literature.

ATHY', a small town in the south-west of Kildare county, Ireland, on the east side of the river Barrow, here navigable for barges. It lies in a carboniferous limestone district. It chiefly consists of two main streets. Pop. (1871) 4113. Its chief export is grain.

ATLA'NTA, a flourishing city of Georgia. It owes its prosperity chiefly to its situation, being the focus of four of the principal railways of the state—the Georgia, the Macon and Western, the Atlantic and Western, and lastly, the La Grange. Independently of these means of communication, the surrounding country, besides being rich in grain and cotton, contains gold, iron, and other valuable minerals. A. was destroyed by General Sherman, November 1864, but is rapidly recovering its former prosperity. Pop. (1870) 21,789.

ATLA'NTES, in Arch., so called, by the Greeks, in reference to the mythical Atlas (q.v.), are male

Atlas Column, from the Baths at Pompeii.

figures used instead of columns. The Romans called them Telamones.

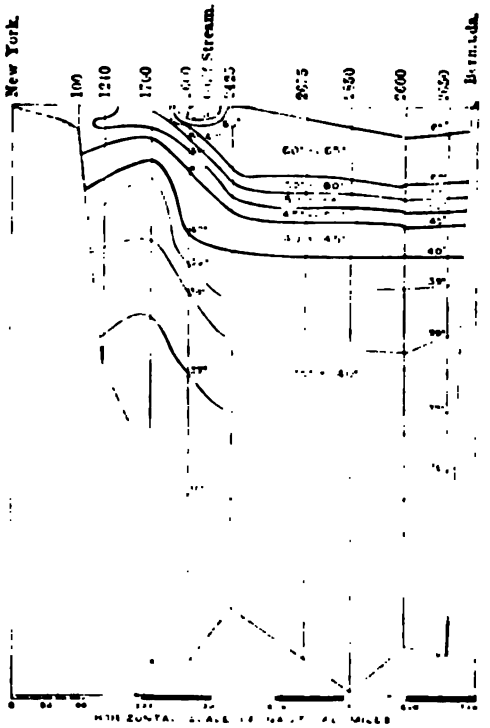
ATLA'NTIC OCEAN, so called either from Mount Atlas, or from the fabulous island of Atla... is that part of the ocean that divides the ... from the New. Its extreme breadth is ... miles, and its narrowest part, between ... Roque in Brazil, and the nearest p... about 1600 miles. If the A. be ... bounded by the polar circles, and to inc... Caribbean Sea, Hudson Bay, Mediterranean ... and the other connected water-surfaces, it covers ... area computed at 35 million square miles. The ... is naturally divided into three portions—the north ... south, and intertropical A. It stands in open con... nection with the north and south polar seas, an... in the remarkable parallelism of its coasts, ... rather a vast river than an ocean. Its ne... sends off numerous ramifications on b... of them forming almost shut seas: on ... Hudson's Bay, the Gulf of St Lawrence, ... Gulf of Mexico; on the east, the ... Mediterranean, and Black Seas. In the ... both coasts present a comparatively unbroken ... and there is a remarkable correspondence ... their projecting and retiring angles, the ... coast of Brazil lying opposite to the Gulf of ... and the projection of Senegambia answer... retirement of the American coast in the ... Sea.

The whole of the New World, with the ... of the narrow strip lying west of the ... Rocky Mountains, belongs to the *basin* of ... It drains comparatively little of the Old ... may be seen by tracing the water-shed on ... Owing to the numerous seas and inlets com... with it, the extent of its shores ... 50,000 miles, several thousands ... the shores of the Pacific and In... ... cept near the continents, the Atlantic is ... islands compared with the Pacific. The chief ... in the open ocean are Iceland, Faro[e], ... Azores, Ascension, St Helena, the Falkland... South Georgia, and Sandwich Land.

The A. is the great highway of the world, and everything that concerns its na... is of great importance. Under the system o... vations carried on for many years by the ... ments of Holland, Great Britain, the United ... and France, much has been done to amass in... tion as to its currents, winds, depth, tempe... &c., the chief results of which either have be... are in the course of being published. The o... tions connected with the telegraph-cable were ... the means of furnishing us with s... information regarding the Atlantic.

The chief A. currents are two. ... *Current*, which, starting from about ... St Thomas, in the Gulf of Guinea, w... motion varying from 18 to 24 miles a day, ... westwards on both sides of the equator ... Cape San Roque, where it divides, one ... running south along the coast of Brazil, ... other along the coast of Guiana into the Ca... Sea. The velocity of this current is 24 miles ... at the point where it curves south, whence it ... ually diminishes in strength as it proce... ward to little more than six miles a day. ... the South A. there is a complete circulation ... waters, induced by the prevailing winds, an... tained at about twelve miles a day. Its ... varies with the months, being determined ... prevailing force of the wind of each ... breadth varies from 200 to 400 miles; ... is fed by currents from north and so... temperature is consequently considera... the eastern than in the western part o... The other great current is the *Gulf* ... originally part of the equatorial

the Guiana coast, and through the Carib-
, issues from the Gulf of Mexico through
it of Florida, and after following the direc-
A rican coast to about 40°, turns sea-
s the great Newfoundland Bank, and
y ing round, is lost as a distinct current
he ters (see GULF STREAM). The water
tream is often upwards of 20° warmer than
ounding ocean. The Gulf Stream has an
influence on the Atlantic. Besides these
rrents, the A. abounds in smaller ones, such
northerly currents along the East Green-
Labrador coasts (this Arctic current
as far south as 36° N. lat., its rate being
o 10 miles a day); the southerly current
he of Greenland; Rennel's current,
of Biscay; and the great current
of Africa, from Morocco southwards,
ged in the Guinea current. The whole
rents follow in every case the prevailing
regions where they flow.
over the whole of the eastern half of the A.,
out N. lat. 45° northwards, the prevailing
are south-westerly, there is over the same
general flow of the water of the ocean
the north-east, passing the British Isles, and
long the coast of Norway, to some distance
he North Cape. It is to this circumstance
mild temperatures of North-western Europe
referred. The amelioration of the winter
from this cause is very great, amounting to
in the Hebrides, and to fully 40° in the
Islands. This effect is directly brought
by the winds alone, but by the influence
s and sea combined. The influence of
the temperature of the ocean is so great,
August, the isothermal of 50° touches
Norway in lat. 72° N., whereas to
of Newfoundland the same isothermal
s to about lat. 42° N. Again, on the
of 74° W., the change of temperature
40° to 35° N., or in 300 miles, is 18·0;
on the meridian of 20° W. from lat. 40°
distance of 1800 miles, the change of the
ture of the sea is only 15·0.
erature of the A. about the equator is,
the part between 20° and 35° W. long.,
that of the Gulf of Guinea reaches the
of in April; from October to May it
; in June and September about 80°;
and August it falls below 80°; that of
Sea is above 80° from July to October,
the rest of the year below 80°, except in
tween 10° and 30° lat. N., the temperature
astern part of the A. is always from 3° to
n the western, and the maximum and
peratures take place later in the year
bean Sea than off the African coast.
been done recently, particularly by
ships *Porcupine* and *Challenger*, in throwing
the physical geography of the A. The most
nt of the observations are those of deep and
temperatures, from their connection with
circulation, and the distribution of life in
the of the sea, and the bearings of the
s thereby raised on geological specula-
e art. SEA). Animal life abounds at
eater depths than was formerly supposed;
beyond 6000 feet it gradually diminishes.
part of the bottom of the North Atlantic is
with a slimy 'ooze,' composed for the most
the chalk-producing globigerina; in very
rts this is replaced by a brown, clay-like
th few traces of animal forms.
ding the depth of the A., it is only recently
able data have been obtained; along certain
tracts, especially those of the *Challenger*, the profile of the bottom can now be laid down with considerable certainty. The deepest soundings made by the *Challenger* with its improved method of sounding (see SOUNDINGS), is 3875 fathoms, or 23,250 feet, at a point about 90 miles off St Thomas, West Indies. A remarkable ridge, about 400 miles wide, and 10,000 to 12,000 feet, or 2 to 2½ miles, below the surface of the sea, extends along the bottom of the A. from Cape Clear in Ireland to Cape Race in Newfoundland, a distance of 1640 miles. Along this, which is known as the 'Telegraph Plateau,' the Atlantic cables are laid. The accompanying diagram exhibits the depths and temperatures in the track between New York and Bermuda:



Section of the North Atlantic Ocean between New York and Bermuda:
showing the Soundings in fathoms and Isothermal Lines obtained in H.M.S. *Challenger*, Captain G. S. Nares, 1873.

ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH, HISTORY OF. In 1842, Professor Morse of New York, having stretched a submarine cable between Castle Garden and Governor's Island, Boston, and succeeded in transmitting an electric current from one end to the other, expressed his opinion that it would be possible to effect an electrical communication through the sea. After further investigations, he announced to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, 'that a telegraphic communication on his plan might with certainty be established across the Atlantic.' Three years prior to that, Sir William O'Shaughnessy gave practical proof that electrical messages could be conveyed through water, by depositing a cable in the bed of the Hooghly; but it was the successful submarine telegraphic undertakings of the Messrs Brett, who, in June 1845, registered a 'General Oceanic Telegraph Company,' with the object among others of joining this country

with America by means of a telegraph 'across the Atlantic Ocean,' and six years afterwards united England with France (see TELEGRAPH, *History*), that first fairly convinced the public mind that the New World might be put on what may be called conversational terms with the Old. The supposed great depths of the Atlantic Ocean presented the most imposing obstacle to this desired closeness of communion; but when it was discovered that between Ireland and Newfoundland there extended, along the bottom of the Atlantic, at a depth of not more than two miles below the surface, a fine broad platform (see ATLANTIC OCEAN), seemingly so specially formed by nature for the purpose of electrical communication, that Captain Maury at once designated it the Telegraphic Plateau, the project of an Atlantic submarine cable assumed a practicable form. In 1854, the colonial government of Newfoundland passed an act incorporating a company to establish a telegraphic communication between the Old World and the New, and aided it by a subsidy, and by grants of lands. The colonial government also conferred upon the company the exclusive right of landing a telegraphic line upon the coast under its jurisdiction. The governments of Prince Edward's Island and the state of Maine made similar concessions; and authority for certain subsidiary operations in Canada was also obtained. The company, incorporated under the title of 'The New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company,' commenced operations by uniting St John's in Newfoundland with lines in the United States and British North America. This done, numerous preliminary experiments were undertaken by eminent electricians and engineers, in order to determine the amount of retarding force which inducted and disguised electricity were likely to offer to the transmission of currents along submarine wires of unusual length. Having by these experiments, 2000 in number, tried with 62 different kinds of cable, determined the one best adapted for the conveyance of electricity through such a length, and at such a depth in the Atlantic, the next step was the formation of a more influential company. In 1856, 'The A. T. Company,' to which all the privileges conferred on the old company were handed over, was formed with a capital of £350,000. The governments of Great Britain and the United States liberally aided the company, guaranteeing, by a contract of 25 years' duration, to pay to the company, until such time as its dividend reached 6 per cent., a subsidy of £14,000 a year, and of £10,000 subsequently. They also agreed to furnish ships for laying down the cable.

The cable, which weighed about a ton per mile, equal to 14 cwt. in water, was composed of a strand of seven wires of pure copper, coated with three separate layers of gutta percha, wrapped over with hemp saturated with pitch and tar, and finally bound round with iron wires, 332,500 miles of iron and copper wire being employed in its construction. It was deposited in the holds of the *Agamemnon*, a line-of-battle ship supplied by the British government, and the *Niagara*, a splendid frigate furnished by the United States, and the two vessels started on their grand mission. After two unsuccessful attempts during the years 1857 and 1858, the expedition started again for mid-ocean, whence the ships were to start, paying-out towards opposite shores, on the 17th of July 1858. The cable was united and lowered on the 29th of the same month; and the *Agamemnon*, notwithstanding a severe gale of wind, arrived at Valentia, having successfully laid her portion of it, on the morning of the 5th of August. The *Niagara* about the same time arrived in Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, and science had annihilated space between the Old World and the New. On the 17th August, the extremities of the cable having been put in connection with the recording-instruments, the following message was flashed through the ocean in thirty-five minutes: 'Europe and America are united by telegraph. Glory to God in the highest; on earth peace and good-will towards men.' Messages and replies from the Queen to the President of the United States, from the Mayor of London to the Mayor of New York, &c., followed. But on the 4th of September, the signals at Valentia became unintelligible. One commercial message of great importance passed through the cable, in reference to the collision between the Atlantic steamers, the *Europa* and *Arabia*; this single message saved the commercial world £30,000, which would doubtless have been spent in extra insurance on the vessels and cargoes thus delayed. The cable of 1858 having become useless, two other lines were laid in 1865 and 1866, and these two now connect Great Britain with North America. A third cable was laid in 1869 from France to the United States, and various other transatlantic lines are projected or in progress. See TELEGRAPH.

ATLA'NTIS, according to ancient tradition, the name of a vast island in the Atlantic Ocean. It is first mentioned by Plato, who represents an Egyptian priest as describing it to Solon, but, of course, according to Plato's view of the matter. In this description, A. appeared as an island larger than Libya and Asia Minor taken together, and lying off the Pillars of Hercules in the Atlantic Ocean. Plato gives a beautiful picture of the interior of this imaginary land, and enriches it with a fabulous history. Some early writers supposed that the Canary Islands were the remains of the old A.; for Plato had stated that at the close of the long contest which its inhabitants maintained against the Athenians, nine thousand years before his time, the sea suddenly engulfed the island, and had ever since been unnavigable, by reason of the shoals of mud created by the sunken island. Some found it in the Scandinavian peninsula; others (first Bircherod in 1685) have supposed that Phœnician or Carthaginian merchant-ships had been driven by storm on the coast of America, and that the supposed vast island of A. mentioned by Plato, as well as the great unnamed island spoken of by Pliny, Diodorus, and Arnobius, may have been the New World.

A'TLAS is that piece of the human vertebral column which is nearest to the skull; in other words, it is the first cervical vertebra. It may be known from the other six by its being without a body or spinous process, by its being a more irregular bony ring, partly divided into two unequal parts by a constriction; this division in the recent subject is completed by a ligament, the part in front being occupied by the tooth-like process of the second cervical vertebra, and that behind, by the spinal marrow. On each side, the ring is very thick; it is smooth and cupped above to receive the condyles of the occipital bone. The corresponding parts below are flat, and rest on the second cervical vertebra.

The A., with the occipital bone, forms the joint on which the head moves in bowing; and turns on the pivot of the second cervical vertebra, when we look from side to side.

A'TLAS, according to Hesiod's *Theogony*, one of the Titans, the son of Iapetus and Clymene, and brother of Menœtius, Prometheus, and Epimetheus. Apollodorus, however, states him to have been a son of Asia, and Hyginus, a son of Æther and Gaea. He married Pleone, daughter of Oceanus (or Hesperis, his own niece), and became the father of the Pleiades. As leader of the Titans, he attempted

the heavens, and for this supreme
was condemned by Zeus to bear the vault
on his head and hands—the sting of this
al punishment obviously being, that A.
d to support what he thirsted to
er writers, however, rationalise
t A. was a mighty king who
stronomy, and only tried to
ffectually.—In consequence of the
which made the vault of heaven rest
pillars or other supports, the name A.,
thological and cosmogonic, was intro-
phy. Mercator, in the 16th c.,
to a collection of maps; probably
of A. supporting the heavens had
pages of such works.

AS, a mass of ntain-land in the western North Afr Herodotus mentions a in of this name situated on the Little Syrtis, and twenty days' from the Garamantes, styled by pillars of heaven.' By later writers, of Polybius, the name A. was always chain of mountains in North-west extending from the island of Cerne (now Ger) north-west through Mauritania, and (now Fez and Marocco), and including ts dispersed through the region of divided into the Little Atlas and the former denominating a secondary country of Sous, and the other, the ains of Marocco. The A. is not properly -chain, but rather a very irregular mass of land formed of many chains various directions, meeting in mountain- connected by yokes, or short chains of height, and diversified still further by rv mountains and groups of mountains. its greatest height (13,000 feet) in only part where it rises above the and obtains the name of Jebel-el-Thelj, Mountains. Its highest peaks are Miltsin—south-east of the city of Marocco—Bibawan, main. The most southern chain diverging the central mass bears the name *Jebel-* heights approach the sea, and form ories jutting out into the Atlantic. ce, the A. gradually decreases in height east. In Algeria, the elevation is only in Tunis, 4476 feet; and in Tripoli, 3200 whole mountain-system is intersected by of the Muluia river, which flows through h-east part of Marocco, and falls into the an. The slopes on the north, west, and overed with vast forests of pine, oak, poplar, wild olive, &c. The valleys are and capable of cultivation with great A. seems to be chiefly calcareous in its The mineral wealth remains, however, ly unexplored, though copper, iron, lead, , &c., are stated to exist in abundance.

HERE (Gr. *atmos*, vapour, *sphaira*, ne name applied to the gaseous envelope ounds the earth. The existence of an A. matter of vital importance. We owe sence the possibility of animal and veget- , the modifying and retaining of solar transmission of sound, the gradual shading nto night, the disintegration of rocks, and nce of weather phenomena. In conse- action of gravity, the A. assumes the spheroidal stratum concentric with the rd s heavily on its surface. It exhibits, all t d bodies, the usual charac- s pressure, but its internal condition differs from that of a liquid inasmuch as its particles repel each other, and can only be held in proximity by external force. From this circumstance, it follows that the volume of any portion of air varies much more under the influence of external pressure than that of an equal volume of water; hence, the stratum of air nearest the earth is denser than strata in the upper regions, where, from their being subjected to the weight of a smaller mass of superincumbent air, the repulsive force of the particles has freer play.

That air possesses *weight*, is illustrated by the following simple experiment. If a hollow glass globe of 5 or 6 inches in diameter be weighed first, when filled with air, and then, after the air has been extracted from it by means of the air-pump, it will, when thus exhausted, weigh sensibly less than it did before, and the difference of the two results will represent the weight of the quantity of air which has been withdrawn. It has been determined by Biot and Arago that 100 cubic inches of dry air, when the barometer is at 30 inches, and the thermometer at 60° Fahrenheit, weigh 31·074 grains. The law of Archimedes (see ARCHIMEDES, PRINCIPLE OF), that a body immersed in a fluid loses a part of its weight equal to the weight of the volume of fluid displaced by it, finds its application in the A. as well as in water. If a glass globe filled with air and closed be suspended at the extremity of the beam of a delicate balance, and be kept in equilibrium by a brass weight at the other extremity, and if the whole be then placed under the receiver of an air-pump, and the air extracted, the equilibrium previously existing in air will be disturbed, and the larger body will become the heavier. The reason of this is, that when first weighed, they each lose as much of their own weight as that of the respective volumes of air displaced by them, and are therefore made buoyant, though in different degrees, the ball with the larger volume having the greater buoyancy. In a vacuum, they are deprived of this buoyancy, and the larger body, suffering the greater loss, becomes sensibly heavier than the other. In like manner, a balloon filled with heated air or hydrogen gas is lighter than the volume of air displaced by it. It is therefore forced upwards till it reaches a stratum of such density that the weight of the volume of air there displaced by it equals the weight of the balloon itself. In this stratum it will remain poised, or move horizontally with the currents to which it may be exposed.

In endeavouring to determine the *form* of the atmospheric envelope, it is necessary to bear in mind that, according to the law of fluid-pressure, in order to produce a state of equilibrium at the level of the sea, the pressure of the A. must be equal at that level over the whole of the earth's surface. Gravity acts with less force on the air at the equator than on that at the poles, in consequence of the spheroidal form of the earth. It has there, in addition, to contend with the centrifugal force, which entirely fails at the poles, and which has a tendency to lighten the air by acting contrary to that of gravity. Hence we infer, that in order to produce the same pressure at the level of the sea, the atmospheric height at the equator must be greater than that at the poles, and that the A. must therefore possess the form of an oblate spheroid, whose oblateness is considerably greater than that of the earth itself. The greater heat at the tropical regions must also have the effect of increasing the oblateness.

The *height* of the A. has not yet been determined. That it must have a certain limit, is evident from the consideration that there must be a point at which gravity on the one hand, and centrifugal

force and the repulsive action of the particles on the other, are poised, and beyond which the latter forces on balancing the former force, the aërial particles would be borne away from the earth. As, however, the law of the diminution of temperature, which materially affects the repulsive action, is unknown for the upper regions of the air, it is impossible to calculate the height of the atmosphere from the relations of these forces. From the observation of luminous meteors, it is inferred that it is at least 100 miles high, and that, in an extremely attenuated form, it may even reach 200 miles.

The *pressure* of the A. is one of its most important properties. Its effect is exhibited in the action of the ordinary water-pump. The piston is fitted air-tight in its cylinder; and on being drawn up, creates a vacuum. The water within the pump being thus freed from pressure, while that outside of it is exposed to the pressure of a column of air reaching to the surface of the A., is at once forced up by reason of the weight of air which it must rise to balance. The ascent of the water takes place till the piston has reached the height of nearly 34 feet, from which we conclude that a column of air is equal in weight to a column of water of the same horizontal section, and of the height of nearly 34 feet. As mercury is 13·6 times heavier than water, a mercurial column freed from atmospheric pressure at the one extremity, and subjected to it at the other, is 13·6 times less in height than the column of water, or about 30 inches. From the more convenient size of this column, mercury has been adopted as the standard for atmospheric pressure, and is employed in our ordinary barometers (q. v.). A mercurial column of 30 inches in height, and 1 square inch in section, weighs 15 lbs. (more accurately, 14·73), which gives us the equivalent weight of a column of atmospheric air of the same section. The word *A.* is often employed to express this weight or pressure on a square inch of surface, so that when we speak, in Mechanics, of the pressure of steam on a boiler as amounting to three atmospheres, we mean a pressure of 45 lbs. on the square inch. The pressure on a square inch being thus ascertained, we have merely to multiply it by the number of square inches on the earth's surface to obtain the total weight of the A. It amounts to 11·67085 trillions of lbs., or about $\frac{1}{1\,300\,000}$ of the earth's mass. It must be observed that the height of the barometric column is not a constant quantity, as it varies with the latitude, the season of the year, and the hour of the day. At London, its mean height is 29·88 inches; at Paris, 29·92 inches. The pressure of the A. in the northern hemisphere increases as we recede from the equator, reaching a maximum at 30° N. lat., and decreasing from 30° to 65°, where it again begins to rise. The greater height at 30° is said to be due to the accumulation of air at that latitude by the action of the trade-winds. As the heat of the earth's surface increases the rarity of the air above it, and causes the air at the top of the heated column to overflow, we would expect that, during the year, the barometer would stand at a minimum in summer, and a maximum in winter. In reality, however, although the barometer is highest in mid-winter, there is another maximum in mid-summer, making thus two minima – one in spring, the other in autumn. This arises from the part which watery vapour plays in the pressure of the atmosphere. The heat of mid-summer introduces into the air a large quantity of moisture, in the form of elastic vapour, which, adding its pressure to that of the dry air, raises what would otherwise be the minimum barometric column to a higher point than that at which it stands in spring and autumn. Similar causes affect the pressure of the A. during the 24 hours of the day. There are two maxima—one at 10 A.M., the other between 10 and 11 P.M.; and two minima—at 4 A.M. and 4 P.M. Very slight variations indicate the existence of atmospheric tidal waves; but the subject is still involved in some obscurity. The pressure of the A. exercises a most important influence on the organism of the human frame. A man of ordinary stature is exposed to a pressure of about 14 tons; but as the air permeates the whole body, and presses equally in all directions, no inconvenience is found to result from it. From experiments instituted by the brothers Weber in Germany, it has been ascertained that the heads of the thigh and arm bones are kept in their sockets by the pressure of the A.; and in balloon ascents the aëronaut often suffers from bleeding at the nose, lips, and even eyes—a fact that would seem to indicate that the strength of the blood-vessels has been adjusted with reference to atmospheric pressure.

Chemical Composition of the A.—Recent chemical researches give the following as the mean composition of 100 volumes and of 100 grains of dry air:

	Volumes.	Grains.
Nitrogen, ...	79·02	76·84
Oxygen, ...	20·94	23·10
Carbonic acid, . .	0·04	0·06
	100·00	100·00

Besides the substances just named, other gaseous matters occur, but in quantities so small as not sensibly to increase the bulk of the A., such as ammonia and ammoniacal salts, carburetted and sulphuretted hydrogen, carbonic oxide, sulphurous and sulphuric acid, nitric acid, and perhaps iodine, the quantity and even the presence of which are affected by local and meteorological causes. Roughly speaking, then, dry air may be said to consist of 4 volumes of nitrogen and 1 of oxygen, with a slight admixture of carbonic acid, and a mere trace of several other substances. As, however, the air of the A. is never found dry, we must add to the constituents already named watery vapour, the amount of which is constantly changing, according to locality, weather, wind, and temperature. It is stated that of 1000 grains of atmospheric air, the proportion due to aqueous vapour varies from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 16 grains. By far the most active chemical constituent of the A. is oxygen, to the agency of which are owing the existence of animal life, the maintenance of combustion, the rusting of metals, and the occurrence of several other chemical phenomena too numerous to be detailed. A small portion of this oxygen occurs in the form of ozone (q. v.), a modification which, according to recent chemical discoveries, plays an important part in the chemistry of the A. The nitrogen which forms the bulk of the A. possesses few chemical properties of importance, but performs the important part of diluting the oxygen, which, if it occurred alone, would act with too great intensity. The presence of carbonic acid in the air is shewn by the production of the white carbonate of lime in lime-water freely exposed to its influence. Carbonic acid is produced in all processes where carbonaceous matter unites itself with the oxygen of the air, such as in animal respiration, in combustion, in fermentation, in putrefaction, and similar processes. The green leaves of plants, on the other hand, possess, in presence of sunshine, the power of decomposing carbonic acid into its elements, absorbing the carbon for their own tissues, and restoring the oxygen to the A. in its original purity. Between the processes above mentioned, on the one hand, and the action of plants on the other, the quantity of carbonic acid in the air is kept nearly constant. From the table

s that 10,000 volumes of atmospheric air
s of carbonic acid. If it occurred in
es proportion, being poisonous, it would
ous to animal life; and if it occurred
ll. less proportion, the vegetable world
ck its requisite nourishment. The other
s, of which a trace is always or only some-
nd in atmospheric air, are difficult to detect
lf. but are generally found dissolved in
e especially in that which has fallen
r a long drought. Of these, by far
p nt and widely diffused are ammonia
onia salts, which are of essential import-
the vegetable economy, because, dissolved
in, they furnish plants with the nitrogen
by them for the production of their flowers
. Nitric acid is detected in the air after
forms, sulphuretted hydrogen in the tainted
vers and such like places, and sulphurous
luric acid only in the neighbourhood of
or smelting works. A considerable quantity
ic oxide and carburetted hydrogen escapes
ed from our furnaces; and although the
is in addition given off to the air in marshy
minous districts, the two occur in almost
able quantity in the atmosphere.
ition to its gaseous constituents, the A.
solid substances in a state of exceedingly
n, the presence of which is revealed
eam. Many of these minute particles,
eds or germs of plants and animals, must
important influence on the organic sub-
n which they may finally settle, inducing
of them the conditions of disease or
ion.
the composite nature of the A. was first
d, it was supposed to be a chemical
ion of nitrogen and oxygen, but further
have rendered this opinion highly im-
When any two bodies unite with each
emically, the substance which results
ir combination invariably possesses pro-
which the original constituents did not
Now the atmospheric union of oxygen and
is distinguished by no properties which may
tributed individually to these gases. We
n, in this respect, no indication that the
ric combination of oxygen and nitrogen is
l one. Again, when any composite gas is
in water, the proportion of the ingredients
in it is exactly the same as that in which
in the compound itself; but this is not
ch air dissolved in water, which is found
er in oxygen than atmospheric air. Now,
n dissolves more readily in water than
it is manifest that this larger proportion of
rises from both gases acting independently
ther in respect to the water, a condition
be impossible if they were in chemical
these and other corroborative facts,
dered to be simply a mechanical com-
of the gases contained in it. This, however,
prevent the A. from having a uniform com-
as might at first sight be supposed; for
es are mixed with each other, they inter-
thoroughly throughout the whole space
by them. Local causes may temporarily
e relative proportion of the atmospheric
ts, but the changes are so minute as to
st delicate analysis to detect them.

ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY. Franklin
ed to establish the identity of the light-
he heavens with the electric spark. By his
ite-experiment, he ascertained that the
cloud assumes an electrical condition
similar to that of the conductor of an electrical machine, and that the same mechanical and luminous effects are common, though in a different degree, to both. The attention that was first directed by this discovery to the A. E., as displayed in the thunder-cloud, has since then been extended to the electrical condition of the air in all the different states of the weather. It is now found that the air is sensibly electrical not only when the sky is overcast with thunder-clouds, but when the weather is clear, or when no thunder-clouds are present. Observations on A. E. are made by delicate electrometers connected with insulated rods at the top of the building, or other collecting apparatus. The following are some of the results got by continental observers: When the sky is clear and free from clouds, the A. E. is always positive, and an electroscope exposed to the action of the air is charged with positive electricity. On the other hand, the electricity of the ground is found to be negative. This was shewn in a very ingenious way by Volta, who, by catching the fine spray of a fountain on the plate of a straw electroscope, found the straws to diverge with the negative electricity communicated to them by the water, which was necessarily of the same character as that of the ground. It is from this fact that electroscopes, or the collecting apparatus connected with them, must not be overtopped by the neighbouring trees or buildings, the negative electricity of which materially affects the indications given, and it is due to the same fact that no A. E. is discovered in the middle of a wood, or in a room, however high the ceiling. Under a clear sky, the potential of the A. E. is found to increase as we ascend, the lower aerial strata being less electrical than the higher. Becquerel proved this by a simple experiment on the plateau of Mount St Bernard. On a piece of oiled silk he placed a silk thread, covered with tinsel, one end of which, terminated by a ring, was connected with the rod of a straw electroscope, and the other end was tied to an arrow armed with a metal point. When the arrow was shot horizontally, the straws shewed no divergence; but when the arrow was shot upwards, they opened as it ascended, and diverged most when the arrow, in ascending, disengaged the ring from the rod of the electroscope. The same fact is shewn in the following way: When a very delicate electroscope is adjusted for any particular position, it will, when elevated a few feet above that position, give indication of positive electricity, and when placed a few feet below, it will be charged negatively. In clear weather, likewise, the A. E. is found to be subject to certain daily periodical variations, and appears to have two maxima and two minima in the course of twenty-four hours. The first maximum takes place a short time after sunrise, and the second shortly after sunset; the first minimum shortly before sunrise, and the second in the afternoon, when the heat of the day is greatest. In cloudy weather, the electroscope is affected sometimes positively, sometimes negatively, and is generally less influenced than in clear weather. The electricity of rain, snow, hail, &c., is sometimes positive, sometimes negative. In Stuttgart, for instance, it was found in the course of a year that the rain was 71 times positive to 69 times negative, and the snow 24 times positive to 6 times negative.

Sir William Thomson, in our own country, has made various observations on atmospheric electricity. His delicate electrometers give him not only great facility of observation, but their delicacy far transcends that of any instrument hitherto employed in such observations. Instruments such as his electrometers, that are sensitive to the electromotive force of a single Daniell's cell with any condensing contrivance, are a wonderful advance in observing power. Sir William's collecting appar-

atus is an insulated can of water placed inside a window, with a nozzle extending four feet and a half beyond the wall, the window being only open so far as to admit of the nozzle-tube passing without touching. The can, when the stop-cock is opened, assumes the potential of the air outside at the point where the jet breaks up into drops. In the portable electrometer for outside observations, he uses as the collector a burning match at the top of a long rod attached to the instrument. The collecting apparatus is, of course, insulated and connected with the electrometer. He estimates the amount of atmospheric electricity per foot or per inch. He calculates the difference of potential at the perpendicular distance, say, of a foot from any portion of the earth's surface, whether the level ground or an upright wall. He finds, as mentioned above, that the earth is always negative in clear weather, and the air positive, and that the difference of potential per foot is very different at different times. Thus, in the Isle of Arran, he found this to vary in ordinary fine weather from 22 to 44 Daniell's cells; with an east or north-east wind, the difference of potentials was from 6 to 10 times that per foot. He also finds sudden and unaccountable variations of potential within even comparatively few minutes, and he can only suggest that there may be cloudless yet cloud-like masses of clear air floating in the atmosphere, which are charged with electricity, and which, in their passage over or near the electrometer, give rise to these marked variations.

The cause of A. E. has given rise to much discussion. The electricity developed by evaporation and vegetation has been thought by some to account for the positive electricity of the air; but this view has been combated, and as yet no theory has been proposed which satisfactorily accounts for it. With the instrument that Sir William Thomson has placed in the hands of observers, and with a cordon of observers all over the world, data may be got for a satisfactory theory, but as yet our knowledge of the subject is too fragmentary to reach anything like a satisfactory account of it. For the electricity of the thunder-cloud, see LIGHTNING.

ATMOSPHE'RIC RAI'LWAY, a railway on which the locomotive-power is supplied by the pressure of the atmosphere more or less directly on the carriages themselves. The idea of producing railway locomotion in this manner has been successively prosecuted by Lewis, Medhurst, Vallance, and Pinkus; and latterly with a greater prospect of success by Clegg, in connection with Samuda. Vallance patented a plan which proposed the conveyance of passengers along a railway laid within an air-tight tunnel exhausted in front of a carriage working as a piston, the pressure of the atmosphere acting on the carriage from behind. This plan was made public in 1825, and ultimately brought into experimental operation at Brighton, proving the possibility of such a mode of transit. The general opinion as to its merits was, that though it might succeed in the transmission of goods, or, with a smaller tube than the tunnel, might suit well the conveyance of the mails, it could not be expected to enjoy the favour of the travelling public, on account of its dark close tunnel. Thus the subject of atmospheric railways had ceased to attract attention, when the curiosity of the public was again called to it, by the proposal of another plan of propulsion, by Henry Pinkus, an American gentleman, resident in England, who took out a patent for it about the year 1835, under the name of the Pneumatic Railway. The apparatus for this was to consist of a cast-iron tube of about forty inches diameter, having a slit of about two inches wide on its upper side, the slit (which was covered by a flexible flap or valve) furnishing an opening through which the mechanism of a piston working within the tube might be connected with that of the leading carriage without.

Under improved arrangements of the details, Messrs Clegg and Samuda made an experiment of this plan in 1840, on a part of the line of the West London Railway; and so favourable was the issue, that the directors of the Dublin and Kingstown Railway adopted the atmospheric pressure system for a projected extension of their line from Kingstown to Dalkey. Accordingly, parliamentary sanction was obtained for the line, and the first A. R. was in full operation at the beginning of the year 1844. In that year the London and Croydon Railway Company began to lay down a line of A. R. alongside of their locomotive line from London to Croydon. The South Devon Railway Company also adopted the atmospheric mode of working on a part of their railway. Both of these lines, however, was shortly afterwards abandoned as unsatisfactory.

The result of these trials has clearly shown that the A. R. system cannot stand in competition with that of the locomotive engine, unless, perhaps, in some very peculiar situation. The expense and care necessary to keep the tube with its valve in good working-order, led to the removal of the atmospheric mechanism from the various railways on which it was established; so that the history of Atmospheric Railways may be ranked under the chapter of failures. They survive only in the form of pneumatic despatch tubes, which are used largely in London (in connection principally with the telegraph service), for the conveyance of parcels of messages for short distances.

A'TOM (Gr. *atomos*, an indivisible particle; from *a*, not, and *temnō*, I cut). In ancient philosophy, two theories of the nature of matter were recognised, and these have continued to form subjects of argument among speculative men since the year 510 B.C. to the present time. The one theory is, that matter is infinitely divisible. Thus, a needle may be divided into two, and each of the parts may in its turn be broken or cut into two, and each of the latter again and again be subdivided, till the parts become so small that it may be impossible to see them by the naked eye; but these parts are regarded as capable of still further division, without limit or stoppage, provided more perfect or delicate means could be employed to act upon them. The second theory regarding the constitution of matter is, that in the repeated division and subdivision of a solid, liquid, or gas, a point will be at length reached when it will no longer be possible, by any considerable means, to break a molecule in two, the molecule being a real unity, not composed of separable parts—in other words, an *atom*. The latter theory recognises the finite divisibility of matter, and considers that all matter is more or less compactly built up of myriads of atoms aggregated together, and having spaces or pores between the several atoms or particles. If it were possible to subject such matter to the scrutiny of a sufficiently powerful magnifying glass, or microscope, and thus exhibit or behold the atoms so separated by spaces, then an appearance would be presented similar to that which the painter chooses to depict on the canvas when he is representing a snow-storm, and where every little flake of snow is separated from its neighbour one by a space in which there are none; or that which would be observed if, during a hailstorm, some great power were to cry, 'Halt!' and that instant every minute hailstone was arrested in the spot it had reached.

This view of the physical nature of matter is that which is known as the *atomic* or *corpuscular* theory, and has in modern times received some support

mbodied in the chemical atomic theory
.. Dalton. Granting, however, that the
nrove that his simple and compound
; up of chemical atoms, the
.. be solved as to the possible
.. and chemical atoms. What the
ds as an A. in his science, may not be
and indivisible A. in a physical point of
hemical A., though incapable of division
A., may still be composed or built up
l atoms, and may be capable of being
.. such. Indeed, whilst the atomic
.., when first announced, was eagerly
.. the best possible evidence for the
.. of both chemical and physical atoms, the
.. of recent researches and discussions in
has been to shew that the chemical A. is
rom the physical, and does not necessitate
.. of the latter. See ATOMIC THEORY.
.. the ordinary acceptation of the term,
.. of matter having a definite weight,
.. form, possibly alike for the atoms of
.. d, but differing in those of different
.. form of an A. is supposed by some
science to be the same as that which the
ls of a substance assume when it is split in
ction of the planes of the cleavage of its
(see CRYSTALLOGRAPHY), but a more general
been, that all atoms are spherical, and
.. various crystalline forms are produced by
r in which the atoms are grouped together.
.. to the size of atoms, Sir William Thomson
.. by three entirely different trains of argu-
observed facts, that the diameter of
be greater than ..., nor less
... of an inch. Further consider-
egarding atoms will be found under the
ATTER (q.v.); also in the article VORTEX

MIC THE'ORY. Analysis shews that
d bodies contain certain elements (see
.) in certain proportions. These propor-
.. been minutely and carefully examined by
emists since the time when the balance was
plied to chemical investigation, and it has
ved that the respective quantities of each of
bining elements are not dependent entirely
ternal conditions, but are regulated by cer-
.. These laws were partially observed
essed by earlier chemists and physicists,
as reserved for Dalton (q.v.) to systematise
.. oherent labours of his predecessors,
.., in positive language, the four laws
.. the union of various kinds of
.. which are still acknowledged by
.. the LAWS OF COMBINING PROPORTION,
.. Atomic Theory. These laws regulate the
tion of unlike substances by *weight*, and
sume; and they are based upon the preli-
knowledged fact, capable of experimental
tion, that the same compound substance is
.. of the same ingredients or elements.
.. of combination by weight compre-
er the A. T. is THE LAW OF CONSTANT
.., which teaches that the elements or
.. which form a chemical compound are
l in it in the same proportion by
.. , water, which consists of oxygen and
.., does not contain one or both of these
.. in indefinite amount, but it is invariably
p of 8 parts by weight of oxygen to 1
.. t of hydrogen. It makes no matter
total amount of other element be
.. by grains, ounces, pounds, or tons, it
.. ys be found that the proportion of 8
oxygen to 1 part of hydrogen is kept up.
Neither does the source of the water make any difference, for pure water obtained from rain, snow, or hail, the river or the sea, the sap of plants or the juices of animals, invariably contains the same elements in the same proportions. Again, common salt (chloride of sodium), whether it be obtained from sea-water, salt-springs, rock-salt, or even the blood of animals, always consists of chlorine and sodium in the exact and never varying proportion of 35½ parts of chlorine to 23 parts of sodium. Whilst the law of constant proportion teaches us that the same compound is always built up of the same ingredients in the same proportion, it does not necessarily follow that the same elements or components in the same proportions will invariably form the same compound body. It is far otherwise; and many examples can be obtained, especially from organic chemistry, where the same components in the same proportions produce very different substances. Thus, starch and cotton (lignine)—very dissimilar substances—consist of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen in the very same proportions; and gum-arabic and cane-sugar are similarly circumstanced. See ISOMERIC BODIES.

The *second law* is the LAW OF RECIPROCAL PROPORTION, which tells us that the proportions in which two substances unite with a third have a simple arithmetical relation to that proportion in which they unite with each other. Thus oxygen and hydrogen unite in the proportion of 8 to 1 to form water. Carbon and hydrogen are present in olefiant gas in the proportion of 6 to 1, and oxygen and carbon unite in the proportion of 8 to 6 to form carbonic oxide. Again we have a compound of oxygen and iron containing these elements in the proportion of 8 to 28; we have also a compound of sulphur and iron in the proportion of 16 to 28; and sulphur and oxygen unite together to form sulphurous acid gas, which contains equal weights of the two elements—the proportion of 1 to 1 having a simple arithmetical relation to the proportion 8 to 16.

Numbers representing the proportions in which the elements combine (such as 1 for hydrogen, 8 for oxygen, 6 for carbon, 16 for sulphur, 28 for iron, &c.), are called their 'combining proportions,' or *Atomic Weights* (q.v.). It is obvious that analysis alone cannot enable us to fix definitely such numbers. There is nothing in the *composition* of their compounds to lead us to adopt the proportional numbers given above for hydrogen, oxygen, carbon, sulphur, and iron, rather than simple multiples or submultiples of them. In fact, the numbers adopted by Berzelius, and now reintroduced, are in the proportion—hydrogen 1, oxygen 16, carbon 12, sulphur 32, iron 56. The reasons for preferring certain particular numbers to any multiples or submultiple of them will be found in the article CHEMISTRY in SUPP.

The *third law* is THE LAW OF MULTIPLE PROPORTION, which is, that when one substance combines with another in several proportions, the higher proportions are multiples of the first or lowest. Thus, hydrogen unites with oxygen in two proportions; as 1 of hydrogen to 8 of oxygen, when ordinary pure water is the result of union; and as 1 of hydrogen to 16 of oxygen, when peroxide of hydrogen, a powerful bleaching agent, is produced—the difference in the respective amounts of the oxygen—8 and 16—being, that the latter is a multiple of the former by 2. Again, carbon unites with oxygen in two proportions: as 6 of carbon to 8 of oxygen, when the inflammable gas, carbonic oxide, is formed; and as 6 of carbon to 16 of oxygen, when the non-inflammable gas, carbonic acid, is the result. The variation in this instance is, that the oxygen is present in the one

case as 8, and in the other as a multiple of that number by 2, viz. 16. One of the best illustrations of this law occurs in the case of the union of nitrogen and oxygen: 14 parts of nitrogen can unite with 8 of oxygen, and thus form laughing-gas; but the same amount of nitrogen can combine with 16, 24, 32, or 40 of oxygen—in the latter case constituting anhydrous nitric acid—all of the higher numbers being multiples of the first or lowest, viz. 8 by 2, 3, 4 and 5.

The *fourth law* is THE LAW OF COMPOUND PROPORTION, which teaches that the combining proportion of a compound substance is the sum of the combining proportions of its components. Thus, the compound body, carbonic acid, which consists of 6 of carbon united with 16 of oxygen, has the combining proportion 22, which is the sum of the combining proportions of the carbon and oxygen composing it, viz. $6 + 16 = 22$. Similarly, the compound substance lime contains 20 of the metal calcium combined with 8 of oxygen, and has the combining proportion of $20 + 8$ or 28. When carbonic acid and lime are linked together, as in marble, which is the carbonate of lime, then they are united in the proportion of 22 parts of carbonic acid and 28 of lime. Not only is 22 the proportion in which carbonic acid will combine with lime, but it is the proportion in which it will form compounds with every other substance of similar chemical constitution.

The preceding laws regulating the union of substances by weight have been obtained by comparing together the results of numerous experiments, and every careful analysis serves to confirm their accuracy. But Dalton's theory was not limited to the statement of these laws; it was also an attempt to explain them. It assumes that each elementary substance consists of extremely small indivisible particles or atoms; that the atoms of any one element are all exactly alike, but differ from the atoms of every other element. Among other points of difference, they differ in weight, and although the absolute weight of an atom is unknown, the weights of two atoms, one of one element, the other of another element, are in the proportion of the combining weights of the elements they belong to. Thus the combining weight of sulphur is twice that of oxygen: we do not know the absolute weight of an atom of either, but the A. T. assumes that each atom of sulphur is twice as heavy as an atom of oxygen. Further, Dalton's theory assumes that the ultimate particles of compound bodies contain a comparatively small number of atoms of the component elements. It is easy to see how this theory explains the laws enunciated above. We must, however, remember that while the theory satisfactorily explains the laws, the laws do not prove the theory. It is quite conceivable that such laws might exist, although matter did not consist of atoms. The A. T., however, rests not only on a chemical, but also upon a physical foundation. According to the modern molecular theory, matter consists of small particles, each of which is in motion, and this motion is the more rapid the hotter the substance is. These small particles or 'molecules' cannot be broken up without changing the character and properties of the substance. They are not, however, *atoms*. In the case of compounds, as the molecules of any *one* substance are all similar to one another, each molecule must contain all the components; and in many elementary substances it can be proved, assuming the truth of the molecular theory, that each molecule consists of several similar atoms. A molecule, then, is either a single atom, as in *some* elementary substances, or a group of atoms which remain together during those movements which depend on the temperature of the substance. Now, the velocity of these motions increases as the temperature is raised; when, therefore, the temperature is raised so high, and the velocity of the molecules becomes so great that the collision of the molecules with one another is sufficiently violent to break them up and separate their constituent atoms, the substance is decomposed, the atoms rearranging themselves into new groups (or molecules) capable of remaining unbroken under the new conditions. This explains the decomposition of compounds by the action of heat.

When the temperature is not so high, and the violence of collision insufficient to break up the molecules, these are merely shaken, thrown into a state of vibration, and thus the hold of the atoms upon each other is loosened. Now, if two substances are mixed together, it may happen that some atoms in the one set of molecules are so attracted by some atoms in the other set, that, when a molecule of the one set meets one of the other set in a vibrating or loosened condition, an exchange of atoms may take place between them, or each may loose a part of its atoms, these going to form a new molecule. This gives an explanation of the action of one substance upon another, and further shews why, in general, a certain temperature is required in order that the action may take place.

Gay Lussac first pointed out that a relation exists between the density of a gas and its atomic weight. Avogadro greatly simplified the statement of these relations by announcing the law of molecular volumes of gases, a law which Professor Clerk Maxwell has since proved to be a necessary consequence of the molecular theory of gases. This law is, that a given volume of gas at a given temperature and pressure contains the same number of molecules whatever be the nature of the gas.

From this law, to which we may give the name of 'Avogadro's law,' and from Boyle's law, and the law (often called Charles's law) that the volume of a gas is directly proportional to the absolute temperature—that is, to its temperature reckoned from a point 273° centigrade below the freezing-point of water—it follows that the volume occupied by a given mass of a gas is a function of the pressure, the temperature, and the molecular weight of the gas; understanding by the 'molecular weight' of a substance a number M, such that M : 2 :: the absolute weight of a molecule of the substance : the absolute weight of a molecule of hydrogen. The number 2 appears in this proportion because we assume the *atom* of hydrogen as our unit, both of atomic and of molecular weight, and it can be proved (see CHEMISTRY in SUPP.) that the molecule of hydrogen gas consists of two atoms. If, then, P be the pressure in millimetres of mercury at 0° C; t, the temperature of the gas, as indicated by a centigrade thermometer; M, the molecular weight of the substance; and V, the volume (in cubic centimetres) occupied by a gramme of the gas, $V = \frac{1}{P} \times \frac{t + 273}{273} \times \frac{22400}{M}$. In the gaseous state, the average distance between the molecules, although extremely small, is great compared with the size of the molecules, so that the volume of the gas depends almost exclusively upon the distance between the molecules: it is not so in the case of solids and liquids, in which the molecules are so closely packed as to be almost always in contact. The volume occupied by solids and liquids depends, therefore, far more upon the *atoms* of which the substance is made up, than upon its *molecular* structure. For further recent modifications of the atomic theory, see CHEMISTRY, in SUPP., Vol. X.

VOLUMES. See ATOMIC THEORY
Y, in SUPP.

IGHTS are the proportions by
the various elementary substances
It is necessary that one element be
ing-point of the series, and an
d to it, and thereafter all the
have their sums awarded to
to the proportional amounts in
combine with each other. The *second*
ead under the ATOMIC THEORY (q. v.),
manner in which this can be done, and
numbers are arbitrary. In all systems
is in modern use, the atomic weight
ken as unity, and the atomic weights
ents are then fixed, so as to give on
lest and most consistent formulæ
ds.

wo systems of atomic weights at present
The 'old' system, which, after a good deal
, was generally adopted about 1845; and
w system, which is, in many respects, a
the system of Berzelius, and which may
have come into general use by scientific
at 1860.

I table gives the names of the
hemical symbols, and their atomic
to these two systems. The
r the reasons for the change of
to the article CHEMISTRY in the

SUBSTANCES, WITH THEIR SYMBOLS AND ATOMIC WEIGHTS.

Name of Element.	Symbol.	Atomic Weights. Old.	New.
[illegible]	Al	13·7	27·4
(Stibium),	Sb	122 0	122 0
	As	75 0	75 0
	Ba	68 5	137 0
	Bl	208·0	208 0
	B	11·0	11 0
	Br	80 0	80 0
	Cd	56·0	112 0
	Cs	133 0	133·0
	Ca	20 0	40·0
	C	6·0	12·0
	Ce	46 0	92·0
	Cl	35·5	35·5
	Cr	26 0	52 0
	Co	29·5	59 0
	Cu	31·7	63 4
	Di	47·5	95 0
	Er	56 3	112 6
	F	19·0	19·0
	G	4·7	9·4
um),	Au	196 0	196·0
	H	1 0	1·0
	In	37·8	113 9
	I	127 0	127 0
	Ir	99 0	198 0
	Fe	28 0	56 0
	La	46 0	92·0
bum),	Pb	103·5	207·0
	Li	7 0	7 0
	Mg	12 0	24·0
	Mn	27 5	55·0
(hydrargyrum),	Hg	100·0	200·0
um,	Mo	48 0	96 0
	Ni	29 5	59 0
	Nb	94 0	94 0
	N	14 0	14 0
	Os	100 0	200 0
	O	8 0	16·0
	Pd	53 0	106 0
	P	31 0	31 0
	Pt	99 0	198·0
(Kalium),	K	39 0	39·0
	Rh	52 0	104 0
	Rb	85 4	85 4
	Ru	52 0	104 0
	Se	39 5	79 0
	Si	14·0	28 0
[illegible]	Ag	108 0	108·0
	Na	23 0	23·0
	Sr	43·8	87·6
	S	16 0	32·0
	Ta	182·0	182·0
	Te	64 0	128 0
	Tl	204·0	204·0
	Th	57·8	115·6
Tin (Stannum),	Sn	59·0	118·0
	Ti	25 0	50·0
Tungsten (Wolfram),	W	92 0	184·0
	U	60 0	120·0
	V	51·3	51·3
	Y	30 8	61·6
Zinc,	Zn	32·5	65·0
	Zr	44 8	89·6

ATO'NEMENT. Sin violates the ground of union which the personal creature has, by nature, with the holy God. The act of sin is one of separation; the act begets the state of sin, the state confirms and repeats the act. The doctrine of the A. treats of the mediation necessary for restoring the union between God and man, which has been lost by sin. The A., therefore, must ever be the fundamental doctrine in every religion of sinful creatures. In the Christian religion, it manifestly occupies this central position; for the Christian doctrine of the A. is but the explanation of its great historic fact—the embodiment in one person of the Divine and human natures in perfect agreement. In the person of Christ, God and man are atoned: He is their Atonement.

So fundamental is the doctrine of the atonement in the Christian religion, that it does not, like many other doctrines, form a ground of distinction among the different bodies into which the Christian world has been divided. All churches may be said to be equally orthodox on this point. The Church of Rome, the Greek Church, the various Protestant churches—established and dissenting—all agree, taking their standards as a criterion, in resting the sinner's hope of salvation on the mediatorial work or atonement of Jesus Christ. Nevertheless, there have been from the very beginning of speculative Christian theology, and still continue to be, within the bosom of the several churches, various ways of conceiving and explaining the exact nature and mode of operation of this mediatorial work. What follows is a brief sketch of the historical development of these speculations.

Christianity differs from heathenism in the clear perception which it has of the antagonism sin has introduced between God and man. Heathenism but vaguely conceives of this variance, and consequently has but an ill-defined notion of the atonement required, the notion seldom containing more than the idea of a reconciled union of the individual man with nature and the universal life. Even where its mythical divinities assume personality, it is but an ideal personality without any concrete reality of life, and consequently without any real significance for the conscience. In this state, the abject subjection of man to nature prevents his rising into that sphere of conscious freedom which makes sin sinful, and demands an A. with one who is Lord both of nature and man.

In Judaism, man stands above nature, in conscious relation to a personal God, whose written law exhibits the requirements of His relationship with man—requirements which are never met, and which only make him fearfully conscious of the ever-widening breach between him and his God. Thus the law awakened the sense of guilt, and the desire for an A.; a desire it could never satisfy. The never-ceasing demands of these ever-unfulfilled requirements were constantly acknowledged by its whole sacrificial *cultus*, which expressed the hidden ground of Jewish hope, and prophetically pointed to its future manifestation.

But whilst the Holy Scriptures, throughout the

Old Testament, exhibit the making of an A. by vicarious sacrifice (Lev. xvi. 21; xvii. 11); and the idea, both of the suffering and the deliverance of many by the sins and virtues of one, was common to all antiquity, the idea of the suffering and vicarious Messiah, plainly declared in the writings of the prophets (Luke xxiv. 46; Isaiah liii.; Psalms xxii.), and not entirely hidden from the more thoughtful and devout contemporaries of Jesus (Luke ii. 34; John i. 29), was one which was foreign to the Messianic faith of the great body of the people.

In the New Testament, Christ is everywhere exhibited as one sent from God for the salvation of the world (John iii. 16, 17); and as the condition, on the part of man, of his obtaining this salvation, we read of the requirement of repentance, faith, and reformation (Matt. iv. 17; v. 3, 11; vi. 12; Mark xvi. 16; Luke xv. 11), whilst, on the part of God, as conditioning and mediating His forgiveness of sins, we have exhibited the entire life of Christ upon earth conceived of as embracing severally its individual features (Acts v. 31; Rom. iv. 25; viii. 34); but more especially His death as a ransom for our sins (Matt. xx. 28; xxvi. 28), as a vicarious sacrifice (1 Peter i. 19; 2 Cor. v. 21), by which we are redeemed from the bondage of sin (1 Tim. ii. 6; Gal. iii. 13; 2 Peter ii. 1), and obtain forgiveness (Rom. v. 19; 1 Cor. xv. 3; 1 John i. 7), and eternal life and peace with God (John x. 11; Col. i. 20). Christ is therefore the Mediator between God and man (1 Tim. ii. 5), having made peace through the blood of His cross (Col. i. 20); the propitiation for our sins (1 John ii. 2; iv. 10); and our high-priest who offers Himself a sacrifice to reconcile us with God (Heb. ii. 17; v. 1; ix. 28). Moreover, we are also taught that God has in Christ reconciled the world with Himself (Rom. v. 10; Col. i. 22; 2 Cor. v. 19).

In accordance with this full and explicit teaching of Holy Scripture, we find that the sufferings and death of Christ were ever regarded as of primary and essential importance in His work of redemption; but notwithstanding this, we look in vain throughout the early centuries of the Christian Church for anything like a systematic development of the doctrine of the Atonement. The germs of the doctrine existed, but without any logical connection or clearness. 'On this head there has been a twofold mistake—sometimes the existing beginnings of many later elaborated dogmas have been overlooked; or, on the other hand, it has been attempted to point out with literal distinctness church doctrines as if already developed.' The early church fathers dwell with a sort of inspired devotion upon those facts of the gospel which represent Christ as the sacrifice for our sins, as the ransom paid for our redemption, as our deliverer from the power of Satan, as the restorer to mankind of whatever was lost by the fall of Adam; but they seldom *attempt* to shew *how* these blessed results connect themselves with the sufferings and death of Christ; neither do they shew in what manner the A. has objectively been made, nor how it is brought to the experience of its individual subjects.

The narrow limits of this article will not allow us to specify the many ways in which the sufferings and death of Christ were regarded in relation to their A. for sin. During the first four centuries there appeared no certainty of opinion as to whether they were a ransom-price paid to God or to the devil. The latter supposition is the more prevalent, and is shared in by Origen and St Augustine. Gregory of Nyssa explains this opinion by saying, that the devil consented to receive Jesus as a ransom, because he regarded Him as more than an equivalent for all those under his power; but that, notwithstanding his subtilty, he was outwitted, for, owing to the humiliation in which Christ was veiled, he did not fully recognise Him as the Son of God, and consequently was himself deceived. But having consented to receive Him as a ransom for mankind, he was righteously deprived of his dominion over men, whilst he could not retain Jesus when he discovered Him to be the Holy One of God, being horrified and tormented by His holiness.

Athanasius first of all successfully controverted this notion, and maintained that the ransom was paid to God. He argued that as God had threatened to punish transgressors with death, He could but execute His threat. But then it was not becoming the character of God to allow His purpose in the creation of man to be frustrated by an imposition practised upon him by the devil. The only expedient, therefore, which remained for his deliverance from death, was the incarnation and sacrifice of the Logos in his stead, by which the justice and veracity of God would be maintained, man delivered, the law fulfilled, and the power of the devil broken. It has often been stated that Tertullian was the first to use satisfaction with respect to Christ's A. for sin, but this is incorrect, for although he employs the term, he never does so in the sense of a vicarious satisfaction, but only in the sense of making amends for our own sins by confession and repentance.

These elemental and mythical conceptions of the doctrine of the A. remained in a state of altogether undeveloped condition until the subtle genius of the Pi[illegible] Canterbury reduced [illegible] them in logical c[illegible] Anselm, therefore, as [illegible] or, as [illegible] form, of the doctrine of vicarious satisfaction under various modifications, has ever since to be held as the orthodox do[illegible] The following is, in all essential agreement of the doctrine: The in[illegible] had contracted, by the [illegible] the infinitely great God, [illegible] mere creature; only the God-man Christ can render to God the infinite satisfaction God only can satisfy Himself. The human Christ enables Him to incur, the divine nature to pay, this debt. [illegible] bent upon Christ as a man to ren[illegible] ing to the law of God; the ob[illegible] therefore, was not able to render guilt. But although He was un[illegible] in obedience to the law, as the [illegible] under no obligation *to die*. Sec[illegible] nevertheless voluntarily surrender[illegible] precious life to the honour of God from God became His due, consists in the forgiveness of t[illegible] —In this form of the do[illegible] necessity of an active vi[illegible] Anselm nowhere teaches the passive, nowhere says that Christ endured [illegible] men. Nor do we find in his wri[illegible] ment of the subjective side of the [illegible] how the satisfaction rendered to [illegible] A. in the experience of the [illegible]

Subsequent to the time [illegible] the Reformation, there are two [illegible] divide the opinions of this p[illegible] the peculiar manner in wh[illegible] it was — as absolutely necessary, and derivi[illegible] from its objective nature; the [illegible] subjective connection between [illegible] Jesus and the price of red[illegible] ti[illegible] best fitted to effect the [illegible] According to A[illegible]

was greater than the guilt for which He
; and it needed to be greater, for the pay-
the debt due to God gave men no claim to
of God. Thomas Aquinas and his
tained Augustine's opinion of the
f the blood of Christ rendering it
ient; while the Scotists maintained
ficient only because God was pleased
as sufficient. But in the period between
nd the Reformation, little or no progress
de in the development of this doctrine.
come to the period of the Reformation,
objective speculations of the schoolmen are
er the subjective requirements of human
doctrine of the A. is viewed in this
writings of Luther, one will only with
ve at his intellectual apprehension of
in its scientific form; but setting out
consciousness of sin, one will everywhere
w he realised that in Christ all sin is
killed, and buried, and righteousness
conqueror and reigneth for ever.' The
an outline of the Lutheran doctrine, as
the *Concordienformel:* It is alone by
receive the blessings presented to us
l by the Holy Ghost. Faith justifies,
propriates the merit of Christ. There-
teousness which is imputed to the
by the grace of God, is the obedience,
nd the resurrection of Christ, by which
d the claims of the law, and atoned for
Christ is not merely man, but God
person, He was, as Lord of the law,
t to it than He was subject to suf-
eath. For this reason, His twofold
at which He rendered, on the one hand,
ng and death; and, on the other, by His
at of the law on our behalf is
nd God acquits us of our sins, and
st, in view of His complete obedience
and suffered. This obedience em-
e existence of Christ upon earth, and
lete that it fully covers the disobedience of
t it is not reckoned against them for con-
Christ is our righteousness, therefore,
ar as in His entire person the most perfect
xhibited, which He was able to render
neither God alone nor man alone, but
, God and man.
g to Calvin: if one asks how Christ has
with God, and purchased a righteousness
de Him favourable to us, it may be answered
, that He accomplished this by the whole
His obedience. But although the life of
o be regarded as paying the price necessary
nce, the Scriptures ascribe our redemp-
to His death. Calvin attached great
particular mode of His death—any
of eath would not have rendered the
n to God. He, however, says little
ut Christ's fulfilling the law for us,
on His delivering us from its curse. He
refore, exhibit His active obedience sepa-
ssential part of His satisfaction for sin,
obedience. The importance attached
of His life arises from its natural and
action with His suffering and death.
importance attached to His death is
from the view of its subjective neces-
upon the idea of the divine righteousness—
, that without such a death there would have
sufficient ground for the subjective realisa-
deliverance from sin and guilt. Calvin's view
from that of the Lutheran *Concordienformel*
he does not regard the relationship of God to
from the stand-point of punitive and
satisfying righteousness, which always leads to the merely negative notion of a Redeemer from guilt and punishment, but looks upon Christ as the highest Mediator, through whom the nature of God is communicated to man. There was a necessity for Christ's incarnation, not merely because, apart from the suffering of the God-man, the divine righteousness could not be atoned, but also because, without such a divine Mediator, there could be no vital relation between God and man. 'Had man remained free from all taint, he was of too humble a condition to penetrate to God without a Mediator.'

While the reformers established the doctrine of the A. on the theory of Anselm, and extended it so as to make the sufferings of Christ include the Divine curse, and introduced distinctions between Christ's active and passive obedience, Socinus endeavoured to prove the falseness of Anselm's theory. He shares with the Protestants the subjective principle, which the period of the Reformation established, but developed it in a one-sided manner. Socinianism represents man as attaining to oneness with himself and with God by his own moral energy. It rejects that idea of the righteousness of God which makes it impossible for Him to forgive sin without a satisfaction, as imposing finite limitations upon the divine Being; and also objects to the doctrine of satisfaction, on the ground that satisfaction for sin and forgiveness of sin are incompatible with each other; and, moreover, objects that sin and punishment are of so personal a nature as not to allow of their being transferred. It further opposes the doctrine of the active and passive obedience of Christ, on the ground, that the one excluded the other. Another objection maintained the actual impossibility of Christ's rendering the supposed satisfaction for sin.

The doctrine it sought to establish in the place of the one it attempted to overthrow may in brief be stated as follows. Man is reconciled to God by repentance and reformation. Only from an act of man changing his disposition, and not from an act of God changing His relation to man, follows his reconciliation with God. God is in Himself ever the same towards man reconciled from all eternity; man alone has to assume a new relation; as soon as he does this, he is immediately reconciled; by this act of his will, he is at one with God. Only in man's moral state is there any obstacle to his reconciliation. This greatest and holiest accomplishment, the reconcilhation of man with God, is achieved by an act of his will.

In this purely subjective theory, repentance occupies the place of faith in the orthodox doctrine, and faith becomes identical with obedience; for repentance and reformation are regarded as but the two sides of the same act of the will. It follows from this that justification is of works as well as reconciliation. A necessity for the sufferings of Christ is shewn for the following objects—that He might become our example; better fitted to render us help; that we might have a pledge and guarantee of the Divine forgiveness; and as conditioning His resurrection and ascension to glory.

We must now hasten to the form of this doctrine among 'Modern Calvinists,' without attempting further to exhibit the links in the chain of its historic connection. 'Modern Calvinism' represents the A. as that satisfaction for sin which was rendered to God, in His public character as moral governor of the world, by the perfect obedience unto death of our Lord Jesus Christ. The nature of this satisfaction was a moral, not a pecuniary satisfaction. It preserves to the moral government of God its authority, whilst its tendency is to secure the forgiveness of sin. The value of the sufferings of Christ consists in their tendency to uphold the Divine moral government

unimpaired whilst pardon is extended to those who have violated it, rather than in their intrinsic excellence, which, though essential to, did not constitute their value. There was a moral necessity for Christ's sufferings and death—obstacles to the bestowment of pardon had to be removed—the influence of the Holy Spirit had to be secured. The whole contents of Christ's earthly existence, embracing both His active and passive obedience—a distinction which is unsupported by the word of God—must be regarded as contributing to the A. which He made. Of the actual sufferings of Christ immediately attending His death, it would be unpardonable to speak with confidence, so little has been revealed. It may, however, be considered—whether the Saviour's deprivation of His Father's countenance may not have been indirectly caused rather by His awful and afflicting sense of the evil of sin, than otherwise?—As to the 'Extent' of the A., there is a broad distinction to be made between the *sufficiency* of the A., and its *efficiency*. It may be true that Jehovah did not intend to exercise that influence of the Holy Spirit upon all which is necessary to secure the salvation of any one, but as the A. was to become the basis of moral government, it was necessary that it should be one of infinite worth, and so in itself adequate to the salvation of all. The body called Universalists (q.v.) hold both the efficiency and ultimate sufficiency of this great event in history.

The foregoing represents the modified view of the doctrine as advocated by Dr Payne, and as held, in all essential respects, by such men as Pye Smith and Wardlaw, which in its earlier form, and as found in the writings of Owen and Edwards, maintains that the A. was made only for the elect; and that its necessity with respect to them arose out of the eternal justice of God, which required that every individual should receive his due desert; and, consequently, that the sufferings of Christ were the endurance of punishment equivalent in amount of suffering, if not identical in nature—as Owen maintains—with that to which the elect were exposed; and, moreover, that the meritorious obedience of Christ in fulfilling the law, imputes a righteouness to those for whom the A. secures salvation, which gives them a claim to the reward of righteousness.

Our space will not allow us to present to the reader the various forms which this doctrine is made to assume in the philosophic theology of Germany from Kant to the present time. See NEANDER. We must, therefore, confine ourselves to the presentation of those views of the doctrine advocated by our own countrymen in our own time, which may fairly represent the present state of opinion with respect to this fundamental doctrine.

Let us begin with the view of modern Unitarianism, which may very clearly and fairly be presented in the words of one of the most able of its advocates, the Rev. Professor John James Tayler: 'There is one mediator between God and men, the man Christ Jesus.' This can only refer to [illegible] not to exclusive function. For all higher minds do in fact mediate between the lower, and all revelations and the great mediator of the invisible world. This 'man' is a [illegible] that is 'the man Christ Jesus'—not a being from another sphere, an angel or a God—but a brother man, one of our own human family. 'He gave himself a ransom for all' who embrace His offers and will hearken to His voice. He brings from God a general summons to repent, and with it He conveys, through faith, a spiritual power to shake off the bondage of sin, and get on the freedom of a new heart and a new life. He is a deliverer from the power of sin and the fear of death. This is the work of His mediation. This is the redemption of which He paid the price. I [illegible] by met in the inevitable sequence [illegible] only one among many links in [illegible] mentalities by which that de[illegible] It was a proof such as could [illegible] in [illegible] way, of trust in God and immortality, of [illegible] to duty, and of love for mankind. In [illegible] earnestly contemplated it, and [illegible] implied, it awoke a tender response of [illegible] confidence, which softened the obdu[illegible] opened it to serious impressions and influences of a religious spirit.'

Professor Jowett advocates an opinion peculiarly his own, if, indeed, language so confusedly vague and indefinite can be said to embody an opinion. It is this: 'that the only sacrifice, A., or [illegible] with which the Christian has to do, is a spiritual one; not the pouring out of blood on earth, but the living sacrifice "to do" in which the believer has part as to about the meaning of which question in our day than [illegible] —'Heathen and Jew [illegible] what the sacrifice of [illegible] was. They are the dim, [illegible] rude, barous expression of that [illegible] in [illegible] which has received satisfaction in Him [illegible] are afraid of something; they wish to something; they feel themselves [illegible] thing; the fear is done away, the obligation fulfilled in Christ. St [illegible] can no more occupy [illegible] lead a better life; [illegible] world, and at the beginning [illegible] work of Christ is set forth in [illegible] different figures, lest we should rest [illegible] His death, for instance, is described as [illegible] It is not that God needs some [illegible] He will set the captive free. E[illegible] ance to the capture. [illegible] is the servant of sin.' [illegible] 'If the Son shall make you [illegible] indeed.' To whom? for what paid? are questions about which [illegible] to which reason refuses to answer.

A remarkably original work, [illegible] years ago, by the Rev. J. [illegible] on the subject of the At[illegible] as follows: The work of [illegible] to do and did the will of His [illegible] view of the deliverance which [illegible] regarded as twofold: first, as done behalf of God, and second, as done behalf of man.

In dealing with man on [illegible] revealed to us the Father in [illegible] world, shewed us what [illegible] cated in the world the F[illegible] to the excellency of that [illegible] rebellion. In thus revealing the [illegible] towards sinful men. He necessarily [illegible] sorrow and suffering, but these arose [illegible] what He was, and the relations in which those for whom He suffered [illegible] and love of His very [illegible] awful intensity and [illegible] suffered what He su[illegible] and sinners with God, [illegible] ence to them with God's heart. He condemned sin, and revealed against it. His holiness and [illegible] suffering, compose the very [illegible] of His sacrifice for sin.

As to its bearing with God [illegible] sense of mind with [illegible] took the form of

ing with the Father in relation to us a confession of our sins, which was a perfect humanity to the judgment of God on the Such an Amen was due in the truth of due on our behalf, though we could not due from Him as in our nature and our He who was the truth, could not and not utter it; and it was step in dealing with the Father on confession of our sins by Him who, of God and the son of man in one person, tly realise the evil of man's alienation, eculiar development of the holy sorrow in e bore the burden of our sins; and which, sufferings in confessing His Father before l a severity and intensity of its own. But the sufferings present in that confession, m the depths of the humanity of Christ condemnation of sin, is necessarily con- the reception of the full apprehension n of the wrath of God, as well as of st which it comes forth into His soul into the bosom of the divine humanity, eiving it, He responds to it with a perfect in that perfect response He absorbs it. all the elements of a perfect , for all the sin of man—a w— perfect contrition—all the ele- h a repentance, and that in absolute l—excepting the personal consciousness by that perfect response or amen to the God, in relation to sin, is the wrath of God and that is awarded to divine justice ine. and could alone satisfy it.

n of the world's sin by the Head and of humanity, was followed up by His a part of the full response of the Son to the mind of the Father—a part of nce in humanity which propitiated the y by the righteous way in which it laid hope for man which was in God. 'He of many, and made intercession for s.'

D. Maurice professed to hold a purely ology, as opposed to the theologies of con- which he repudiates. His doctrine of the swer which the Bible gives to the demands smitten conscience. A sinner requires, and st to be told on the authority of Scripture, Son of God has taken away sin. This from God is the gospel for all men. The rants to be assured that God has spoken, has declared Himself the Reconciler, and to be shewn how and in whom He has ished that work on his behalf.

e question—How and in whom the work of tion has been accomplished?—Mr Maurice effect and almost in words as follows: f God is set forth in the Bible to be a will ed to all, and the ground of all that is just, and gracious; that it also sets forth of God as being one in will, purpose, and e with the Father, and that His whole life was an exhibition of, and submission to His will; that the Son of God was Lord of Root and Head of humanity, and the source ght and righteousness in man: that being with God and one with man, He brought of God into our nature, fulfilled it in our erfectly, and carried it down into the lowest e into which it had fallen through sin; that ulfilment of this will in our nature, as its shared its sufferings, enduring that wrath, dignant, which proceeded from Holy Love, on the one hand, the sins of the world, er, the consuming fury of the holiness of the love of God—with an anguish which only a perfectly pure and holy Being, who is also a perfectly sympathising and gracious Being, can feel: that the man Christ Jesus was for this reason the object of His Father's continual complacency—a complacency fully drawn out by the death of the cross—which so perfectly brought out to view the uttermost power of self-sacrifice which lay hidden in the divine love, and consequently that He exhibited humanity, in its head, atoned for, reconciled. In this way, to Mr Maurice, is Christ 'the Lamb of God, which taketh away the sin of the world.'

Finally, Dr Trench, who may be regarded as fairly representing the prevalent views of the more devout and thoughtful men of the present day holding orthodox opinions, speaks as follows: 'The spirit of man cries out for something deeper than repentance, confession of sin, amendment of life; something which shall reach further back; which shall not be clogged with sinful infirmities, as his own repentance even at the very best must be. Men cry for some work to rest upon, which shall not be *their* work, but which shall be God's; perfect, complete. They feel that there must be something which God has wrought, not so much *in* them as *for* them; they yearn for this, for A., propitiation, ransom, and conscience purged from dead works by the blood of sprinkling; a rock to flee to which is higher than they, than their repentance, than their faith, than their obedience, even than their new life in the spirit. Now, this rock is Christ; and John the Baptist pointed to this rock, when, to those about him who longed after more than amendment of life, he exclaimed, in the memorable words: "Behold the Lamb of God which taketh away the sin of the world."'

Christ's sacrifice was vicarious—He died not merely for the good of, but in the room and in the stead of others, tasted death *for* them. He did this of His own free will. He saw that nothing else would overcome their sinful perversity and wilful obduracy, and that this would be effectual to do so.

Christ took upon Himself the penalties of a sinful world, and His self-sacrifice is only *not* righteous, because it is so much better than righteous, because it moves in that higher region where law is no more known, but only known no more because it is transfigured into love. Vicarious suffering is the law and condition of all highest nobleness in the world. It is this which God is continually demanding of His elect, they approving themselves His elect as they freely own themselves the debtors of love to the last penny of the requirements which it makes.

But the sufferings and death of Christ were not merely vicarious, they were also satisfactory; and thus atoning or setting *at one*, bringing together the Holy and the unholy, who could not have been reconciled in any other way. It is not maintained that God could have pleasure in the sufferings of the innocent and the holy, and that innocent and holy His own Son; but only that He must have the highest pleasure in the love, the patience, the obedience which those sufferings gave Him the opportunity of displaying, which but for those He never could have displayed. Christ's sublime devotion to the will of God permitted the Father to say, 'I have found a ransom.' Christ satisfied herein, not the divine anger, but the divine craving and yearning after a perfect holiness, righteousness, and obedience in man; which craving no man had satisfied, but all had disappointed, before.

The reader is referred for further and fuller information on this subject to the following works, which have been consulted and used in the preparation of this article: Baur's *Christliche Lehre von der Versöhnung;* Hase's *Hutterus Redivivus;* Neander's

Christliche Dogmengeschichte; Gieseler's *Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte;* Hagenbach's *Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte*, vierte Auflage; Calvin's *Institutes of the Christian Religion;* Edwards, *Concerning the Necessity and Reasonableness of the Christian Doctrine of Satisfaction for Sin;* Owen's *Death of Death in the Death of Christ*, and *Of the Death of Christ;* Payne's *Lectures on Divine Sovereignty;* Chalmers's *Institutes of Theology;* Wardlaw's *Systematic Theology;* Campbell's (John M'Leod) *Nature of the Atonement*, &c.; Tayler's (J. J.) *Christian Aspects of Faith and Duty* (Discourse on 'Christ the Mediator'); Maurice's *Theological Essays;* Jowett's *St Paul's Epistles*, first and second editions (Article 'On Atonement and Satisfaction'); Trench's *Five Sermons* (sermon on 'Christ the Lamb of God').

ATRA'TO, a river of New Granada, more important from its position than from its magnitude. It has already been mentioned under the head of AMERICA in connection with the scheme of opening a communication by water between the Atlantic and the Pacific.

The main stream falls into the Gulf of Darien by 9 mouths—the quantity of water, from the almost daily rains, being large in proportion to the area drained, which does not, at the utmost, exceed 300 miles by 75. Of the 9 mouths, the third in rank, the Boca Coquito, appears to offer the most available facilities for improving the navigation. About 220 miles above this entrance, opposite to Quibdo, the A. is 850 feet wide and 8 feet deep at the shallowest parts, while the entire fall to the sea averages less than 3 inches to a mile. Unfortunately, however, the A. itself cannot advantageously be followed thus far, because, as one advances to the south, the intervening ridge to the west, and its streams towards the Pacific become less and less practicable.

But a comparatively convenient route has been surveyed through the munificence of Mr F. M. Kelley, a private citizen of New York. Ascending the Boca Coquito as before, this route leaves the main stream at a distance of 63 miles from the sea, following the Truando, one of its western affluents, for 36 miles more without impediment or interruption. From this point on the Truando to the Pacific there would still remain 32 miles; and it is only on this section that any serious difficulties would be found. The heaviest work would be a tunnel of 3½ miles in length. According to the plan, the canal would be without a lock; and its *termini* would require but little improvement to render them excellent harbours.

Thus would the A. realise the destiny which Humboldt chalked out for it upwards of 60 years ago.

ATRIP. An anchor is said to be A. when it is just drawn out of the ground in a perpendicular direction. A top-sail is A. when it is just started from the cap.

ATRIPLEX. See CHENOPODIACEÆ and ORACHE.

A'TRIUM, in Roman Architecture, was the covered court or entrance-hall which formed the chief part of a Roman house. It was lighted from the roof, which sloped towards an opening in the centre (the *compluvium*), through which the rain-water flowed into a kind of cistern situated on the floor (the *impluvium*). On both sides, passages led to the several chambers. Its size was in proportion to the other parts of the house. After the burning of Rome in the reign of Nero, great attention was paid to the decorations of the entrance-halls or *Atria*. Here the female slaves were engaged in weaving and other domestic occupations, under the superintendence of their mistress. Family pictures were preserved in the A., it also contained the nuptial couch, and it served as a general waiting-room for visitors and clients. The Atria of the temples were used as places of assembly of the senators, and for other public meetings.

A'TROPA. See BELLADONNA.

A'TROPHY (Gr. *atrophia*, want of nourishment; from *a*, not, and *trophé*, nourishment) is a morbid condition of animal or vegetable life, resulting in deficient nutrition of the body, or part of the body, and a consequent decay and waste of its substance. The term is not applied to the mere withholding the requisite supply of nutriment, but to the condition produced by various diseases that affect the body. See NUTRITION, also DIGESTION, DYSPEPSIA, HYPERTROPHY.

A'TRYPA, a genus of fossil brachiopod or lamp shells, having a close resemblance to the well-known *Terebratula*. It possessed a perforation for the sage of the peduncle, by which the itself to foreign bodies. This f in all examples of the same s touching and overlying the umbo of the animal was, therefore, probably portion of its existence. The name (d without, and *trypa*, foramen) was given t by Dalman, as he erroneously supposed perforation was entirely absent. Ju markings on the interior of seems to have differed little *conella*, except that it had lar for the support of its labial append strictly palæozoic brachiopod, the sol species being the last representative o Of the 179 described species, 100 are Devonian, 22 Carboniferous, and 1 Pe

ATTACHÉ (French), a subordinate o The term is generally applied to yo who accompany embassies.

ATTA'CHMENT is an English l fying the form of process, by the a the person or the goods of a debtor satisfaction. As a proceed is a species of criminal p of much that will be (q. v.); but in strictness, i from a court of record a of a contempt, or, more properly, of a tempt, and who is punishable in a summ by the court in whose presence, against w rity, or against whose writs the cont overtly displayed. Thus, in the Crown, such contempts 1. Disobedience to the Queen's in the face of a court; 3. C writings concerning a court; with the rules and awards of a c gery of writs, or any other deceit tendi on a court. Parties are also liable to t A. as for a contempt of court whe tion (see ARBITRATION) the award a rule of court under the 9 the parties refuse to obey th there may be A. of the person f other offence to the court, as, for e defendant fails to put in his answer to the plaintiff's bill of complaint. The process of A. against the person which it is here to notice, is the non-attendance in witness, who in such event is co committed a contempt of court, an be punished for such contempt by action may also be brought witness at the suit of th account of any loss or d non-attendance.

The proceeding by A. of goods resembles in some ... the Scotch diligence or process of arrest... See ARR... NT. The best illustration we can ... of it. ... ...e, is that relating to the power ... ditor to recover under his judg... ..., and 18 Vict. c. 125, it is provided ...nt creditor may apply to the court or ... or order to have the debtor orally ...d as to the debts owing to him by any third ... *garnishee*, as he is called (see GARNISHEE), ... for an order that all such garnishee debts ...hed to answer the judgment debt, the ... of which order has the effect of binding or ...he debts in the garnishee's hands.

ATTACHMENT, FOREIGN. See FOREIGN ...NT.

TA'CK, in military warfare, is an advance ... enemy, with a view of driving him from ... It may either be an attack in the open ... upon a fortress.

... ... in the open field, the general first ... the strength and position of the enemy, ... of a reconnaissance or of spies. He then ... to discover at what point the enemy can make resistance; which is generally on one or ... He next arranges to concentrate his ... upon this particular point; and to ... ...l intention by feigned operations in ... places. He then attacks with energy and his troops advancing without halt till near ... to use their weapons with the greatest effect. ...re the attack has the character of a 'sur... ...e greater the probability of its success. In ... to make this success as much felt as possible, ... be provided also against unforeseen disaster, ...king body should be followed at a distance ... reserve; a neglect of this precaution has ...mently caused the entire failure of an attack. ...rms have been devised for the attack; but the *parallel* or *frontal* is the one made use ... ...k the Great, however, won most of his ...y ... oblique attack, in which one wing is ...vanced than the other. The first Napoleon ..., by means of his heavy columns, to pene... ...and break up the enemy's centre. Another ... combines an attack on one flank as well as ... by two separate corps; so as either to get ... enemy's rear, or to perplex him as to his ... A skilful general will be guided by circum... ... his selection among these several modes ...ng. An attack by night might act most ... a surprise; but as this requires a very ...owledge of the ground, an attack at early ... ...erally preferred.

... ...ent arms of the service render each its ... ... aid during an attack. First come the ... perhaps whole battalions of light ... ..., whose rifles or long-range guns ... ... firing. Then come the main body of ... ...avy column; they halt within musket... ..., and charge with the bayonet - the skir... ...s meanwhile deploying round to the rear of ... column, but holding themselves in readiness to ... enemy's flanks. English troops especially ... attack by bayonet in line; but foreign ... ... the most part, rely more upon the ... of a compact and heavy column in an ...re are positions in which the cavalry ... ... its shock and the use of the sword, is ... efficacious than that of the infantry. The ...pers approach at a trot, break into a gallop at a ...ance of one or two hundred paces from the enemy, ...endeavour by their weight and impetuosity to ... the enemy's line. There are many forms of ... attack, according to the nature of the ground and the position of the enemy. The artillery, working at a distance, often begin an attack long before the infantry and cavalry can come up, harassing and confusing the enemy. At 800 to 1200 yards' distance, the artillery pour out shot and shell, and try to silence the enemy's guns, so as to make way for the attack of the infantry; while the bayonet-charge is being made, the artillery keep in check the enemy's cavalry. If the attack succeeds, the infantry and artillery take up the ground recently occupied by the enemy, leaving the cavalry and riflemen to maintain a pursuit; but if it fail, the artillery and cavalry take up such positions as will cover the retreat of the infantry.

In an attack upon a fortress, the operation is a part of that of besieging (see SIEGE); but very often intrenchments are attacked in the open field. Such an attack has the character of a surprise, when the works are approached under cover of night, and an attempt is made to break into them on all sides. In such case, there is a reserve corps, which is rapidly brought up when wanted; but the attacking corps retire behind the reserve, if repulsed. The artillery post themselves on the prolongation of the line of works, and try to dislodge the enemy's guns and gunners; or pour a concentric fire sufficient to breach the works. The infantry advance as close as will enable them to fire upon the gunners. When the enemy's fire is silenced, the engineers (under cover of the artillery) proceed to remove palisades and all other obstacles, and to bridge over ditches and openings. Then follow the operations of the storming-party, analogous to those noticed under ASSAULT.

ATTAI'NDER is the legal consequence of judgment of death or outlawry, in respect of treason or felony. It is said to have been derived from the Latin word *attinctus*, attaint, stained, and it is followed by *forfeiture of estate*, real and personal, and by *corruption of blood*; and generally it imported extinction of civil rights and capacities. Thus, an attainted person cannot sue in a court of justice; he loses all power over his property; and he is by his A. rendered incapable of performing any of the duties, or enjoying any of the privileges of a free citizen. But absolute and severe as the consequences of A. seem to be, they had their limits. In regard to the attainted person, neither the government nor the crown could exercise absolute or capricious authority; everything must be done according to legal and constitutional principle and rule, and for the ends of public justice alone. Formerly, an attainted person could not give evidence in a court of justice; but that disability in England has been removed by the 6 and 7 Vict. c. 85, and in Scotland by the 15 and 16 Vict. c. 27.

We have stated that the immediate consequences of A. were *forfeiture* of estate and *corruption of blood*. The forfeiture was of estate real and personal. But in 1870 the law on this subject was revised and made more consistent with reason by the act 33 and 34 Vict. c. 23. No conviction for treason or felony now causes any A. or corruption of blood, or forfeiture or escheat. When a convicted person is sentenced to any punishment more severe than twelve months' hard labour, he is deprived of any public office or employment, and of any public pension, or of the right of voting at elections. He may be condemned to pay the costs or expenses incurred in procuring his conviction, and in cases of felony to make payment of a sum not exceeding £100, as compensation for any loss of property caused by such felony. He cannot sue for any property, debt, or damage. While he is a convict undergoing any imprisonment, her Majesty may appoint paid administrators to take charge of his property at

the convict's expense, to deal with the property, and pay debts, and do what is needful. They may also pay out of his property satisfaction for any loss or injury suffered by third parties in consequence of his criminal or fraudulent acts, though no proof of such criminal or fraudulent acts may have been made in any court of law. They may also make allowances to support the convict's family. If the crown does not appoint an administrator, justices of the peace may appoint interim curators, if satisfied that it will benefit the convict or his family, or the due administration of his property and affairs. Should any person intermeddle with the convict's property, the Attorney-general or next of kin might call them to account. When the convict ceases to be such, by the expiration of his sentence, then the administrators or curators are to account to him for all his property, or rather the surplus, like any other guardians appointed by law. If during the sentence any property be acquired by the convict, it is not to vest in the administrators, but is to be his own, as in other ordinary cases.

The old consequence of A.—viz., *corruption of blood*, is anxiously and learnedly treated of in old law-books, and in Blackstone's *Commentaries;* but the ancient law on the subject had been so much narrowed in its application by modern legislation as to have lost much of its importance; and, indeed, this doctrine of corruption of blood was in modern times always looked upon as a peculiar hardship, at least as regards the family of the offender; and now, by the statutes 54 Geo. III. c. 145, already referred to, 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 106, and 13 and 14 Vict. c. 60, whatever savoured of inhumanity or harshness under the ancient system has been effectually removed; in fact, it is now enacted that, even with the cases of treason and murder, the law of corruption of blood, so far as the family of the offender are concerned, has ceased to form part of the law. Besides A. by the operation of law as above stated, there have been frequent instances of attainders by express legislative enactment, as to which, see BILL OF ATTAINDER.

The Scotch law of A., consequent on a conviction for treason, corresponds to the English doctrine; and although the word A. is not a Scotch technical term in regard to crimes other than treason, the forfeitures consequent on conviction and judgment are very much the same as the English.

ATTAI'NDER, BILL OF. See BILL OF ATTAINDER.

ATTAI'NT, WRIT OF, was anciently a mode of inquiring whether a jury had given a false verdict, which has been abolished by the 4 Geo. IV. c. 50. A. is, however, still in use to some extent as a technical word in the law of England; thus, there is the plea of *autrefois A.*, or of a former attainder, for the same crime, and now regulated by the 7 and 8 Geo. IV. c. 28, s. 4.

In the old Scotch criminal law, A., or *attaynt*, signified a conviction, or being convicted.

ATTALE'A, a genus of Palms, comprising a number of species, natives of the tropical parts of South America. They have in general lofty cylindrical smooth stems, but there are some stemless species. The leaves are large and pinnate. The fruit has a dry fibrous husk, enclosing a nut with three cells and three seeds. The leaves of some species are much used for thatching, and those of some are woven into hats, mats, &c. The nuts of *A. excelsa* and of *A. speciosa* are burned to dry the India-rubber obtained from the *Siphonia elastica*, which acquires its black colour from their smoke. The leaf-stalks of *A. funifera*, which is found in the maritime provinces of Brazil, and is there called Piassaba, yield a fibre much used for cordage. The ropes made of it are very strong, and extremely durable in salt water. The Piassaba palm of the northern parts of Brazil, however, is totally different, and much of the Piassaba (q. v.) fibre imported into Britain is obtained from it. The fruit of *A. funifera*, known by the name of Coquilla nut, is as large as an ostrich's egg, and supplies a kind of vegetable ivory, used for making umbrella handles, &c. The fruit of *A. compta*, the Pindóva or Indaiá palm, is of the size of a goose's egg, and the kernels are eatable. It is a stately and beautiful tree, with a wide-spreading crown.

A'TTAR. See OTTO.

ATTEMPT to commit a felony or criminal offence is in many instances equally cognizable by the criminal tribunals with the completed crime itself. See TREASON, FELONY, MISDEMEANOUR.

A'TTERBURY, FRANCIS, Bishop of Rochester, was born on the 6th of March 1662, at Milton, near Newport Pagnel, in Buckinghamshire, and educated at Westminster School, from which, in 1680, he passed to Christ Church, Oxford. In 1687, he gave proof of that ready controversial talent which distinguished him through life, in a reply to a pseudonymous attack on Protestantism by Obadiah Walker, master of University College. Disappointed in his expectation of succeeding to his father's rectory, in 1693, he sought a wider field of distinction, for ambition seems to have stimulated his efforts rather more than the love of souls, and in London his rhetorical powers soon won him reputation. He became a royal chaplain, minister of Bridewell, and lecturer of St Bride's. In 1698, a temporary sensation was created in the learned world by the appearance of the Hon. Charles Boyle's *Examination of Dr Bentley's Dissertations on the Epistles of Phalaris and the Fables of Æsop*. This clever, but shallow and malicious performance was in reality composed chiefly by A., who had been the young nobleman's tutor at Christ Church. In 1700 he distinguished himself in a controversy with Dr Wake and others regarding the powers and privileges of convocations. A.'s zealous and caustic defence of the ecclesiastical against the civil authority, procured him the thanks of the lower House of Convocation, and the degree of D.D. In 1704, he was promoted to the deanery of Carlisle, on which occasion he subjected himself to just obloquy by attempting to procure an alteration in the date of his predecessor's resignation, which happened to interpose a temporary obstacle to his appointment. In 1707 he was made a canon of Exeter; in 1709, preached at the Rolls Chapel; in 1710 he was chosen prolocutor to the lower House of Convocation, and in the same year he had the chief hand, according to the common belief, in drawing up the famous defence of Dr Sacheverell; in 1712, he became Dean of Christ Church, where, however, his turbulent and combative spirit had meanwhile involved him in so many controversies, that there was no peace until he was removed; in 1713, he was made Bishop of Rochester and Dean of Westminster. It is supposed, not unreasonably, that A. aspired to the primacy; but the death of Queen Anne extinguished his hopes in that direction. His known character and Jacobite leanings made him no favourite with George I. In 1715 he refused to sign the bishops' declaration of fidelity, and some of the most violent protests of the Peers against the government measures proceeded from his reckless pen. His deep complicity in a succession of plots for the restoration of the Stuarts, brought down upon him at length the charge of treason, and, in August 1722, he was committed to

A bill of pains and penalties was brought
use of Commons, and passed in the Lords
y of 83 to 43. A., who had defended
great ability, was deprived of all his
al offices, incapacitated from holding any
spiritual office in the king's dominions, and
ed to perpetual banishment. There is no
fact that A. was implicated in treason-
out the legal proof on which this sentence
cannot be regarded as sufficient to
severity. In June 1723, he quitted
France, and after a short stay at
finally settled in Paris, where he died,
15, 1732. In his exile, he maintained a
correspondence with his friends, and took
part in the abortive conspiracies of the
His fame as a writer is founded on his
, and his letters to Pope, Swift, &c.; as a
iter, indeed, he has seldom been surpassed.

'A'TION, in conveyancing, is the verifi-
execution of deeds and wills by
nce the clause at the end of these
which immediately precedes the signa-
witnesses, is called the A. clause. See
S, WITNESSES. In the Scotch practice,
ding clause is called the testing-clause.
I-CLAUSE.

a term in Architecture, employed to
a low story rising above the cornice that
the main elevation of a building; in
tecture, it is usually applied to sky-
an the roof.

A., one of the political divisions or states
Greece or Hellas, of which Athens was
tal. The territory is of triangular shape,
orth-east and south-west sides washed by
e on the north it is connected with the
In ancient times, it was bounded on the
is and the Gulf of Saronica; on the
out into the 'marble steep' of Sunium,
n Sea; on the E., by the Ægean Sea; and
by Bœotia, from which it is separated by
ange of hills, the most famous part of which
erly called Cithæron. Ancient A. was thus
from the rest of Greece. The two principal
ere the Cephissus and Ilissus; and if they
e features in ancient times as they
e been mere mountain-torrents, dry
The unfruitfulness of the soil, and the
water, compelled the inhabitants occa-
send out colonies. According to ancient
Aborigines of A. were first civilised
ptus, who is said to have come hither from
the mouth of the Nile in Egypt, about 1550
to have introduced the culture of olives, and
l species of grain, as also to have implanted
ers, and taught the worship of the gods.
to have divided the country into 12
s or states. This, however, was not the
known in early A. A still older division
or tribes, existed, as also a minute
into *demoi*, or townships. By Theseus,
united with the eleven other states of A.
ernment, of which Athens was made
r this union of the several states, the
A. shared in the fortunes of Athens (q. v.),
er Vespasian, became a Roman province. On
sion of the Roman empire, A. naturally fell
hands of the Greek emperors. In 396 A.D.,
ured by Alaric, king of the Goths.
e been its population in ancient
ossible to determine precisely.
it at upwards of half a million,
ably exaggerated.
arrangement, Attica and Bœotia
form a department or government in the kingdom of Greece. The surface of the country is broken into hills and narrow plains. The most considerable hills are—Oxea, 4636 feet; Elaté, 4629; Pentelicus, famous for its marble in ancient times, of a white brilliant appearance and perdurable character, 3884; and Hymettus, 3506. The largest plains extend in the neighbourhoods of Athens and Eleusis. As early as the time of Solon, A. was well cultivated, and produced wine and corn. Mount Hymettus was celebrated for its bees and honey, and metals were found in the range of Laurium. Figs, olives, and grapes are still cultivated. Goats and sheep find suitable pasturage; but the country does not now produce much grain. The population of A. and B. (1870) was 136,804.—See Leake on the *Demoi of A.*

A'TTICUS, TITUS POMPONIUS, one of the most noble and generous men in ancient Rome, was born in 109 B.C., or a few years before the birth of Cicero. His excellent education, during which he enjoyed the companionship of Torquatus, the younger Marius, and Cicero, developed, at an early age, a love of knowledge, which was increased during his stay in Athens, where he remained many years, glad to be separated from the political distractions of his native land. After 65 B.C., when he was induced by Sulla to return to Rome, he still devoted himself chiefly to study and the pleasures of friendship, and refused to take any part in political affairs. Yet he was by no means without influence on public matters, as he lived on terms of familiar intercourse with several leading statesmen, and freely gave his counsel, which was generally sound and wholesome, while it was always benevolent. He was a man of great wealth, having been left a large inheritance by his father and his uncle, which he greatly increased by judicious mercantile speculations. His mode of life was frugal. When he was informed that a disorder under which he was labouring was mortal, he voluntarily starved himself, and died in 32 B.C. Among his personal friends, Cicero held the first place. The *Annales*, written by A., were highly commended by his contemporaries. They were especially valuable on account of containing genealogical histories of the old Roman families. A. was one of those men (not uncommon either in ancient or modern times) in whom fine culture and a fortunate social position had highly developed the faculty of good taste. He had no creative genius, but was possessed of such delicate discernment that he could detect the flaw that would have been invisible to Cicero. Every author was anxious to secure his favourable opinion. None of his writings have been preserved. His biography is found in Cornelius Nepos, and in Cicero's *Epistles to A.*

A'TTILA (Ger. *Etzel*; Hungarian, *Ethele*, conjectured to have been originally titles of honour), king of the Huns, was the son of Mundzuk, a Hun of the royal blood, and in 434 A.D. succeeded his uncle Roas as chief of countless hordes scattered over the north of Asia and Europe. His brother Bleda, or Blödel, who shared with him the supreme authority over all the Huns, was put to death by A. in 444 or 445 A.D. The Huns regarded A. with superstitious reverence, and Christendom with superstitious dread, as the 'Scourge of God.' It was believed that he was armed with a supernatural sword, which belonged to the Scythian god of war, which must win dominion over the whole world. It is not known when the name 'Scourge of God' was first applied to A. He is said to have received it from a hermit in Gaul. The whole race of Huns was regarded in the same light. In an inscription at Aquileia, written a short time before the siege in 452, they are described as *imminentia peccatorum flagella* (the

threatening scourges of sinners). The Vandals, Ostrogoths, Gepidæ, and many of the Franks, fought under his banner, and in a short time his dominion extended over the people of Germany and Scythia —i. e., from the frontiers of Gaul to those of China. In 447, after his unsuccessful campaign in Persia and Armenia, he advanced through Illyria, and devastated all the countries between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. Those inhabitants who were not destroyed were compelled to follow in his train. The Emperor Theodosius collected an army to oppose the inundation of the barbarians, but in three bloody engagements fortune declared against him. Constantinople owed its safety solely to its fortifications and the ignorance of the enemy in the art of besieging; but Thrace, Macedon, and Greece were overrun; seventy flourishing cities were desolated, and Theodosius was compelled to cede a portion of territory south of the Danube, and to pay tribute to the conqueror, after treacherously attempting to murder him. In 451, A. turned his course to the West, to invade Gaul, but was here boldly confronted by Aëtius, leader of the Romans, and Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, who compelled him to raise the siege of Orleans. He then retired to Champagne, and in the wide plain of the Marne —called anciently the Catalaunian Plain—waited to meet the enemy. The army of the West, under Aëtius and Theodoric, encountered the forces of the Huns near the site now occupied by the city of Chalons-sur-Marne. Both armies strove to obtain the hill of moderate height which rises near Mury, and commands the field of battle, and after a terrible contest, the ranks of the Romans and their allies, the Visigoths, were broken. A. now regarded victory as certain, when the Gothic prince, Thorismund, immediately after his father had fallen, assumed the command, and led on the brave Goths, who were burning to avenge the death of Theodoric. Their charge from the height into the plain was irresistible. On every side the Huns were routed, and A. with difficulty escaped into his encampment. This, if old historians are to be trusted, must have been the most sanguinary battle ever fought in Europe; for it is stated by contemporaries of A., that not less than 252,000 or 300,000 slain were left on the field. A., having retired within his camp of wagons, collected all the wooden shields, saddles, and other baggage into a vast funeral pile, resolving to die in the flames rather than surrender; but by the advice of Aëtius, the Roman general, the Huns were allowed to retreat without much further loss, though they were pursued by the Franks as far as the Rhine. In the following year, A. had recovered his strength, and made another incursion into Italy, devastating Aquileia, Milan, Padua, and other cities, and driving the terrified inhabitants into the Alps, Apennines, and the lagoons of the Adriatic Sea, where they founded Venice. The Roman emperor was helpless, and Rome itself was saved from destruction only by the personal mediation of Pope Leo I., who visited the dreaded barbarian, and is said to have subdued his ferocity into awe by the apostolic majesty of his mien. This deliverance was regarded as a miracle by the affrighted Romans, and old chroniclers relate that the apostles Peter and Paul visited the camp of A., and changed his purpose. By 453, however, A. appears to have forgotten the visit of the two beatified apostles, for he made preparations for another invasion of Italy, but died of hæmorrhage on the night of his marriage with the beautiful Ildiko. His death spread consternation through the host of the Huns. His followers cut themselves with knives, shaved their heads, and prepared to celebrate the funeral rites of their king. It is said that his body was placed in three coffins—the first, of gold; the second, of silver; and the third, of iron; that the caparison of his horses, with his arms and ornaments, were buried with him; and that all the captives who were employed to make his grave were put to death, so that none might betray the resting-place of the king of the Huns.

Jornandes describes A. as having the Mongolian characteristics—low stature, a large head, with small, brilliant deep-seated eyes, and broad shoulders. There can be little doubt that circumstances conspired, in the case of A., to give a certain largeness to his barbaric conceptions, which made him a most formidable foe to the civilisation of Europe.

A'TTOCK, a town and fort of the Punjab, on the left or east bank of the Indus, lat. 33° 54′ N., long. 72° 20′ E. Pop. 2000. A. stands within the limits of the fort, which is itself a parallelogram of 300 yards by 400. The place was established by the Emperor Akbar in 1581, to defend the passage of the river. In modern warfare, however, it is no longer a position of strength, being commanded by the neighbouring heights. A tunnel under the Indus at A. is in course of construction.

The situation of A. is important, whether in a commercial or in a military view. It is at the head of the steam-boat navigation of the Indus, being 940 miles from its mouth; while about 2 miles above it, the Cabul River, the only considerable affluent of the Indus from the west, is practicable for vessels of 40 or 50 tons to a distance of 50 miles. The valley, again, of this last-mentioned stream, presenting, as it does, the best approach to the east and south from Central Asia, has been the route of nearly all but the maritime invaders of India from the days of Alexander the Great downwards. *Taxila*, where the Macedonians crossed the Indus, is supposed to have been the same as Attock.

ATTO'RNEY, in its general meaning, is one appointed by another to act for him in his absence, the authority for so acting being expressed by a deed called a Power of Attorney.

ATTO'RNEYS AND SOLI'CITORS are those legal practitioners who conduct litigation in courts of justice, preparing the cause for the barristers, or counsel, as they are called, whose duty and privilege it is to plead and argue on behalf of the contending parties, and who in open court have its exclusive audience. A. and S. also practise conveyancing, or the preparation of legal deeds and instruments, and they manage a great deal of other general business connected with the practice of the law, for which, as well as for the discharge of all their duties, they are mostly remunerated by a fixed and minute scale of charges. Theirs is, indeed, an extremely important, influential, and lucrative profession, and the well-employed attorney, and the 'family solicitor,' are expressions which readily suggest the idea of acute intelligence, along with high character and confidential trusts seldom abused.

They are called *A.*, as practitioners in the courts of common law, because the attorney is one who is put in the place, stead, or *turn* of another. Formerly, when prosecuting or defending, suitors were obliged to appear *personally* in court; but now, on principles of convenience, A. may represent, and can also prosecute or defend any action or suit in the absence of, the parties. They are called *S.* in the Courts of Chancery, according theoretically to the more gentle (but not less absolute) compulsion of equity. S. also is the name usually given to this profession when they transact family or other general business out of court, and in their own chambers. A. and S. are admitted by the superior courts, of which, therefore, they are officers, having many privileges as such, and they are, in consequence,

peculiarly subject to the censure and control of the judges.

The statutes relating to this branch of the legal profession being numerous and complicated, were amended and consolidated by the 6 and 7 Vict. c. 73, &c., and 33 and 34 Vict. c. 28. No person shall act as an attorney or solicitor in any court of civil or criminal jurisdiction, or in any court of law or equity in England or Wales, unless he shall have been admitted, enrolled, and be otherwise duly qualified according to the provisions of the act. And it has been decided that the person who acts as an attorney without being properly qualified, is liable to be indicted for a misdemeanour. There is an exception, however, to the rule of admission as stated, contained in a subsequent act, the 7 and 8 Vict. c. 101, s. 63, which provides that clerks or other officers to any board of guardians under the poor laws, may commence or defend proceedings before magistrates, in special or petty sessions, or out of sessions, without being qualified as attorneys. And by the 20 and 21 Vict. c. 30, facilities are afforded for the admission and enrolment in England of A. and S. of those colonial courts where the English system prevails.

To entitle a person to admission as an attorney and solicitor under 23 and 24 Vict. c. 127, and 6 and 7 Vict. c. 73, it is required, first, that he shall have served—having been duly bound by contract in writing so to do—with some practising attorney or solicitor in England or Wales, a clerkship of five years; or—if a barrister, advocate, W.S., or S.S.C., or graduate of Scotch or Irish university, or of Cambridge, Oxford, Dublin, Durham, or London—a clerkship of three years. In some cases, four years' service are allowed. He must now pass a preliminary examination in general knowledge, as well as occasional examinations in legal subjects during his articles. The judges now have large controlling and dispensing powers as to the articles, service, fitness, and capacity to act; and the judges (or Master of the Rolls, as the case may be), upon being satisfied by such examination, or by the certificates of examiners appointed by them, of the competency of any candidate for admission, shall administer to him such oath as specified in the act, viz., 'that he will truly and honestly demean himself in practice,' and also the oath of allegiance; and after such oaths, shall cause him to be admitted as an attorney of the said courts of law at Westminster, or as solicitor of the High Court of Chancery. It is moreover enacted, that there shall be a registrar of A. and S., whose duty it shall be to keep an alphabetical list or roll of all A. and S., and to issue certificates as to persons who have been duly admitted and enrolled; and the duties of this office are by the act committed to the 'Incorporated Law Society,' until some person shall be appointed in their room. Such a certificate from the registrar, of due admission and enrolment, must be produced to the proper authorities, by any person desirous of practising as an attorney or solicitor, before he can obtain the stamped certificate required by the Stamp Act, 33 and 34 Vict. c. 97, authorising him to practise for the ensuing year; and in order to obtain such registrar's certificate, a declaration in writing, signed by the attorney desirous of practising, or by his partner, or in some cases by his London agent, containing his name and address, the courts of which he is an admitted attorney or solicitor, and the date of his admission, must be delivered to the registrar. And if any attorney or solicitor shall practise in any of the courts aforesaid, without having obtained a stamped certificate for the current year, he shall be incapable of maintaining any action or suit to recover his fees, and be guilty of a contempt of court, and subject to fine.

The same statute also contains the following regulations, among others of less general information: That no attorney or solicitor shall have more than two clerks, bound by contract in writing, at one and the same time; nor any such clerk after he shall have left off business. That all persons admitted as A. of one of the superior courts of law at Westminster may, upon production of a certificate thereof, be admitted in any other court of law in England or Wales, upon signing the roll of the same; and that persons admitted as S. in the High Court of Chancery may in like manner obtain their admission in all other courts of equity, and in the Court of Bankruptcy. That no attorney or solicitor, who shall be a prisoner in any jail or prison, may commence or defend any action, suit, or proceeding in law, equity, or bankruptcy; or maintain any action for fees for business done during such his confinement; and that no practising attorney or solicitor shall be a justice of the peace in England or Wales, except in counties or towns corporate having justices by charter or otherwise. And that no attorney or solicitor shall commence an action or suit for his fees or charges in respect of any business whatever, until after the expiration of one calendar month after a bill of his costs and charges, signed by such attorney or solicitor, shall have been delivered to the party to be charged; and such party may, on a proper application, obtain an order for referring such bill to be taxed; and for staying all proceedings to recover the amount thereof in the meantime. An order may also be obtained directing an attorney or solicitor to deliver his bill (when he has not done so); and also an order for his delivering up, upon payment of what is due, all deeds, papers, and documents in his possession or power touching the business in such bill comprised. Attorneys may now, under the act 33 and 34 Vict. c. 28, enter into special agreements with their clients as to their remuneration. But this agreement, as regards suits and actions, must be deemed by the taxing officer or a court to be reasonable and fair. They may now also make it one of the stipulations that they shall not be liable for negligence. But they are still prohibited from stipulating for payment only in the event of success.

The position of A. and S. in Ireland, like the system of law and practice in that country generally, is so like that of the same profession in England, that it is unnecessary here to give any details respecting them.

The corresponding professional class in Scotland was, up to the year 1874, composed of several distinct bodies called Writers to the Signet, and Solicitors before the Supreme Courts, who had the exclusive right to practise before the Court of Session; and of procurators, whose practice was confined to their own sheriff courts. The unsatisfactory relations existing between these bodies led to a revision of the law, which was embodied in the Law Agents Act of 1873 (36 and 37 Vict. c. 63). No person was thereafter entitled to be admitted a law agent in Scotland except under the new regulations, and all enrolled law agents were to have the right, on payment of proper stamp-duties, to practise in any court of law in Scotland. Applicants for future admission are to be apprenticed for five years with a practising law agent; but advocates, English barristers, and attorneys are to serve only three years, as also graduates of a university. The Court of Session appoints examiners. Any enrolled law agent may be admitted to practise in the Court of Session. Law agents acting for the same client may lawfully agree to share profits and qualify their mutual liability. Existing societies of procurators may admit members as they see fit, but any agent admitted under the act need not become a member of such society.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL, the title by which, in England and Ireland, the first ministerial law officer of the crown is known. The A. is appointed by letters patent. His office corresponds in many respects to that of the Queen's Advocate in the Court of Admiralty and of the Lord Advocate in Scotland (q. v.), though the powers of the latter are more extensive and less clearly defined. Originally, the A. was simply the king's attorney, and stood to the sovereign in the same relation that any other attorney does to his employer. The term 'general' was afterwards conferred to distinguish him from attorneys appointed to represent the interests of the crown in particular courts, such as the Court of Wards; or from the master of the crown office, who is called the 'Coroner and Attorney for the Queen.' The early history of this office is involved in obscurity. Though there can be no doubt that the crown must always have been represented by an attorney in the courts of justice, there is no trace of the existence of such an officer as the A., in the modern sense, till some centuries after the Conquest. Up to a period comparatively recent, the king's serjeant was the chief executive officer of the crown in criminal proceedings, and this circumstance gave rise to various questions of difficulty as to the right to precedency of these officers respectively. These questions were set at rest in 1811, by a special warrant by the then Prince Regent, afterwards King George IV., by which it was declared that both the attorney and solicitor general should have place and audience before all other members of the English bar. A similar question arose in a Scotch appeal in the House of Lords in 1835, between the A. and Lord Advocate, which was also decided in favour of the former. The following may be enumerated as the principal duties of the A.: 1st, To exhibit informations and conduct prosecutions for crimes which have a tendency to disturb the peace of the state or endanger the constitution (see PLEAS OF THE CROWN); 2d, To advise the government on legal questions; 3d, To conduct prosecutions and suits relating to the revenue; 4th, To file informations in the Exchequer for personal wrongs committed on any of the possessions of the crown; 5th, To protect charitable endowments in the sovereign's name, as *parens patriæ*, and, generally, to appear in all legal proceedings in which the interests of the crown are at stake. The attorney and solicitor general are two of the Commissioners of Patents (q. v.) *ex officio*. The powers of the solicitor-general are co-ordinate with those of the A., and in the absence of the latter, or during a vacancy, the former may perform his functions in all their extent. Both usually have seats in the House of Commons, and their tenure of office concurs with that of the government of which they are members. They were formerly paid by fees, but now by fixed salary.

The duchies of Lancaster and Cornwall, and the county palatine of Durham, have separate attorney-generals.

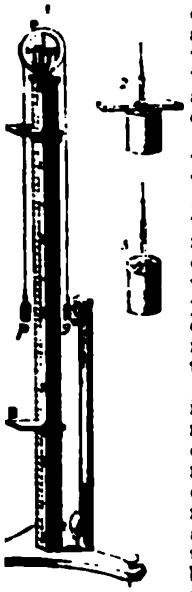
ATTRA'CTION is the general name for the force or forces by which all bodies, from the minutest particles to the largest planets, suns, and systems of suns, tend to approach, or are *drawn towards* (*ad*, to; *tractus*, drawn) one another, and when in contact, are held together. The term is generic, embracing a vast variety of facts, which are subdivided under five heads or species of A. These are—1. Gravitation; 2. Cohesion; 3. Adhesion; 4. Chemical Affinity; 5. The attractions of Electricity, Magnetism, &c. See GRAVITATION, COHESION, &c. Attempts have been made to deduce all these phenomena from one principle of A., modified by an opposing force of repulsion, but as yet without success. Still less can they be explained by assuming only *one* force—A. alone, or repulsion alone—for this, too, has been attempted. The idea of an attractive force acting as the bond of the universe was first introduced as a scientific hypothesis by Newton, and was violently combated by Leibnitz and others.

A'TTRIBUTE, in the Fine Arts, is a species of symbol, consisting of a secondary figure or object accompanying the principal figure—as the trident of Neptune, or the owl of Minerva. Attributes serve to mark the character meant, and add to the significance of the representation. The necessity of using them lies in the limited means of expression possessed by the formative arts. Attributes may be either essential or conventional. Essential attributes have some real relation or resemblance to the object or idea to be expressed; and are often such as could stand alone as symbols—as the bee, representing diligence. Attributes, in the strictest sense, and as distinguished from symbols, are such as are significant only in connection with a figure, to which they in a manner belong; e. g., the wings of genii, the finger on the mouth of Harpocrates. The last is an example of an accidental or conventional A., of which kind are also the *anchor*, to express hope; the *cross*, faith. Common attributes in Christian art are—the harp for King David, and writing materials for the evangelists, especially St John.

A'TTRIBUTE, in Logic, is used to denote the opposite of substance. The latter is considered to be self-existent, while the former can only be conceived as possessing a dependent existence. Attributes are commonly said to belong to substances. Thus, wisdom, holiness, goodness, and truth are termed attributes of God, who is Himself regarded as the substance in which they inhere; in the same way, whiteness is called an A. of snow.

A'TWOOD'S MACHI'NE, an instrument for illustrating the relations of time, space, and velocity in the motion of a body falling under the action of gravity. It was invented by George Atwood or Attwood, a mathematician of some eminence, who was born in 1745, educated at Cambridge, became fellow and tutor of Trinity College in that university, published a few treatises on Mechanics and Engineering, and died in 1807. It is found that a body falling freely, passes through 16 feet in the first second, 64 feet in the first two seconds, 144 feet in the first three seconds, and so on. Now, as these spaces are so large, we should require a machine of impracticable size to illustrate the relations just mentioned. The object of A. M. is to reduce the scale on which gravity acts without in any way altering its essential features as an accelerating force. The machine consists essentially of a pulley, P (see fig. 1), moving on its axis with very little friction, with a fine silk cord passing over it, sustaining two equal cylindrical weights, *p* and *q*, at its extremities. The pulley rests on a square wooden pillar, graduated on one side in feet and inches, which can be placed in a vertical position by the levelling-screws of the sole on which it stands. Two stages, A and B, slide along the pillar, and can be fixed at any part of it by means of fixing-screws. One of these stages, A, has a circular hole cut into it, so as to allow the cylinder, *p*, to pass freely through it; the other is unbroken, and intercepts the passage of the weight. A series of smaller weights, partly bar-shaped, partly circular, may be placed on the cylinders in the way represented in figs. 2 and 3. A pendulum usually accompanies the machine, to beat seconds of time. The weight of the cylinders, *p* and *q*, being equal, they have no tendency to rise or fall, but are reduced, as it were, to masses without weight. When a bar is placed on *p*, the motion that ensues is due only to the action of

upon it, so that the motion of the whole ...e considerably slower than that of the bar falling freely. Suppose, for instance, that *p* and *g* are each 7¼ ounces in weight, and that the bar is 1 ounce, the force acting on the system—leaving the friction and inertia of the pulley out of account—would be 1/8 of gravity, or the whole would move only 1 foot in the first second, instead of 16. If the bar be left free to fall, its weight or moving force would bring its own mass through 16 feet the first second; but when placed on *p*, this force is exerted not only on the mass of the bar, but on that of *p* and *g*, which is 15 times greater, so that it has altogether 16 times more matter in the second case to move than in the first, and must, in consequence, move it 16 times more slowly. By a proper adjustment of weights, the rate of motion may be made as small as we please, or we can reduce the accelerating force to any fraction of



...ood's Machine.

Suppose the weights to be so adjusted ...ser the moving force of the bar or circular ... whole moves through 1 inch in the first ...s may institute the following simple

Experiment 1.—Place the bar on *p*, ...wo in such a position that the lower ... bar shall be horizontally in the same ... point of the scale, and fix the stage A When allowed to descend, the bar will ...*f* the weight, *p*, during one second and ..., when it will be arrested by the stage A, ...h *p* and *g* will continue to move from the they have acquired in passing through ... ...ch. Their velocity will now be found to uniform, being 2 inches per second, illus... the principle that a falling body acquires, at ... of the first second, a velocity per second ... twice the space it has fallen through. 2.—... te, instead of the bar, the circular ... the bottom of *p* in a line with the 0 ...at the stage B at 64 inches. Since the ...companies *p* throughout its fall, we have experiment the same conditions as in the fall of a body. When let off, the bottom ... cylinder, *p*, reaches 1 inch in 1 second, 4 ... 2 seconds, 9 inches in 3 seconds, 16 inches ..., 25 inches in 5 seconds, 49 inches in 7 ..., and 64 inches and the stage in 8 seconds—...g that the spaces described are as the squares times. *Exp.* 3. If the bar be placed as in ..., and the stage A be fixed at 4 inches, the bar ...ccompany the weight, *p*, during two seconds, ...e velocity acquired in that time by *p* and *g* ... 4 inches per second, or twice what it was ... In the same manner, if the stage A be ...at 9, 16, 25, &c. inches, the velocities acquired through these spaces would be respectively &c. inches—two inches of velocity being ... in each second of the fall. From this it ... the force under which bodies fall is ... accelerating force—that is, adds equal increments of velocity in equal times. By means of the bar and the stage A, we are thus enabled to remove the accelerating force from the falling body at any point of its fall, and then question it, as it were, as to the velocity it has acquired.

AUBE, the name of a river and a department of France. The river A., a tributary of the Seine, rises near Pralay, on the plateau of Langres; flows in a north-west course by Rouvres, La Ferté, Bar, and Arcis; and falls into the Seine at Pont-sur-Seine, after a course of 90 miles.—The department of A., which occupies the southern part of the old province of Champagne, and a small portion of Burgundy, is bounded on the N. by the Marne; on the E. by the Haute-Marne; on the S.W. by the Yonne; and on the N.W. by the Seine-et-Marne. The eastern part belongs to the basin of the A.; the western, to the basin of the Seine. Area, 2351 square miles. Pop. 255,687. The climate is mild, moist, and changeable; but on the whole healthy. A great portion of the area is arable land. The north-east is chiefly applied to pasturage; but the south-east is far more fertile, rich in meadow-land and forest, and producing grain, hemp, rape, hay, timber, and wine. In minerals, the department possesses little besides limestone, marl, and potters' clay. The chief manufactures are woollen cloth, cotton and linen goods, ribbons and stockings, leather, parchment, &c. The sausages and bacon of A. have long been famous. *Troyes* is the capital of the department.

AUBENAS, a town in France, in the department of Ardèche. It is picturesquely situated on the right bank of the Ardèche, 14 miles south-west from Privas, in the middle of the volcanic region of Vivarais. It looks well from a distance; but the streets, with the exception of one traversed by the diligence, are narrow and crooked, the squares small, and the houses very irregularly built. An old and rapidly decaying wall, flanked with towers, girds the town, which contains an ancient castle. A. is the principal mart for the sale of chestnuts and silk in the department. Several important fairs are also held here. It possesses in addition manufactures of silk, paper, cotton, coarse cloths, leather, &c., the machinery of the mills being driven by water. Pop. 4647.

AUBER, Daniel François Esprit, a composer of operas, was born at Caen in Normandy, January 29, 1784. His father was a printseller in Paris, and being desirous that his son should devote himself to business, he sent him to London to acquire a knowledge of the trade. But his irresistible passion for music obtained the upper-hand, and after a short stay, he returned to Paris. Among his earliest compositions may be noticed—the *concertos* for the violoncello, ascribed to Lamare the violoncellist; the concerto for the violin, played by Mazas with great applause at the Conservatory of Music, Paris; and the comic opera, *Julie*, with a modest accompaniment for two violins, two altos, and a bass. These works were very successful; but A., aspiring to greater things, now devoted himself to a deeper study of music under Cherubini, and wrote a mass for four voices. His next work, the opera *Le Séjour Militaire* (1813), was so coldly received that A. grew disheartened, and resolved to abandon the idea of reaching eminence as a musical composer. However, the death of his father compelled him to be dependent on his own resources; and in 1819 appeared *Le Testament et les Billets-doux*, which was also unsuccessful; but in *La Bergère Châtelaine* he laid the foundation of his subsequent fame. In all these early essays, as well as in the opera of *Emma* (1821), he displayed an original style; but afterwards he became an imitator of Rossini,

and disfigured his melodies with false decorations and strivings for effect. All his later works, excepting *La Muette de Portici* (Masaniello), produced in 1828, are written with an assumed mannerism, but in a light and flowing style, with many piquant melodies which have made the tour of Europe. The operas *Leicester* (1822), *La Neige* (1823), *Le Concert à la Cour*, and *Léocadie* (1824), *Le Macon* (1825), *Fiorella* (1826), *La Fiancée* (1829), *Fra Diavolo* (1830), were followed by a series of lighter works: *L'Elixir d'Amour*, *Le Dieu et la Bajadère*, *Les Faux Monnayeurs*, &c.; the later operas, *Gustave ou le Bal Masqué*, *Le Lac des Fées*, *Le Cheval de Bronze*, *Les Diamants de la Couronne*, *La Part du Diable*, *La Sirène*, and *Haydée*, exhibiting the same popular qualities as their predecessors; but their interest is evanescent, as they are deficient in depth of thought and feeling. His later works are *Jenny Bell* (1855), and *Manon Lescaut* (1856). In 1842, A. was appointed director of the Conservatory of Music, Paris. He died May 14, 1871.

AUBIGNE, MERLE D'. See MERLE D'AUBIGNÉ.

AUBIGNÉ, THEODORE AGRIPPA D', a famous French scholar, was born on 8th February 1550, near Pons in Saintonge. At an early period, he exhibited a remarkable talent for the acquisition of languages. Although come of a noble family, he inherited no wealth from his father, and consequently chose the military profession. In 1567, he distinguished himself by his services to the Protestant cause, and was subsequently rewarded by Henry IV., who made him vice-admiral of Guienne and Bretagne. His severe and inflexible character frequently embroiled him with the court; and after the death of Henry, he betook himself to Geneva, where he spent the remainder of his life in literary studies. He died April 29, 1630.

His best known work is his *Histoire Universelle*, 1550—1601 (Amsterdam, 1616—1620), which had the honour of being burned in France by the common hangman, as also his *Histoire Secrète, écrite par lui-même* (1721). A. was possessed of a spirit of biting satire, as is proved by his *Confession Catholique du Sieur de Sancy*, and his *Aventures du Baron de Fœneste*.

AUBRY DE MONTDIDIER, a French knight who lived in the times of Charles V., and, as tradition says, was assassinated in the forest of Bondy by Richard de Macaire in 1371. The latter became suspected of the crime on account of the dog belonging to the deceased Aubry invariably displaying towards him the most unappeasable enmity. Macaire was therefore required by the king to fight with the animal in a judicial combat, which was fatal to the murderer. This tale was afterwards, under the titles of *Aubry's Dog*, *The Wood of Bondy*, *The Dog of Montargis*, frequently acted, the 'dog' always gaining the greatest share of applause! After being performed with success at Vienna and Berlin, it was appointed to be played at the Weimar Theatre, of which Goethe was the manager; but the poet resigned his office before the dog made his *début*.

AUBURN, the name of 23 places in the United States. Of these, the most important is in the state of New York, on the railway between Albany and Buffalo. It is in lat. 42° 53' N., and long. 76° 40' W. Pop. (1870) 17,225. The outlet of Owasco Lake, which is two or three miles to the north, flows through the town, furnishing a water-power which is employed in mills of various kinds, and in manufactures of wool, cotton, carpets, iron, and paper. A. abounds in seminaries of education, but is perhaps most widely known for its state prison. The building itself is a large structure of stone; while the wall that encloses it is 30 feet high, and 500 long, on each of its four sides. The number of convicts sometimes exceeds 800; and their labour is said to be generally equal to the expenses of the establishment.

AUBUSSON, PIERRE D', grand master of the order of St John of Jerusalem, was born in 1423 of an ancient and noble French family. His early history is imperfectly known, but he is said to have borne arms, when very young, against the Turks in the wars in Hungary, and to have distinguished himself by the mingled zeal and valour he displayed. Here he acquired that intense antipathy to the 'Infidels' which subsequently animated his whole public career, and gave a peculiar bias to his ambition. Having returned to France, he accompanied the dauphin in his expedition against the Swiss, and was instrumental in securing their defeat at the battle of St Jacob near Basle. His mind, however, constantly reverted to the ominous encroachments in the East of the dreaded Mussulman, and at last he resolved to betake himself to Rhodes, where he enrolled himself among the brotherhood of Christian knights. Now, his history emerges into clear light, and assumes a very considerable importance. He swept the Levant, and chastised the pirates who prowled perpetually among the Greek isles, obtaining the approbation and regard of the grand master. In 1458, by his ardour and address he succeeded in forming a kind of Christian league between the French monarch and Ladislaus, king of Hungary, against Mohammed II. This was the great aim of A.'s life, the 'idea' which continually possessed him—viz., the necessity of a vast organisation of all Christendom to overthrow the power of the Turks. Step by step, through long years, he won his way to supreme power in his order. In 1476, he was elected Grand Master. It was a critical period for the civilisation and religion of Europe. Constantinople had recently been taken and the Byzantine empire destroyed by Mohammed II. Every day the conqueror marched further west. Thrace, Macedonia, Central Greece, Servia, Wallachia, Bosnia, Negropont, Lesbos, and the islands of the Adriatic, had been successively conquered by him. Proud of his rapid glories, and sustained by an immense prestige, the sultan threatened to dictate terms from Rome to the entire West. Rhodes, however, stood in his way, the sentinel isle of Christianity, on the great maritime route between Asia and Europe. Mohammed saw that the battle between the two faiths must begin here; and in May 1480, a Turkish army of 100,000 men, commanded by a Greek renegade, Palæologus, landed in the island, and commenced to besiege the town. Two desperate assaults were made. The Turks, however, were compelled to desist, and sailed away, leaving 9000 dead. Mohammed was enraged, and planned a second expedition, which was interrupted by his death at Nicomedeia in Asia Minor, May 1481. After this, A. took a leading part in the religious diplomacy of the papal court, and received from the pontiff many honours and privileges. Meanwhile, he exerted himself to improve and strengthen the internal organisation of the brotherhood, enriching the diplomatic code of his order with several wise statutes and regulations relative to the election of dignitaries, the finances, &c., and exciting great admiration throughout Christendom. In 1501, he was appointed generalissimo of the forces of the German emperor, the French king, and the pope, against the Turks; and in spite of his great age, he enthusiastically entered on his duties, and sailed to attack Mitylene; but the expedition failed on account of the discordant aims which the various belligerents had in view. Broken by disappointment and vexation, the grand master returned, and died at Rhodes in July 1503, at the age of 80.

AUCH, the capital of the department of Gers, in the south of France, situated on the river Gers, 42 miles west of Toulouse, lat. 43° 38′ N., long. 0° 35′ E. Pop. 9414. It is the seat of an archbishop, and possesses a museum of natural science, together with an old and beautiful cathedral, the painted windows of which are greatly admired. Its chief articles of trade are woollen and cotton stuffs, fruits, wine, and brandy.

In ancient times, it was called *Elimberis;* and at a somewhat later period took its name from the Ausci, whose chief town it was. In the 8th c., it became the capital of Gascony, and later, of the county of Armagnac.

AUCHE'NIA (from the Gr. *auchen*, the neck), a genus of ruminating quadrupeds, of which the Llama (q. v.) and the Alpaca (q. v.) are the best known. The genus is exclusively South American; indeed, the species occur only on the lofty ranges of the Andes. They are nearly allied to the camels, and may be regarded as their representatives in the zoology of America. They form, along with them, the family *Camelidæ* (see CAMEL), and were included by Linnæus in the genus *Camelus*. They agree with the camels in certain important anatomical characters, particularly in the structure of the stomach; and also resemble them very much in general form, in the long neck, small head, prolonged and movable upper lip, and small apertures of the nostrils. They differ from them partly in dentition, and partly in the more cloven feet and movable toes. The nails, also, are stronger and curved, and each toe is supported behind by a pad or cushion of its own; by all which the feet are admirably adapted for the rocky heights which the animals inhabit. The genus A. is by some naturalists called *Llama*.

AUCHTERARDER, a village in the south-east of Perthshire, on the west side of the Scottish Central Railway. Pop. (1871) 3795, chiefly employed in cotton-weaving. The popular opposition to the presentee to the church of A. originated (1839) the struggle which ended in the secession from the Church of Scotland and the formation of the Free Church in 1843.

AUCKLAND, BISHOP, a small town in the middle of the county of Durham. Pop. (1871) 8736. It stands on an eminence, 140 feet above the plain of the Wear. A. contains the abbey-like palace of the Bishop of Durham.

AUCKLAND, LORD, WILLIAM EDEN, an able statesman and diplomatist, third son of Sir Robert Eden, Bart., of West Auckland, Durham, born in 1744, educated at Eton and Oxford, and called to the bar in 1768. In 1772, he became Under-secretary of State, and one of the directors of Greenwich Hospital; was chosen M.P. for Woodstock; and in March 1776 appointed a lord of trade. In 1778, he was nominated, with the Earl of Carlisle and Governor Johnstone, a commissioner to treat with the insurgent colonists of North America, but without success. When the former was, in December 1780, named Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, he accompanied him as chief secretary, and remained there till April 1782. Accredited in 1785 minister plenipotentiary to the court of France, he concluded a commercial treaty with that country in September 1786; and in the following August signed a convention for preventing disputes between the subjects of the two crowns in the East Indies. In 1788, he went as ambassador to Spain; and on his return in October 1789, he was created an Irish peer as Baron A. In 1790 he was ambassador to Holland, and in May 1793 was created a British baron. From 1798 to 1801, he was joint Postmaster-general. He died suddenly, May 28, 1814. A. was the author of the *Principles of the Penal Law* (1771, 8vo); Four Letters, addressed to the Earl of Carlisle, on temporary political subjects (1779); *Remarks on the Apparent Circumstances of the War* (1795); *Speech on the Income-tax* (1799); *Speech in Support of the Union with Ireland* (1800); and other pamphlets.

AUCKLAND, EARL OF, GEORGE EDEN, governor-general of India, son of William Eden, Lord Auckland, born August 25, 1784, succeeded his father in 1814 as Lord A.; and in November 1833 joined Earl Grey's administration. In July following, in Viscount Melbourne's first ministry, he became First Lord of the Admiralty. He vacated that office in November of the same year, but was appointed to it again in 1846. In 1835 he went out to India as governor-general. He returned to England in 1841, and died unmarried, January 1, 1849.

AUCKLAND, the most northern of the provinces of New Zealand, includes fully a half of North Island, and is about 400 miles long by 200 wide, at its greatest breadth. A. has a coast-line of nearly 1200 miles; and is, in addition, remarkable for its rivers, which serve as carriage-ways for the produce of the interior. Pop. (1871) 62,335. There are three almost natural divisions of this province: North Peninsula, East Coast, and the Waikato Country—the latter two being mainly in the hands of the natives. Gold, copper, tin, iron, coal, and other minerals exist in A. The supply of an excellent household coal is plentiful; and springs of kerosene oil, tested to be good, have been found, but not yet worked to profit. The export of wool is large, and on the increase. The principal agricultural products are wheat, oats, barley, hay, and potatoes.

AUCKLAND, the largest city of New Zealand, capital of the above-named province, in lat. 36° 50′ S., and long. 174° 50′ E., was, till some years ago, capital of New Zealand, when the seat of government was transferred to Wellington, the chief city of the province of the same name. A. is distant from Sydney 12,036 miles; from Melbourne, 1650; and keeps up steam communication with these two cities. Picturesquely situated, its position for commerce is also excellent, as in addition to its harbour of Waitemata, it possesses also a western harbour, the Manakan, six miles distant. A. contains a well laid out botanical garden, and shews numerous public buildings, government house, barracks, &c. It supports three daily papers. A. was founded in 1840. Population (1871) 12,937. The temperature appears to be singularly equable. The mean of the coldest month is 51° F., and that of the warmest 68°. The annual rainfall is 45½ inches; and the days of rainfall average 100.

AUCKLAND ISLANDS, a group of islands to the south of New Zealand, being about the 51st parallel S., and the 167th meridian E. The largest of them measures 30 miles by 15. It has two good harbours, and is covered with the richest vegetation. The A. I. are valuable chiefly as a whaling station, being at the confluence, as it were, of the Pacific and Southern Oceans.

AUCTION (Lat. *auctio*). The character of this convenient mode of offering property for sale is correctly indicated by the name. The Latin word *auctio* means 'an increasing or enhancement,' and an A. is an arrangement for increasing the price by exciting competition amongst purchasers. What is called a *Dutch Auction*, in which the usual mode of proceeding is reversed, the property being offered at a higher price than the seller is willing to accept, and gradually lowered till a purchaser is found, is thus no A. at all in the original and proper sense of the term. The A. is of Roman origin, and is said to have been first introduced for the purpose

of disposing of spoils taken in war. Such sales were said to take place *sub hastâ* (under the spear), from the custom of sticking a spear into the ground, probably to attract purchasers to the spot. 'Conditions of Sale,' or 'Articles of Roup,' as they are called in Scotland, constitute the terms on which the seller offers his property, and form an integral part of the contract between seller and purchaser. The contract is completed by the offer or bidding on the part of the purchaser, and the acceptance by the seller or his representative, which is formally declared by the fall of the auctioneer's or salesman's hammer, the running of a sand-glass, the burning of an inch of candle (hence the term 'sale by the candle'), or any other means which may have been specified in the conditions of sale. These conditions or articles ought further to narrate honestly and fully the character of the object or the nature of the right to be transferred, to regulate the manner of bidding, prescribe the order in which offerers are to be preferred, and to name a person who shall be empowered to determine disputes between bidders, and in cases of doubt to declare which is the purchaser. Before the sale commences, these conditions, which are executed on stamped paper, are read over, or otherwise intimated to intending purchasers. The conditions, thus published, cannot be controlled by any verbal declaration by the auctioneer. The implied conditions, which, in addition to those thus expressed, are binding on the seller and purchaser in all auctions, are: 1. That the seller shall not attempt to raise the price by means of fictitious offers, but shall fairly expose his goods to the competition of purchasers; and 2. That the purchasers shall not combine to suppress competition. Much doubt has arisen as to the lawfulness of biddings for the exposer. The exposer may set a price below which the thing is not to be sold, which is best and most openly done by fixing an upset price, or he may expressly reserve to himself a power to offer. 'But if the sale is declared to be without reserve, or at the pleasure of the company, the plain meaning and effect of this, even in England, is held to be to bar all biddings in behalf of the seller.' 'In Scotland, the law condemns absolutely such interference.' 'It has been said, that if there be no upset price, and no agreement to sell at the pleasure of the company, the owner may bid, but that is not law, or is at least too broadly laid down.' Bell's *Commentaries*, i. 97, edit. 1858. The A. duties were repealed by 8 and 9 Vict. c. 15.

AUCTIONEER, the person who conducts an auction (q. v.). The A. is in a certain sense the agent both of seller and purchaser, and by the fall of his hammer, or by writing the purchaser's name in his book, he binds him to accept the article sold at the price indicated. The A. may also, and frequently does, act as agent for absent purchasers, or for persons who have instructed him to make biddings for them during the sale. In both cases, however, the purchaser must be *bonâ fide*, otherwise the A. would himself become a 'puffer.' As to the circumstances in which he may bid for the seller, see AUCTION. Where the A. declines or omits to disclose the seller's name, he undertakes his responsibilities to the purchasers. To the seller, again, he is responsible for ordinary skill, assiduity, and prudence. Every A. pays an annual duty of £10 to government for his licence, which must be renewed on the 5th July; though there are certain judicial sales which may be conducted by bailiffs without licence (see 19 Geo. III. c. 56, s. 3, and later Stamp Acts).

AU'CUBA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Cornaceæ* (q. v.), of which the only known species is *A. Japonica*, an evergreen shrub resembling a laurel, but with dichotomous or verticillate yellow branches, and, as seen in Europe, always with pale green leaves curiously mottled with yellow. It is dioecious, produces its small purple flowers in summer, and ripens its fruit, a small red drupe, in March. It is a native of China and Japan, and was originally introduced into Britain as a stove-plant, but is found to be at least as hardy as the common laurel, and is now a very common ornamental shrub, especially in the suburbs of large towns, a sort of situation for which it is particularly adapted, as it is very little liable to suffer injury from smoke. It is often called the Variegated Laurel. The mottled appearance of the leaf is said, however, not to belong to the plant in its ordinary natural state; but only this variety has yet been brought to Europe, and of it only the female plant.

AUDÆ'US, AUDI'US (or, according to his native Syriac name, *Udo*), the founder of a religious sect in Mesopotamia, flourished during the 4th c. He commenced by accusing the regular clergy of worldliness, impure morals, &c., and is said to have opposed to their manner of life a strict asceticism, until his conduct seemed dangerous to the welfare of the church, when he was excommunicated. His disciples, who were pretty numerous, now clung more closely to him, and he was elected their bishop. In 338 A. D., he was banished to Scythia, where he instituted a kind of rival church, and where he died about 370 A. D. Our knowledge both of his character and opinions is derived solely from inimical authorities, such as Augustine, Athanasius, &c., and is therefore to be accepted with caution. But his labours amongst the fierce barbarians in the north are acknowledged to have been beneficial, and one writer, Epiphanius, states that he ought to be considered *schismatical*, but not *heretical*. But if the leading feature of his system was, as is alleged, a decided tendency to anthropomorphism, we cannot see—according to the principles upon which the church usually proceeded—why he should not have been so called. He is said to have held that the language of the Old Testament justifies the belief that God has a sensible form—a doctrine deemed heretical in all ages of the church's history. This particular tenet took firm hold on many minds, and in the subsequent century, was widely spread through the monasteries of Egypt.

AUDE (*Atax*), a river in the south of France, rises in the east Pyrenees, not far from Mont Louis; flows for some time parallel to the canal of Languedoc; and falls into the Mediterranean 6 miles east-north-east of Narbonne, after a course of more than 120 miles.

AUDE, a maritime department in the south of France. It comprises some old 'counties' which formerly constituted a portion of the province of Languedoc. Pop. (1872) 285,297. Area, 2438 sq. m. The southern part of A. is mountainous, but the greater portion of it belongs to the valley of the lower A. and the canal of Languedoc. Its northern boundary is formed by the Black Mountains, the most southerly offsets of the Cevennes. The coast is flat, with no bays or roadsteads, but several lagunes. The climate is warm, but variable. The mountains are composed of granite, while the soil of the plains is chiefly calcareous, and about the coast—where salt and soda are procured—is extremely fertile, producing cereals, olives, fruits, and wines. A. is rich in iron and coal, and mineral springs. The woollen and silk manufactures are of considerable value. There is likewise a considerable export of corn, honey, &c. The chief town is Carcassone.

, Jean Baptiste, a distinguished ——ist, was born in 1759 at Rochefort; arts of design and painting at Paris; and ..le attained a degree of eminence as a ... er. Indulging a predilection for the ... history, he was much employed by ...inting the more rare and beautiful ... collections. In 1800, after having England and Holland for the purpose of ketches, he published at Paris, on his own a splendid volume, which raised him at once ity, both as a painter and author. This ... *Histoire Naturelle des Singes, des Makis, Idopithèques* (Natural History of Monkeys, and Flying Lemurs), was a large folio, with d plates, remarkable alike for their truth ... His method of colour-printing in oil, ... n novel but now common, was to dis... colours on one plate instead of using a plate for each colour. His use of gold and ... the illustrations and letterpress was then ...w as it is attractive. In his *Histoire des ...des Oiseaux-mouches, des Jacamars, et des ...s* (Natural History of Humming-birds, ... and Promeropses), he succeeded by the ...cess in giving to his plates even a greater ... and finish. He died in 1800.

...TOR (Lat. *audio*, I hear), the name ... certain officers appointed to examine ... in behalf either of the government, of ... law, of corporations, or of private persons. ... doubtless owes its origin to the old ... delivering accounts *viva voce*. - Audit- ... In 1785, public auditors were appointed, ...e title of 'Commissioners for Auditing ...lic Accounts,' by 25 Geo. III. c. 52, ... the patents of Lord Sondes and ...uitstuart, as *auditors of the imprests*, ...ated, the sum of £7000 per annum being ...rable to each of them for life, in lieu of a ... which had been paid them on the ... expenditure audited. Many subsequent ...ave been passed for the purpose of extend- ...efining the duties of these commissioners, ...ing the business of the audit-office. The ...ers of audit are empowered to call on all ...countants to account for moneys or stores ... to them; and should they fail to do so, ...ed to certify their names to the Remem- ...f the Exchequer, and the Attorney-general ...d or Ireland, or the Lord Advocate of Scot- ...rder that they may be proceeded against as ... These proceedings, however, may be ...r a time by the Lords of the Treasury, by ... whole arrangements of the audit-office are ..., on the application of the accused. The ... of the Ordnance, of the Army and Navy, ... and Revenue, are now subjected to exami- ...the audit-office. By 2 Will. IV. c. 99, the ...d functions of the Commissioners of Public ... in Ireland were transferred to the Commis- ...r Great Britain. The present establish- ...he audit-office consists of a chairman, five ...ers, a secretary, and a large number of ... and examiners. The patronage is in the ...the Treasury. —Auditor of the Court of ... Scotland, is an officer whose duties con- ...ring the costs of suits in which expenses ...due, a remit being made to him for that ...ather by a division of the court or a Lord ... The auditor returns a report to the judge ...king the remit, by whom decree is pro- ...s the amount of the taxed account. Objec- ...he auditor's report may be stated to the ...ourt. The nomination of the auditor is in ..., the office being held *ad vitam aut culpam*. In the inferior courts an officer with corresponding powers is usually appointed by the court in which he officiates. The office of auditor of the Court of Session corresponds in many respects to that of the taxing-masters in the Court of Chancery. In Germany the name auditor is applied to junior legal functionaries.

AUDITORY NERVE. By anatomists, the A. N. is associated with the facial, and is the seventh in order of origin from the brain, counting from before backwards. The seventh pair consists of the portio dura or facial, the portio mollis or auditory, and a small intermediate portion. The portio mollis apparently commences by some white streaks in the floor of the fourth ventricle; it then runs forward to the back of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and enters the internal auditory meatus. The facial then leaves it to pass along the canal called the Aqueductus Fallopii, and the auditory divides into two portions, which diverge—the smaller one posterior for the semicircular canals and the vestibule, the other for the cochlea. Those entering the semicircular canals divide into five branches, forming at last a nervous expansion somewhat analogous to the retina. Figs. 1 and 2 represent the A. N. (1) dividing into its two portions, the lesser branch supplying the semicircular canals (2), the larger branch supplying the cochlea (3). Fig. 1 represents the semicircular canals of the left side, with their bony rings round the membranous labyrinth. In this figure, the cochlea is cut in half longitudinally from base to apex, shewing a section of the spiral canal, with the nerve proceeding up through its

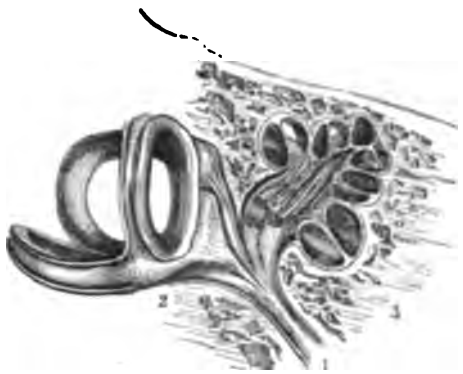


Fig. 1.—Left Auditory Nerve.

axis. Fig. 2 represents the membranous labyrinth (2), with the bony framework cut away, and with the cochlea opened so as to shew the manner in which the nerve spreads out in the spiral lamina.

Several theories have been held at different periods with regard to the manner in which the nerves terminate in the cochlea, and how sound is transmitted from the latter to the brain. The latest, and that which is at present entertained by most physiologists, is that of M. Schultze. It has been shewn by actual experiment, that when a nerve in connection with a muscle is acted upon by a succession of very rapid strokes from the little hammer of a tetanomotor, and when the strokes have arrived at a certain number in the second, a stimulus is sent along the nerve exciting the muscle to action. It is in the same way that M. Schultze supposes the impression of sound to be propagated to the nerves of the cochlea, by means of a series of little tetanomotors called the teeth of Corti, who discovered them. They are situated in the spiral lamina, which separates the spiral canal in the interior of the cochlea

into an upper and a lower half or scala. The spiral lamina consists of an osseous septum, next to the central axis of the cochlea, and of a membranous

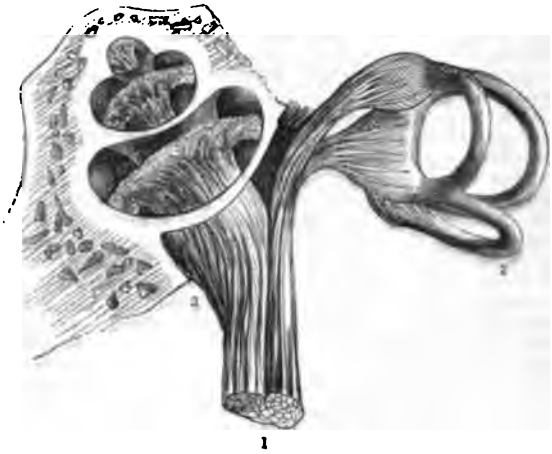


Fig. 2.—Right Auditory Nerve.

layer, which prolongs the osseous septum to the outer wall of the cochlea, thus completing the spiral lamina. This membranous septum is double, and between its layers there is a chamber which contains the teeth of Corti, ranged side by side throughout the whole length of the spiral lamina, and gradually getting shorter from base to apex, like the strings of a harp or pianoforte. The chamber is filled up by a tremulous jelly-like fluid. The diagram, fig. 3, represents a perpendicular section of the spiral

Fig. 3.

a, the osseous septum grooved for the passage of the cochlear nerve *b*, which terminates by a free end inside the chamber *c*, along the floor of which it lies for a short distance; *d*, *d* are the two layers of the membranous septum. Lying in contact with the end of the nerve is the enlarged extremity of a rod *e*, which is connected in a flail-like manner by the hinge *f* to another rod, which is fixed at *g*.

lamina. When the waves or vibrations of sound strike against the bones of the head, those bones are caused to vibrate; this vibration is transmitted through the head to the bones of the cochlea, which in turn set in motion the tremulous jelly which fills up the membranous chamber, c.

AUDLEY, Sir James, one of the original knights of the Order of the Garter, founded in 1344 by Edward III., on his return from France after the victory of Cressy, was frequently in personal attendance on Edward the Black Prince, whom he accompanied to France in 1346. He was so conspicuously brave at the battle of Poictiers, that the prince retained him as his own knight, and declared him to be the bravest soldier on his side. He conferred on him an annual revenue of 500 marks, which A. immediately gave up to his squires. This act of disinterestedness becoming known, the Black Prince conferred a further annual sum of 600 marks upon him. A. also accompanied the Black Prince into Spain, and in 1369 the office of seneschal of Poitou was conferred upon him. He took part in the capture of La-Roche-sur-Yon in Poit— same year, and died a few months after. ' attended his funeral obsequies at Poict

AUDRAN, Gérard, celebrated engravers of was born at Lyon in l to a family distinguishe in this department of art. After years' residence at Rome, where h under Carlo Maratti, and a reputation by his e Clement IX., he was by Colbert, and was app to his majesty Louis engraved the principal works with whom he lived on closest friendship. His a series of engravings illustrating battles of Alexander. He died at 1703.

AUDUBON, John J guished American or in Louisiana, United where his parents, wh had settled on a pl who was himself ar early directed his ral objects. The yo for the study of birds; and a specimens determined him to become About the age of fourteen, he went t studied for some time under the celebrat In 1798 he was settled on a farm in Pen by his father, but he did not distinguis as an agriculturist. In 1810 he sailed dow Ohio with his wife and child. on a bird expedition. The following y . he for a like purpose; and for continued his ornithological American woods, to the ne business. The latter he finally aba in 1824 he went to Philadelphia, where introduced to Prince Charles Lucien Bonap so warmly encouraged him in his determined on publication. After two exploration of the forests of his n came to Europe with the view to s for his work on *The Birds of America*, a warm reception from such men Cuvier, Humboldt, Brewster, Wilson, and Scott. The issue of his work was commen after, each bird being delineated coloured engravings were chiefly e late Mr W. H. Lizars of Edinburgh. completed in 87 parts, elephant folio plates. While the work was in proc in this country (it was finished in l America three times, in order to researches. In 1831, he began the publ. *American Ornithological Biograp* which was also completed in 1 finally returned to America, where, lished a reduced edition of his w Dr Buchanan, he also published *America*, and a *Biography of* He died, January 27, 1851, in

AUER, Alois, was born in Upper Austria, and was established in his native town to b corrector, and manager. Dur moments, A. employed hims ledge of French, Italian, L guages, in which he under in 1835 and 1836, before the His brilliant appearance

ambition the probability of a professorial
In October 1837, he was appointed profess
an in the college at Linz, in Upper Austria.
laboured assiduously in public and private
and published a variety of useful school-
a system peculiar to himself. In 1839
out on his travels through Germany,
land, France, and England, collecting mate-
his favourite art. From 1841 to 1868, he
rector of the National Printing-office at
In 1847 he was elected member of the
of Sciences. He made known a photo-
overy, 'spontaneous impression,' in *Die
ides Naturalhalzdrucker* (1864). He died in
published the *Sprachalle, or Lord's Prayer,
nguages*, with Roman types (1844); and the
Prayer in 200 *languages*, with their national
s (1847). See NATURE-PRINTING.

ACH, BERTHOLD, a popular German
Jewish extraction, was born at Nord-stet-
he Würtemberg Black Forest, February 28,
He received his education at Carlsruhe,
, Tübingen, Munich, and Heidelberg,
at an early period abandoned the study
ology, he devoted his attention to
first publications, *Judaism and
literature* (Stuttg. 1836), and a translation
ks of Spinoza, with a critical life of his
vols. Stuttg. 1841), had a philosophical
In his *Educated Citizen* (Carlsruhe,
nd *Village Tales of the Black Forest*
he applied himself to the portraiture of
and succeeded well. The *Village Tales*
d into English, Swedish, and Dutch,
generally admired. Among his other
re *Schrift und Volk* (1846); *Das Landhaus
n* (1869), a novel; *Wie wir unser; Gedenk
ar Geschichte dieser Tage* (1871), &c.

S, or AUGEIAS, according to one
son of Helios and Iphiboe, but accord-
s, of Phorbas and Hermione, was king of
renowned for his wealth in oxen, of which
0 head in his stables. When the dung
ds had been allowed to accumulate
y years, Hercules was commissioned by
us to cleanse the Augean stables in one
l was promised as payment a tenth part
oxen. Hercules accomplished the task,
ng the courses of the rivers Peneus and
ough the masses of ordure. When
to pay the stipulated wages, a war
nd A. was slain by Hercules. The fable of
ean stables often serves as an allusion in
ions on political corruptions, &c.

AU, PIERRE FRANÇOIS CHARLES, Duke
re, marshal and peer of France, one of the
nt and intrepid of that band of general
Napoleon gathered around himself, was
deaman, and was born 21st October 1757.
ing some time in the French carabiniers,
he enlisted at the age of seventeen, he
Neapolitan service, in which he remained
when he settled in Naples as a fencing-
With other French residents, he was
from that city in 1792, and immediately
ed into the French revolutionary army
for the repulsion of the Spaniards. His
were so conspicuous, that in less than three
was made general of a division. In 1795 he
ised the army to Italy, where he greatly
ed himself, especially in the field, but
council. He took an active part and
ry in the battles of Millesimo, Ceva,
(for which he received his title),
, &c. In 1797 he was appointed
to the command of the Army of the Rhine; but in a few months after, the Directory not liking the spirit he displayed there, made him commander of the tenth division at Perpignan. This post he resigned in 1799, when he was elected as deputy into the council of the Five Hundred. In 1801 he received the command of the army in Holland, and was active in several engagements. In 1804 he was made a marshal; and in the following year he commanded a division of the army which reduced the Vorarlberg; and was afterwards engaged at Wetzlar, Jena, Eylau; also in Italy (1809); Spain (1810); Berlin, Bavaria, and Saxony (1813). He died of water in the chest, June 11, 1816.

AUGITE (from Gr. *augē*, brilliancy), or PYROXENE (from Gr. *pyr*, fire, and *xenos*, a guest), a mineral very nearly allied to Hornblende (q. v.), which has, indeed, by some mineralogists been regarded as a variety of it, although the distinction between them is undeniably important, as characterising two distinct series of igneous rocks. A. consists of 47—56 per cent. of silica, 20—25 per cent. of lime, and 12—19 per cent. of magnesia, the magnesia sometimes giving place in whole or in part to protoxide of iron, and some varieties containing a little alumina, or a little protoxide of manganese. Its specific gravity is 3·195—3·525. It is little affected by acids, or not at all. It is usually of a greenish colour, often nearly black. It crystallises in six or

a, Common Augite; *b*, Green Augite.

eight-sided prisms variously modified; it often occurs in crystals, sometimes imbedded, often in grains or scales. It is an essential component of many igneous rocks, particularly of Basalt (q. v.), Dolerite, and Augite-porphyry (see PORPHYRY), from which chiefly it derives its importance as a mineral species. A. Rock, consisting essentially of A. alone, occurs in the Pyrenees. A. is a common mineral in the trap-rocks of Britain and other countries. It is rarely associated with quartz, in which respect it differs from Hornblende, but very often with labradorite, olivine, and leucite. Fluorine, which is generally present in small quantity in hornblende, has never been detected in A. The form of the crystals is also different in the two minerals, as well as their cleavage; but Professor Gustav Rose of Berlin has endeavoured to shew that the difference between A. and hornblende arises only from the different circumstances in which crystallisation has taken place, and that A. is the production of a comparatively rapid, and hornblende of a comparatively slow cooling. He regards some of the varieties as intermediate. His views have been supported by experiments, and by a comparison of A. with certain crystalline substances occurring among the scoriæ of foundries.—*Diopside, Sahlite*, and *Coccolite* are varieties of A.—*Diallage* (q. v.) and *Hypersthene* (q. v.) are very nearly allied to it.

AUGMENTATION, in Heraldry. See HERALDRY.

AUGMENTATION, in Music, is the reproduction of a melody, or principal subject of a composition, in the course of the progress of the piece, in notes of

greater length than those notes in which the melody is first introduced. The tempo remains unaltered. A. is of great importance in the treatment of the subjects, or themes, for fugues, and when cleverly used, produces great effects.

AUGMENTA'TION, Process of, in Scotch law, is an action in the Court of Teinds (q. v.) by the minister of a parish against the titular, or beneficiary, and heritors, for the purpose of procuring an increase to his stipend. The moderator and clerk of the presbytery to which the minister belongs must also be called as parties. By 48 Geo. III. c. 138, it is enacted that no A. shall be granted till the expiration of 15 years from any A. previous to the act, nor till the expiration of 20 years from any A. subsequent to the act. A period of 20 years must thus elapse between each augmentation. The amount of the A. is fixed, or modified, as it is termed, in grain or victual; the stipend itself being paid in money, according to the fiars' prices (q. v.) of each year. In addition to the ascertainment or modification of a suitable stipend, regard being had to the state of the teinds, the extent of the parish, the expense of living, and the like—a process of A. has the further object in view of *localling* the stipend so modified—i. e., of assigning it in due proportions to the heritors or other parties in possession of the tithes. This latter object is attained by means of what is called a scheme of locality—i. e., an allotment of the stipend modified to the several parties liable therefor. This scheme is prepared at the instance of the second junior Lord Ordinary (q. v.), on a remit from the Teind Court. The last conclusion in a summons of A. is for a suitable sum, or increase to the sum already allowed, for communion elements—i. e., for bread, wine, and other necessaries for celebrating the sacrament of the Lord's Supper after the Presbyterian fashion. When there is not a sufficient amount of teind to bring the stipend of the minister up to £150 per annum, with £8, 6*s.* 8*d.* for communion elements, it is provided by 50 Geo. III. c. 84, and 5 Geo. IV. c. 72, that the residue shall be paid by the Exchequer. In addition to their stipend, ministers have right to a manse and glebe, or a provision of £50 annually in lieu of them. See Stipend, Glebe, Manse; see also Parliamentary Church.

AU'GSBURG, historically one of the most notable cities in Germany, is situated in the angle between the rivers Wertach and Lech, and is the chief city of the circle of Swabia and Neuburg, in Bavaria. The population is (1871) 51,270. Though presenting an antique and rather deserted appearance, A. has numerous fine buildings, and especially one noble street, the 'imperial' Maximilian Strasse, adorned with bronze fountains. The industry of A. is reviving; several cotton and woollen factories are in operation, as well as manufactories of paper, tobacco, and machinery. Its gold and silver wares still retain their ancient reputation. The art of copper engraving is extinct; but printing, lithography, and bookselling have taken a new start. The *Allgemeine Zeitung*, the most widely circulated paper in Germany, is published here. In 1870 there were 10 printing-establishments and 34 book-shops. There are 74 breweries. Banking and stock-jobbing are extensively carried on; and it is still the emporium of the trade with Italy and Southern Germany. It is the centre of a system of railways connecting it with Nürnberg and Leipsic, with Switzerland, Munich, &c. The foundation of A. was the 'colony' planted by the Emperor Augustus, 12 B.C., after the conquest of the Vindelici, probably on the site of a former residence of that people. It was called *Augusta Vindelicorum*, and hence the present name. It became the capital of the province of Rhætia, was laid waste by the Huns in the 5th c., and came next under the dominion of the Frankish kings. In the war of Charlemagne with Thassilo of Bavaria, it was again destroyed. After the division of Charlemagne's empire, it came under the Duke of Swabia; but having become already rich by commerce, was able to purchase gradually many privileges, and finally became, in 1276, a free city of the empire. It now rose to greater consequence than ever, and had reached the summit of its prosperity by the end of the 14th c. About this time (1368), its aristocratic government was set aside for a democratic, which lasted for 170 years, till the aristocracy, favoured by Charles V., regained the ascendency. A. continued in great eminence for its commerce, manufactures, and art, till the war between Charles V. and the Protestant league of Schmalkald (1540). Along with Nürnberg it formed the emporium of the trade between Northern Europe and the south, and its merchants were princes whose ships were in all seas. See Fugger. It was also the centre of German art as represented by the Holbeins, Burkmair, Altdorfer, and others. Many diets of the empire were held in A., and the leading events of the Reformation are associated with its name. The discovery of the road to India by the Cape, and of America, turned the commerce of the world into new channels, and dried up the sources of A.'s prosperity. It lost its freedom with the abolition of the German empire in 1806, and was taken possession of by Bavaria.

AU'GSBURG CONFESSION, the chief standard of faith in the Lutheran Church. Its history is the following. With a view to an amicable arrangement of the religious split that had existed many since 1517, Charles V., as protector, had convoked a diet of the empire to Augsburg, 8th April 1530, and had required Protestants a short statement of which they departed from the Catholic Elector, John, of Saxony, therefore, in on his Wittenberg theologians, with head, to draw up articles of faith, to lay before at Torgau. The commissioned doctors took basis, in so far as pure doctrine was articles that had been agreed to conferences held at Marburg and form of resolutions of the Diet Germany against the doctrines of trinal articles supplemented, and newly added, were laid before Melanchthon then, taking the 28 articles foundation, began in Augsburg, in and advice of various Protestant theologians princes and other secular authorities document, which he first called which in the diet itself took the Luther was not present in Augsburg under the ban of the empire, but recourse to in its composition. were in German; the Confession was both and Latin; and Melanchthon laboured incessantly at its improvement till it was presented emperor, June 25. The character of the absence of Luther, had led him, in the composition of the document, to taining a spirit of love, forbearance as well as the utmost brevity and object, which only became gradually the meeting of the diet, was, in give a collected view of the belief Protestants, aiming at the same the calumnies of the Catholics foundation for measures of

rst part of the Confession contains 21 articles
and doctrine: 1. Of God; 2. Of Original Sin;
e Son of God; 4. Of Justification; 5. Of
g; 6. Of New Obedience; 7 and 8. Of the
; 9. Of Baptism; 10. Of the Lord's Supper;
Confession; 12. Of Penance; 13. Of the Use
ments; 14. Of Church Government; 15. Of
Order; 16. Of Secular Government; 17. Of
Second Coming to Judgment; 18. Of Free
9. Of the Cause of Sin; 20. Of Faith and
Works; 21. Of the Worship of Saints. The
nd more practical part, which is carried out
er length, contains seven articles on disputed
22. On the Two Kinds of the Sacrament;
Marriage of Priests; 24. Of the Mass; 25.
ssion; 26. Of Distinctions of Meat; 27. Of
nal Vows; 28. Of the Authority of Bishops.
document, signed by some six Protestant
nd two free cities, was read before the emperor
diet, 25th June 1530. Melanchthon, not
upon the Confession as binding, began shortly
make some alterations in its expression; at
1540, he published a Latin edition (*Confessio*
in which there were important changes
ns. This was especially the case with
on the Lord's Supper, in which, with a
nciliation, he endeavoured to unite the
Lutherans and Calvinists. This gave
equently to much controversy; orthodox
ism repudiated the alterations of Melanch-
d long continued to subject his memory to
use; though it is clear that Melanchthon and
rents contemplated no substantial departure
ne from the original Confession. It is not
the form of the Confession found in the
ndards is identical with the unaltered
two original documents—German and
Latin—before the diet have been lost. The
distinction between the orthodox Lutherans
reformed churches of Germany has all along
erence to the 'unaltered' or to the 'altered'
on. It was even a matter of controversy
the 'reformed' were entitled to the rights
to the Protestants by the Religious Peace of
g, concluded in 1555, on the ground of the
ed' Confession. Though the A. C. is still
adhered to by the Protestant churches of
y, it is confessedly no longer the expression
elief of the vast majority of the members,
at advances made by theology, and the
sions in public opinion and feeling.

'RG INTERIM. See INTERIM.

URIES AND AUSPICES. These terms
ar to every reader of Roman history, and
es, so frequently employed in English in
y and metaphorical sense, that a vague
their original meaning is caught up even
who know nothing of classical anti-

As, however, the entire religious and
life of the early Romans was deeply pene-
y the influence of their sacred superstitions,
amongst these auguries and auspices held a
st place, a clear conception of what they were
ter of considerable moment. The following
ts exhibit, in a condensed form, the sub-
f what is known on the subject.

almost all primitive nations, the Romans
that every unusual occurrence had a super-
gnificance, and contained, hidden in it, the
leaven regarding men. To reveal or inter-
hidden will, was the exclusive privilege of
r, who apparently derived his official desig-
n part at least, from *avis*, a bird; while
history abundantly proves that the observa-
the flight of birds was a principal means
adopted for discovering the purpose of the gods. It was not, however, any one who could be appointed an augur. The gods selected their own interpreters—that is to say, they conferred the divine gift upon them from their very birth; but an educational discipline was also considered necessary, and hence a 'college of augurs' figures in the very dawn of Roman history. Romulus, it is almost certain, was an augur himself. He is said to have been skilled in the art of divination from his youth; and by 'divination' we must specially understand augury; for the Romans, with patriotic piety, held all the forms of divination practised in other countries to be useless and profane. Previous to the Ogulnian law, passed in the year 307 B. C., there were only four augurs, who were selected from the patricians. By this law, however, the plebeians became eligible for the pontifical or augural offices, and five were immediately created. For more than two hundred years, the number continued the same, till Sulla, in 81 B. C., increased it to fifteen. Finally, in the first days of the Empire, when all parties, sick of the long civil wars, hurried to throw their privileges at the feet of the monarch who had brought peace into their homes, the right of electing augurs at his pleasure was conferred on Augustus, after which the number became indefinite.

At first, the augurs were elected by the *Comitia Curiata*; but as the sanction of the former was necessary to give validity to the acts of the latter, they could always 'veto' any elections which were obnoxious to them; so that the power of electing members to fill up vacancies naturally fell into the hands of the college itself, and so continued till 103 B. C., when a tribune of the people named Ahenobarbus carried a law by which it was enacted that for the future, vacancies in the augural and pontifical offices should not be filled up by those religious corporations themselves, but by a majority of certain picked tribes. This new law was occasionally repealed and re-enacted during the civil wars which lasted till the time of Augustus. The scramble for power, however, during these political vicissitudes, as well as the general advance of knowledge, had rendered its prophetic pretensions ridiculous in the eyes of educated people. By Cicero's time, it had lost its religious character altogether, but was still regarded as one of the highest political dignities, and coveted for the power it conferred.

The modes of divination employed by the augurs were five in number—*augurium ex coelo, ex avibus, ex tripudiis, ex quadrupedibus, ex diris*. The *first*, related to the interpretation of the celestial phenomena, such as thunder and lightning, was apparently of Etruscan origin, and held to be of supreme significance. The *second* related to the interpretation of the noise and flight of birds. It was not every bird, however, that could be a sure messenger of the gods. Generally speaking, those 'consulted,' as it was called, were the eagle, vulture, crow, raven, owl, and hen. The first two belonged to the class of *alites*, or birds whose *flight* revealed the will of the gods; the last four to the class of *oscines*, whose voice divulged the same. These two modes of augury were the oldest and most important. Of the other three, the auguries *ex tripudiis* were taken from the feeding of chickens; the auguries *ex quadrupedibus*, from four-footed animals—as, for instance, if a dog, or wolf, or hare, ran across the path of a Roman, and startled him by any unusual motion, he mentioned it to an augur, who was expected to be able to advise him what to do; the auguries *ex diris* (a vague kind of augury), from any trifling accidents or occurrences not included in the previous four—such as sneezing, stumbling, spilling salt on the table, &c.

At Rome, the auspices were taken on the summit

of the Capitoline Hill; and the ground on which the augur stood was solemnly set apart for the purpose. The latter then took a wand, and marked out a portion of the heavens in which his observations were to be made. This imaginary portion was called a *templum* (hence *contemplari*, to contemplate), and was subdivided into right and left. According as the birds appeared in either of these divisions were the auspices favourable or unfavourable. How vast the political influence and authority of the augurs must have been is seen from the fact, that almost nothing of any consequence could take place without their sanction and approval. The election of every important ruler, king, consul, dictator, or prætor, every civic officer, every religious functionary, was invalid if the auspices were unfavourable. No general could lawfully engage in battle—no public land could be allotted—no marriage or adoption, at least among the patricians, was held valid—unless the auspices were first taken, while the Comitia of the Centuries could be dispersed at a moment's notice by the veto of any member of the augural college.

We have employed the two terms, auguries and auspices, as synonymous. But a slight difference is perceptible between them: not the augurs only, but the chief magistrates of Rome (inheriting the honour from Romulus), held the 'auspices,' while the 'auguries' were exclusively in the possession of the former; but the mode of divination, and the end to be obtained by it, seem to have been the same in both cases.

The power of taking the auspices in war was confined to the commander-in-chief; and any victory gained by a legate was said to be won under the auspices of his superior, and the latter alone was entitled to a triumph. Hence has originated the very common phrase in our language, 'under the auspices' of some one, which usually denotes nothing more than that the person alluded to merely lends the influence of his name.

AU'GUST, the sixth month in the Roman year, which began with March, was originally styled *Sextilis*, and received its present name from the Emperor Augustus, on account of several of the most fortunate events of his life having occurred during this month. On this month he was first admitted to the consulate, and thrice entered the city in triumph. On the same month, the legions from the Janiculum placed themselves under his auspices, Egypt was brought under the authority of the Roman people, and an end put to the civil wars. (See Macrobius, i. 12.) As the fifth month, or *Quintilis*, had previously been styled Julius in honour of Julius Cæsar, a day was taken from February to make A. equal with July.

AUGUSTA, the name of two considerable cities in the United States.—1. A. is the capital of Maine, situated principally on the right bank of the Kennebec, which is here crossed by a bridge 520 feet long. Its lat. is 44° 19′ N., and long. 69° 50′ W. Up to A., the river is navigable for sloops from its mouth, a distance of 43 miles, in a straight line; while a dam, constructed immediately above the city, enables steam-boats to ply more than 20 miles above, as far as Waterville. A. is also a station on the railway between Portland and Bangor. The dam, too, which improves the navigation, has created a vast water-power, which is extensively employed for manufacturing purposes. Between 1830 and 1870, the population had increased from 3563 to 7808.—2. A. is the second city in Georgia, on the Savannah, 231 miles from its mouth. Its lat. is 33° 28′ N., and long. 81° 54′ W. Standing at the head of the navigation of the river, it is connected with the interior by the A. and Atlantic Railway, 170 miles long; while to the north again, it communicates with Charleston by means of the South Carolina Railway. The construction of the former of these lines was at first prejudicial to the city; but the internal improvement soon brought more business, though of a different kind, than it had taken away. Another cause of prosperity is a canal, which, from a point 9 miles up, brings the waters of the Savannah to the city on such a level as to furnish a fall of 35 or 40 feet—a water-power which is extensively and profitably employed. Of late years, the population has increased rapidly. In 1870, it numbered 15,389.

AUGU'STENBURG, a village of 800 inhabitants in the centre of the island of Alsen. It is noted for being the residence of the Duke of Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg, for its splendid 'stables,' and for the castle belonging to the ducal family.

AUGU'STI, a learned German theologian, born in 1772 at Eschenberga, near Gotha. He studied at Jena under the celebrated Griesbach, and afterwards devoted himself for some time to public teaching. In 1798, he became lecturer (*privat-docent*) in philosophy, and in 1800 he was appointed professor-extraordinary of the same. Three years after, he succeeded Ilgen in the chair of Oriental Literature; but his love of theological studies becoming predominant, he accepted the offer of a theological professorship in the university of Breslau, where he exerted a wide and beneficial influence. In 1819 he was transferred to Bonn, and made a director of the consistory at Cologne. Other ecclesiastical honours were conferred on him during the course of his life. He died on the 28th April 1841.

In the early part of his career, A. was a decided rationalist; but subsequently he returned to orthodox Lutheranism, more, perhaps, from the conservative bias of his nature, than from any profound conviction of the truth of the national creed. The change, however, was not accompanied, as is usual in such cases, with any intense bigotry. A. remained to the last a liberal-hearted Christian. His writings, marked by great learning, industry, and spirit, are much esteemed by his countrymen. The most important is his *Manual of Christian Archæology* (Leip. 1836—1837).

AUGUSTINE, AURELIUS ST, the greatest Latin fathers, was born at Tagaste, a t Numidia, on the 13th of November 354 A. D. father, Patricius, was poor, but of good f filled the office of magistrate. He continue till advanced in years, and was only baptised before his death. He does not seem to ha remarkable for any elevation of mind; on trary, one may fairly conclude, from his sa ments, that he was an irascible, kind-hearte more intent on his son's advancement in this than in that which is to come. His temper caused great sorrow to his gentle and pi who loved him faithfully, however, and f fore rewarded with the secret by which charm the evil spirit out of him. Patri anxious that A. should become a fine s noticed that not a few people in his day r ing large incomes by their 'wits.' A. w ingly sent to school at Madaura, and af to Carthage, to complete his studies. this, however, he had enjoyed ine of a religious education at m Monnica, had been his best i truly says: 'Whatever tr worth the life of faith, even by scientific culture, can b him in the example of his pi

The energy and penetrati

A. [illegible] the most flattering hopes. [illegible] Carthage, a joyous, ardent, a bright career of worldly pros- [illegible] open before him. But strong as temptations of Carthage were stronger. deep, impetuous, and passionate, thirsted nent. He had just reached the age when is conceived to be synonymous with plea- Carthage, the second city of the empire, was Rome in its sensual corruptions. A. fell. *nfessions*, he paints the frightful abyss into f himself plunged; nor does he seek to [illegible]; on the contrary, the shadow of his own forward over all his boyish life, and even a morbid zeal and acuteness in out what others, less censorious, might term lous errors of his childhood, but which to A. the parents of his subsequent vices, fore equally bad and equally reprehensible. had reached his eighteenth year, his mis- [illegible] son, who was named Adeodatus— [illegible]pressed along with him at Milan. The h appears to have first stirred his deeper life was a passage which he suddenly in the *Hortensius* of Cicero, treating of and dignity of philosophy. To use the Neander: 'The conflict now began in which lasted through eleven years of his the simplicity of the sacred Scriptures no attractions for his taste—a taste w rhetorical studies and the artificial dis- declamatory schools—especially as [illegible] now in the same tone and direction of the Emperor Julian, when the latter ducted to the Platonic theosophy; as, he found so many things in the doctrines hurch which, from want of inward experi- ld not be otherwise than unintelligible to ile he attempted to grasp, by the under- from without, what can be understood only inner life, from the feeling of inward wants, own inward experiences; so under these ces, the delusive pretensions of the Mani- s, which, instead of a blind belief on autho- l out the promise of clear knowledge and ctory solution of all questions relating to man and divine, presented the stronger as to his inexperienced youth.' A. now professed Manichæan. Returning to his wn, he lectured for a short time on 'gram- at is to say, on literature. Soon after- returned to Carthage, to pursue his pro- more favourable auspices. Here he [illegible] twenty-seventh year, his first work, *Pulchro*—a treatise on æsthetics, which rtunately been lost. About the same time ual nature became keener and more impera- demands. The futile speculations of the sect to which he had attached himself now apparent. He had a series of interviews rsations with Faustus, one of the most d teachers of Manichæism; and these so lisappointed his expectations, that he left ty in disgust and sad bewilderment, after rasted ten years in a fruitless search for and truth.

he went to Rome, followed by the tears, rs, and the anxieties of his excellent mother, not, however, bereaved of hope, for both her love were strong. After a short me, and proceeded to Milan, where a teacher of rhetoric. No change could re fortunate. At this time, the Bishop was the eloquent and devout St Ambrose. macy sprang up between the two. A. st to hear his friend preach. He was not, however, as yet a Christian. He had only emerged, as it were, from Manichæism—the region of night-clouds and shadows—and was now gazing on the gray dawn of the Platonic philosophy, prophetic of the noon-tide splendours of Christianity which were soon to burst upon his vision. Still, A. did not afterwards despise this preliminary training; he was too great and honest a man for that. He confesses that the Platonic writings 'enkindled in his mind an incredible ardour;' they awakened his deeper spiritual nature, which keenly upbraided him with his sins. Once more he studied the Bible, although from a purely Platonic point of view, and rather wishing to find in it 'those truths which he had already made himself acquainted with from the Platonic philosophy, but presented in a different form.' He began to think that Christ and Paul, by their glorious life and death, their divine morality, their great holiness, and manifold virtues, must have enjoyed much of that 'highest wisdom' which the philosophers thought confined to themselves. For some time he clung to his Platonic Christianity, and shaped the doctrines of the Bible according to it; but when he found that it was weak to overcome temptations, and that 'he himself was continually borne down by the ungodly impulses which he thought he had already subdued,' the necessity of a living personal God and Saviour to rescue him from the condemnation of his own conscience, and impart a sanctifying vitality to the abstract truths which he worshipped, shone clear through all the stormy struggles of his heart. In the eighth and ninth books of his *Confessions*, he has left a noble though painful picture of his inward life during this momentous crisis. It is sufficient to say, that the Spirit of God triumphed. On the 25th of April 387 A.D., A., along with his natural son Adeodatus, of whom he seems to have been justly fond, was baptised by Ambrose at Milan. Shortly after, he set out on his return home. At Ostia, on the Tiber, his beloved mother, who had followed him to Milan, died; her eyes had seen the salvation of her son, and she could depart in peace. After her death, and before leaving Italy for Africa, A. wrote his treatises, *De Moribus Ecclesiæ Catholicæ et de Moribus Manichæorum*; *De Quantitate Animæ*; and *De Libero Arbitrio*. It is unnecessary to relate at any length the subsequent life of Augustine. His character and principles of action had become fixed, and he now brought the whole majesty of his intellect to bear upon the side of Christianity. Having, as was then customary for converts, divided his goods among the poor, he retired into private life, and composed several treatises *De Genesi Contra Manichæos*, *De Musicâ*, *De Magistro*, and *De Veri Religione*, which secured him a high reputation. In 391, he was ordained a priest by Valerius, Bishop of Hippo; and during the next four years, though earnestly engaged in the work of preaching, contrived to write three different works. In 395, he was made colleague of Valerius. Then ensued a period of hot strife, known in church history as the Donatist and Pelagian controversies. A., as may naturally be supposed, having passed through so fierce a fire of personal experience on religious questions, would be very jealous both of what he *knew* to be the truth, and of what he only *thought* to be the truth. This, added to his acute and profound intellect, made him, in spite of the poverty of his historical erudition, a most formidable and relentless antagonist. But this portion of his career will fall to be treated more properly under PELAGIUS and PELAGIANISM (q.v.). In 397, appeared his *Confessiones*, in 13 books. It is a deep, earnest, and sacred aut [illegible] of one of the greatest intellects the w [illegible]ves of it have no paral [illegible] of

David. In 413, he commenced his *De Civitate Dei*, and finished it in 426. It is generally considered his most powerful work. Exception may be taken to much that it contains. The learning is no doubt very considerable, but it is not accurate. A. was an indifferent scholar: he had studied the Latin authors well; but of Greek 'he knew little, and of Hebrew, nothing.' Many of his reasonings are based on false and untenable premises, and he erred often in his etymological explanations; but in spite of these and other drawbacks, the final impression left on the mind is, that the work is one of the most profound and lasting monuments of human genius. In 428, A. published his *Retractationes*, in which he makes a recension of all his previous writings. It is a work of great candour. He frankly acknowledges such errors and mistakes as he had discovered himself to have committed, explains and modifies numerous statements, and modestly reviews his whole opinions. His end was now drawing nigh. In 429 the Vandals, under the barbarian Genseric, landed in Africa; next year they besieged Hippo. A., now in his seventy-sixth year, prayed that God would help his unhappy church, and grant himself a release out of this present evil world. He died on the 28th of August 430, in the third month of the siege.

No mind has exerted greater influence on the church than that of Augustine. Consistency of theological opinion is not to be looked for from him, nor from any of the church fathers. A larger sphere of freedom was permitted to religious speculation in those unfettered days, before creeds were encircled with that traditionary sanctity they now possess. Nevertheless, we have little difficulty in determining the central tenets of his theological belief. He held the corruption of human nature through the fall of man, and the consequent slavery of the human will. Both on metaphysical and religious grounds, he asserted the doctrine of predestination, from which he necessarily deduced the corollary doctrines of election and reprobation; and finally, he strenuously supported, against the Pelagians, not only these opinions, but also the doctrine of the perseverance of the saints. At the same time, it is but fair to add that, even on such points, his language is far from uniform; that much of the severity of his doctrines arose from the bitter and painful remembrance of his own early sins, and from the profound impression which the corrupt state of society in his time, and the vast desolations of barbarism, had made on his earnest and susceptible soul; and that, in his desire to give glory to God, he sometimes forgot to be just to man. In illustration of this may be mentioned the fact (see Neander, Mosheim, and Waddington's Church Histories), that the maxim which justified the chastisement of religious errors by civil penalties, even to burning, was established and confirmed by the authority of A., and thus transmitted to following ages. In his epistle to Dulcitius, a civil magistrate, who shrank from putting in force the edict of Honorius against heretics, he uses these words: 'It is much better that some should perish by their own fires, than that the whole body should burn in the everlasting flames of Gehenna, through the desert of their impious dissension.' In the opinion of Neander, it was to the somewhat narrow culture, and the peculiar personal experience and temperament of Augustine, that the doctrines of absolute predestination and irresistible grace, first systematised by him, owed much of that harshness and one-sidedness which so long obstructed their general reception by the church, and which continue to render them repulsive to multitudes.

His life has been written by Tillemont, and his entire works have been repeatedly edited. The Benedictine edition, published at Paris in 11 vols. (1679–1700, is the best. Numerous editions of the *Confessions* and the *De Civitate Dei* have also appeared. In the 'Library of Fathers of the Holy Catholic Church,' published by J. H. Parker, there are translations into English of A.'s *Confessions*, *Exposition on St John's Gospel*, and *on the Psalms*, *Sermons on the New Testament*, and *Short Treatises*. His *Sermon on the Mount* has been translated by Trench, and published by Parker and Son.

AUGUSTINE, St, first Archbishop of Canterbury, was originally a monk in the convent of St Andrew at Rome. In 596 he was sent, along with forty other monks, by Pope Gregory I., to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity, and establish the authority of the Roman see in Britain. The missionaries were kindly received by Ethelbert, king of Kent, whose wife Bertha, daughter of the king of the Parisians, was a Christian, and retained a Frankish bishop in her suite as chaplain. A residence was assigned to them at Canterbury, then called *Dorovernum*, where they devoted themselves to monastic exercises and preaching. The conversion and baptism of the king contributed greatly to the success of their efforts among his subjects, and it is recorded that in one day A. baptised 10,000 persons in the river Swale. Nominal as much of this conversion must have been, there is abundant testimony to the fact, that a marked improvement in the life and manners of the Anglo-Saxons followed the evangelistic labours of A. and his companions.

In 597 he went to Arles, by direction of the pope, and was there consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury and Metropolitan of England. On his return, he despatched a presbyter and monk to Rome, to inform the pope of his success, and obtain instruction on certain questions. Gregory's advices with regard to the propagation of the faith are admirable examples of that pious ingenuity which has often characterised the missionary policy of the Church of Rome. Thus, instead of destroying the heathen temples, A. was recommended to convert them into Christian churches, by washing the walls with holy water, erecting altars, and substituting holy relics and symbols for the images of the heathen gods. A.'s subsequent efforts to establish his authority over the native British church were not so successful as his missionary labours. He died in 604, and was buried in the churchyard of the monastery bearing his name, founded by King Ethelbert. His body was removed to the cathedral of Canterbury in 1091. Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum* is the great authority for the life of St Augustine. A thoughtful and pleasing sketch of it will be found in the Rev. Arthur P. Stanley's *Historical Memorials of Canterbury*. Lond. 1855.

The site and remains of St A.'s monastery were purchased in 1844 by Mr Beresford Hope, by whom they were presented to the Archbishop of Canterbury in trust, for the erection of a missionary college in connection with the Church of England. This institution was incorporated by royal charter in 1848. The buildings, in which as much of the ancient structure as possible has been preserved, contain accommodation for about 45 students, whose course of study extends over three years. Twenty exhibitions have been founded in connection with the college.

AUGUSTINES, or AUGUSTINIANS, name given to several religious bodies in the Roman Catholic Church. Whether St Augustine ever framed any formal rule of monastic life, is uncertain; but one was deduced from his writings, and was adopted by as many as thirty monastic fraternities, of which the chief were the Canons Regular, the Knights

Templars (q. v.), the Begging Hermits, the Friars Preachers or Dominicans (q. v.), and the Premonstratensians (q. v.). The CANONS REGULAR OF ST AUGUSTINE, or AUSTIN CANONS, appear to have been founded or remodelled about the middle of the 11th c. Their discipline was less severe than that of monks properly so called, but more rigid than that of the secular or parochial clergy. They lived under one roof, having a common dormitory and refectory. Their habit was a long cassock, with a white rochet over it, all covered by a black cloak or hood, whence they were often called Black Canons. In England, where they were established early in the 12th c., they had about 170 houses, the earliest, it would seem, being at Nostell, near Pontefract, in Yorkshire. In Scotland, they had about 25 houses: the earliest at Scone was founded in 1114, and filled by canons from Nostell; the others of most note were at Inchcolm in the Firth of Forth, St Andrews, Holyrood, Cambuskenneth, and Inchaffray.

The BEGGING HERMITS, HERMITS OF ST AUGUSTINE, or AUSTIN FRIARS, were a much more austere order, renouncing all property, and vowing to live by the voluntary alms of the faithful. They are believed to have sprung from certain societies of recluses who, in the 11th and 12th centuries, existed especially in Italy without any regulative constitution. At the instigation, as is alleged, of the rival fraternities of Dominicans and Franciscans, Pope Innocent IV., about the middle of the 13th c., imposed on them the rule of St Augustine, whom they claimed as their founder. In 1256, Pope Alexander IV. placed them under the control of a superior or president called a 'general.' In 1287, a code of rules or constitutions was compiled, by which the order long continued to be governed. About 1570, Friar Thomas of Jesus, a Portuguese brother of the order, introduced a more austere rule, the disciples of which were forbidden to wear shoes, whence they were called *discalceati*, or 'barefooted friars.'

The degeneracy of the order in the 14th c., called into existence new or reformed Augustinian societies, among which was that Saxon one to which Luther belonged. But in his day, even these had fallen victims to the general corruption of the priesthood, and he inflicted serious injury upon it by his unsparing denunciations. After the French Revolution, the order was wholly suppressed in France, Spain, and Portugal, and partly in Italy and Southern Germany. It was diminished even in Austria and Naples. It is most powerful in Sardinia and America.

The name of AUGUSTINES was given also to an order of nuns who claimed descent from a convent founded by St Augustine at Hippo, and of which his sister was the first abbess. They were vowed to the care of the sick and the service of hospitals. The Hôtel-Dieu at Paris is still served by them.

AUGU'STULUS, ROMULUS, the last emperor of the western portion of the Roman empire. His name was Augustus, but the diminutive title under which he is universally known was given him by the Romans on account of the essential littleness of his character. He was the son of Orestes, a Pannonian of birth and wealth, who rose to high rank under the Emperor Julius Nepos, whose favour he repaid by stirring up the barbarian troops in the pay of Rome to mutiny against him. On the flight of the emperor, Orestes conferred the vacant throne on his son A. (476 A. D.), retaining all substantial power in his own hands. Orestes, failing to conciliate the barbarians, who had helped him against Nepos, with a grant of the third of the lands of Italy, they, under the command of Odoacer, besieged him in Pavia, and capturing, put him to death. A. yielded at once, and being of too little consequence to be put to death, he was dismissed to a villa near Naples with an annual pension of 6000 pieces of gold. His after-fate is unknown.

AUGU'STUS, CAIUS JULIUS CÆSAR OCTAVIANUS, the son of Octavius and Atia (daughter of Julia, the younger sister of Julius Cæsar), was born 23d September B. C. 63. The Octavian family came originally from Velitræ, in the country of the Volsci; and the branch from which A. descended was rich and honourable. His father had risen to the rank of senator and prætor, but died in the prime of life, when A. was only four years old. A. was carefully educated in Rome under the guardianship of his mother and his step-father, Lucius Marcius Philippus. At the age of 12, A. delivered a funeral oration over his grandmother; at 16, he received the toga virilis. The talents of the youth recommended him to his grand-uncle, Julius Cæsar, who adopted A. as his son and heir. At the time of Cæsar's assassination (March 15, B. C. 44), A. was a student under the celebrated orator Apollodorus, at Apollonia in Illyricum, where, however, he had been sent, chiefly with a view to gain practical instruction in military affairs. He returned to Italy, assuming the name of Julius Cæsar Octavianus, and at his landing at Brundusium, was welcomed by deputies from the veterans there assembled; but declining their offers, he chose to enter Rome privately. The city was at this time divided between the two parties of the republicans and the friends of Mark Antony; but the latter had, by adroit manœuvres, gained the ascendency, and enjoyed almost absolute power. A. was at first haughtily treated by the consul, who refused to surrender the property of Cæsar. After some fighting, in which Antony was worsted, and had to flee across the Alps, A., who had made himself a favourite with the people and the army, succeeded in getting the will of Julius Cæsar carried out. He found an able friend and advocate in Cicero, who had at first regarded him with contempt. The great orator, while imagining that he was labouring in behalf of the republic, was in fact only an instrument for raising A. to supreme power. When Antony returned from Gaul with Lepidus, A. joined them in establishing a triumvirate. He obtained Africa, Sardinia, and Sicily; Antony, Gaul; and Lepidus, Spain. Their power was soon made absolute by the massacre of those unfriendly to them in Italy, and by victories over the republican army in Macedonia, commanded by Brutus and Cassius. After the battle of Philippi, won by A. and Antony, of which the former unjustly claimed all the credit, whereas it mainly belonged to the latter, the triumvirs made a new division of the provinces A. obtaining Italy, and Lepidus, Africa. The Perusian war, excited by Fulvia, wife of Antony, seemed likely to lead to a contest between A. and his rival; but was ended by the death of Fulvia, and the subsequent marriage of Antony with Octavia, sister of Augustus. Shortly afterwards, the claims of Sextus Pompeius and Lepidus having been settled by force and fraud, the Roman world was divided between A. and Antony; and a contest for supremacy commenced between them. While Antony was lost in luxurious dissipation at the court of Cleopatra, A. was industriously striving to gain the love and confidence of the Roman people, and to damage his rival in public estimation. At length war was declared against the queen of Egypt, and at the naval battle of Actium (q. v.), B. C. 31, A. was victorious, and became sole ruler of the whole Roman world. Soon afterwards, Antony and Cleopatra ended their lives by suicide. The son of Antony by Fulvia, of Cæsar and Cleopatra, were in B. C. 29, after disposing of

Greece, Syria, and Asia Minor, A. returned to Rome in triumph, and closing the temple of Janus, proclaimed universal peace.

His subsequent measures were mild and prudent. To insure popular favour, he abolished the laws of the triumvirate, adorned the city of Rome, and reformed many abuses. At the end of his seventh consulship (B. C. 27), he proposed to retire from office, in order that the old republican form of government might be re-established, but he was ultimately induced to retain his power. Hitherto, since Cæsar's death, the consul had been named Octavian; but now the title of *Augustus* (meaning 'sacred' or 'consecrated') was conferred on him. In the eleventh consulship of A. (B.C. 23), the tribunitian power was conferred on him for life by the senate. Republican names and forms still remained, but they were mere shadows. A. was in all but name absolute monarch. In 12 B.C., on the death of Lepidus, he had the high title of Pontifex Maximus, or High Priest, bestowed on him. The nation surrendered to him all the power and honour that it had to give.

After a course of victories in Asia, Spain, Pannonia, Dalmatia, Gaul, &c., A. (9 B.C.) suffered the greatest defeat he had sustained in the course of his long rule, in the person of Quintilius Varus, whose army was totally destroyed by the Germans.

This loss so afflicted A., that for some time he allowed his beard and hair to grow, as a sign of deep mourning, and often exclaimed: 'O Varus, restore me my legions!' From this time A. confined himself to plans of domestic improvement and reform, and so beautified Rome, that it was said, 'A. found the city built of bricks, and left it built of marble.' He also founded cities in several parts of the empire; and altars were raised by the grateful people to commemorate his beneficence; while by a decree of the senate, the name Augustus was given to the month Sextilis.

Though surrounded thus with honour and prosperity, A. was not free from domestic trouble. The abandoned conduct of his daughter Julia was the cause of sore vexation to him. He had no son, and Marcellus, the son of his sister, and Caius and Lucius, the sons of his daughter, whom he had appointed as his successors and heirs, as well as his favourite step-son Drusus, all died early; while his step-son Tiberius was an unamiable character whom he could not love. Age, domestic sorrows, and failing health, warned him to seek rest; and, to recruit his strength, he undertook a journey to Campania; but his infirmity increased, and he died at Nola (August 19, A.D. 14), in the seventy-seventh year of his age. According to tradition, shortly before his death, he called for a mirror, arranged his hair neatly, and said to his attendants: 'Have I played my part well? If so, applaud me!' A. had consummate tact and address as a ruler and politician, and could keep his plans in secrecy while he made use of the passions and talents of others to forward his own designs. The good and great measures which marked his reign were originated mostly by A. himself. He encouraged agriculture, patronised the arts and literature, and was himself an author; but only a few fragments of his writings have been preserved. Horace, Virgil, and all the most celebrated Latin poets and scholars, were his friends. His was the *Augustan Age* of literature. His death threw a shade of sorrow over the whole Roman world; the bereaved people erected temples and altars to his memory, and numbered him among the gods.

AUGUSTUS, Elector of Saxony (1553—1586), son of Duke Henry the Pious, and of Katherine of Mecklenburg, was born July 31, 1526, at Freiberg, then the seat of his father's court. While still a youth, he spent some time at Prague, and there formed an intimate friendship with Maximilian, King Ferdinand's son, afterwards Emperor of Germany. In 1548 he married Anna, daughter of Christian III. of Denmark, who was universally popular on account of her devoted adherence to Lutheranism and of her domestic worth. After the death of his brother, Maurice, in 1553, A. succeeded to the electorate. His rule is chiefly noticeable as bearing upon the history of the newly established Protestant Church. Equally intolerant and inconsistent in his theology, A. first used his utmost influence in favour of the Calvinistic doctrine of the sacraments; and then, in 1574, adopted the Lutheran tenets, and persecuted the Calvinists. On the other hand, however, it must be owned, to his honour, that, by his skilful internal administration, he raised his country far above the level of any other in Germany, introducing valuable reforms both in jurisprudence and finance, and giving a decided impetus to education, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. He even wrote a book on the management of orchards and gardens, and commanded that every newly-married pair should, within the first year of their marriage, plant two fruit-trees. The Dresden Library owes its origin to him, as do also most of its galleries of art and science. His own favourite private pursuit was that of alchemy, in which the Electress Anna also took a part. In the January of 1586—the electress having died in the previous year—A. married a young princess of Anhalt, but died a month after, and was buried in the cathedral of Freiberg. He was succeeded by his son, Christian I.

AUGU'STUS II., FREDERICK, commonly called the Strong, Elector of Saxony and king of Poland, second son of the elector, John George III., and of the Danish princess, Anna Sophia, was born at Dresden in 1670. His extraordinary strength was developed by a careful physical education, and his mental faculties more successfully cultivated than his morals. From 1687 to 1689 he travelled over the greatest part of Europe, but was prohibited by his father from visiting Rome. Upon his father's death (1691), he went to Vienna, and there formed an intimacy with Joseph, king of Rome, which materially influenced his politics. When, in 1694, he succeeded to his brother George as Elector, instead of turning his arms against France, according to previous arrangement, he undertook the command of the Austro-Saxon army against the Turks in Hungary. After the battle of Olasch, in 1696, he returned to Vienna as a candidate for the throne of Poland, vacated by John Sobieski. Bidding higher than Prince Conti for the crown (10 million Polish florins), and adopting the Catholic faith, he was elected king by the venal nobles; and having, by his imposing force, awed the adherents of Conti, he was crowned at Cracow, 15th September 1697. On ascending the throne, he promised to regain, for his new kingdom, the provinces that had been ceded to Sweden; but his efforts to do this only led to the defeat of himself and his allies, his own deposition as king of Poland, the election of Stanislaus Leczynski, and the ignominious peace of Altranstädt in 1706. So complete was his humiliation, that A. was compelled to send a letter of congratulation to the new Polish king, together with all the crown-jewels and archives. However, on receiving intelligence of the defeat of Charles XII. at Pultowa, in 1709, he declared the treaty of Altranstädt annulled, marched with a powerful army into Poland, formed a fresh alliance with the czar, and recommenced a war with Sweden, which continued raging with redoubled fury, till the death of Charles XII. at Frederickshall, in 1718, gave a new aspect to affairs, leading first to

…nd eventually to a peace with Sweden. … a confederation, headed by a Polish … had been formed against the Saxons, and … them with much success, till, in 1716, … mediation of the czar, a compact was … between the Poles and A., agreeably to which … troops l… the kingdom. The king now … lf obl… … to employ conciliation, and the … … lute court soon won the favour … …, who followed his example but … Saxony had bitter cause to regret the … crowns. Its resources were shame… …ered, even when want and famine were …, on the adornment of the capital, on the …tresses, his illegitimate children, and the … who deluded him with hopes of the elixir … A. supported the fine arts as ministering …y, but did little for the cause of science. … in principle, though easy in temper; ambi… …well as luxurious; reckless alike in the … war and pleasure, death overtook him in … of projected festivities. On his way to … diet, gangrene of an old wound set … died in February 1733, and was buried … By his wife—a Protestant, and daughter … …ave of Brandenburg-Kulmbach—he … …, who succeeded to him. The most … of his numerous illegitimate offspring—it is affirmed, to somewhere about 300 …ce, Count of Saxony.

…US III., Frederick, Elector of Saxony … Poland, the son and successor of the … born in October 1696, and carefully … by his mother in the Protestant faith. At … of fifteen, however, he left her tutelage for … Germany, France, and Italy, where … religion, secretly professing Catho… …logna, in 1712, though the fact was …y known in Saxony till five years … …s possible that an eye to the crown of … and to an alliance with one of the Austrian …ss, may have had something to do with …p. After succeeding his father in the …e in 1733, he was chosen king of Poland …art of the nobility; and triumphing over …al claims of Stanislaus Leszcynski, sup… by Louis XV., was unanimously proclaimed … later. He inherited his father's sump… …s, though not his talents; and his … cultivated by his Italian tour, enriched … of Dresden with noble paintings. The …t of his country he made over entirely … minister, Count von Bruhl, whose whole … system consisted in complete dependence … In 1742, alarmed at the increased … Russia had obtained by the conquest of … A. formed an alliance with Maria Theresa; … secret treaty of Leipsic, contracted to … with 50,000 men. But their united troops … utely routed by the Prussians in 1745; … …rick II. pushing on into Saxony, A. had … from his capital, saving his art-treasures, … ring his state-papers in the hands of the …or. In 1746, the peace of Dresden restored … tony; but the close of the year again saw … broiled with Prussia. Joining the camp at … he narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, … d to flee to Poland, where his popularity, … very great, was much diminished by his … …verses in Saxony, added to which the … … ine of Russia used every effort to … … being an ally of France. At the … … the peace of Hubertsburg, A. returned … where he died in 1763. His son, … …n, succeeded him in the electorate, … … stowski became king of Poland.

AUK (*Alca*), a genus of web-footed birds, the type of a family called *Alcadæ*, which was in great part included in the Linnæan genus *Alca*, and to many of the species of which, now ranked in other genera, the name A. is still popularly extended. The *Alcadæ* are amongst those web-footed birds collectively called *Brachypterra* (i. e., short-winged) or Divers by Cuvier, remarkable for the shortness of their

Great and Little Auks.

wings, which they employ as fins or paddles for swimming under water, some being even incapable of flying; and for the position of their legs, further backward than in other birds, which makes walking difficult, and compels them, when on land, to maintain an upright attitude. They are distinguished by the very compressed bill, which, in the true auks, is vertically elevated, and so sharp along the ridge as to resemble the blade of a knife; and by their entirely palmated feet, destitute of hind toes. The auks are entirely confined to the seas of the northern hemisphere—the penguins taking their place in the southern—and are most abundant in the colder regions. All of them have a dense plumage, which generally exhibits on its surface a beautifully polished appearance and silvery lustre. The genus *Alca*, as restricted by Cuvier and others, contains only two species, distinguished from the Puffins (q. v.), which also belong to this family, chiefly by the greater length of the bill, and its being covered with feathers as far as the nostrils. The bill, both in the auks and puffins, is transversely and strongly grooved. But even the two known species of the restricted genus *Alca* differ from one another in a most important particular—the wings of the one, the Great A., being so short that it is quite incapable of flight, like the penguins, of which it may be deemed the true northern representative, whilst the other, the Razor-bill, has comparatively long wings, and flies well.—The Great A. (*Alca impennis*) is as large as a goose. It is an inhabitant of the most northerly shores, and a very rare visitant of those of the Orkney and Shetland Islands and the Hebrides. It is almost equally rare in Norway and Sweden, and has nearly disappeared even from Iceland and Greenland, and from localities on the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland, where it is said to have been formerly frequent. The rapidity with which this bird moves under water is extraordinary: one of them has been pursued by a six-oared boat for hours in vain. Like most of the *Alcadæ*, the Great A. lays only one egg, which is very large, about five inches in length, and three in its greatest breadth.

greater length than those notes in which the melody is first introduced. The tempo remains unaltered. A. is of great importance in the treatment of the subjects, or themes, for fugues, and when cleverly used, produces great effects.

AUGMENTA'TION, Process of, in Scotch law, is an action in the Court of Teinds (q. v.) by the minister of a parish against the titular, or beneficiary, and heritors, for the purpose of procuring an increase to his stipend. The moderator and clerk of the presbytery to which the minister belongs must also be called as parties. By 48 Geo. III. c. 138, it is enacted that no A. shall be granted till the expiration of 15 years from any A. previous to the act, nor till the expiration of 20 years from any A. subsequent to the act. A period of 20 years must thus elapse between each augmentation. The amount of the A. is fixed, or modified, as it is termed, in grain or victual; the stipend itself being paid in money, according to the fiars' prices (q. v.) of each year. In addition to the ascertainment or modification of a suitable stipend, regard being had to the state of the teinds, the extent of the parish, the expense of living, and the like—a process of A. has the further object in view of *localling* the stipend so modified—i. e., of assigning it in due proportions to the heritors or other parties in possession of the tithes. This latter object is attained by means of what is called a scheme of locality—i. e., an allotment of the stipend modified to the several parties liable therefor. This scheme is prepared at the instance of the second junior Lord Ordinary (q. v.), on a remit from the Teind Court. The last conclusion in a summons of A. is for a suitable sum, or increase to the sum already allowed, for communion elements—i. e., for bread, wine, and other necessaries for celebrating the sacrament of the Lord's Supper after the Presbyterian fashion. When there is not a sufficient amount of teind to bring the stipend of the minister up to £150 per annum, with £8, 6s. 8*d.* for communion elements, it is provided by 50 Geo. III. c. 84, and 5 Geo. IV. c. 72, that the residue shall be paid by the Exchequer. In addition to their stipend, ministers have right to a manse and glebe, or a provision of £50 annually in lieu of them. See Stipend, Glebe, Manse; see also Parliamentary Church.

AU'GSBURG, historically one of the most notable cities in Germany, is situated in the angle between the rivers Wertach and Lech, and is the chief city of the circle of Swabia and Neuburg, in Bavaria. The population is (1871) 51,270. Though presenting an antique and rather deserted appearance, A. has numerous fine buildings, and especially one noble street, the 'imperial' Maximilian Strasse, adorned with bronze fountains. The industry of A. is reviving; several cotton and woollen factories are in operation, as well as manufactories of paper, tobacco, and machinery. Its gold and silver wares still retain their ancient reputation. The art of copper engraving is extinct; but printing, lithography, and bookselling have taken a new start. The *Allgemeine Zeitung*, the most widely circulated paper in Germany, is published here. In 1870 there were 10 printing-establishments and 34 book-shops. There are 74 breweries. Banking and stock-jobbing are extensively carried on; and it is still the emporium of the trade with Italy and Southern Germany. It is the centre of a system of railways connecting it with Nürnberg and Leipsic, with Switzerland, Munich, &c. The foundation of A. was the 'colony' planted by the Emperor Augustus, 12 B.C., after the conquest of the Vindelici, probably on the site of a former residence of that people. It was called *Augusta Vindelicorum*, and hence the present name. It became the capital of the province of Rhætia, was laid waste by the Huns in the 5th c., and came next under the dominion of the Frankish kings. In the war of Charlemagne with Thassilo of Bavaria, it was again destroyed. After the division of Charlemagne's empire, it came under the Duke of Swabia; but having become already rich by commerce, was able to purchase gradually many privileges, and finally became, in 1276, a free city of the empire. It now rose to greater consequence than ever, and had reached the summit of its prosperity by the end of the 14th c. About this time (1368), its aristocratic government was set aside for a democratic, which lasted for 170 years, till the aristocracy, favoured by Charles V., regained the ascendency. A. continued in great eminence for its commerce, manufactures, and art, till the war between Charles V. and the Protestant league of Schmalkald (1540). Along with Nürnberg it formed the emporium of the trade between Northern Europe and the south, and its merchants were princes whose ships were in all seas. See Fugger. It was also the centre of German art as represented by the Holbeins, Burkmair, Altdorfer, and others. Many diets of the empire were held in A., and the leading events of the Reformation are associated with its name. The discovery of the road to India by the Cape, and of America, turned the commerce of the world into new channels, and dried up the sources of A.'s prosperity. It lost its freedom with the abolition of the German empire in 1806, and was taken possession of by Bavaria.

AU'GSBURG CONFESSIC [illegible] land
of faith in the Lutheran Church. [illegible] is
following. With a view to an amic[illegible]
of the religious split that had existe[illegible]
since 1517, Charles V., as protector of
had convoked a diet of the empire, to [illegible]
burg, 8th April 1530, and had required
Protestants a short statement of [illegible] d[illegible]
which they departed from the Cath[illegible]
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on his Wittenberg theologians. [illegible]
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foundation for

irst part of the Confession contains 21 articles and doctrine: 1. Of God; 2. Of Original Sin; he Son of God; 4. Of Justification; 5. Of ng; 6. Of New Obedience; 7 and 8. Of the ; 9. Of Baptism; 10. Of the Lord's Supper; Confession; 12. Of Penance; 13. Of the Use ments; 14. Of Church Government; 15. Of Order; 16. Of Secular Government; 17. Of Second Coming to Judgment; 18. Of Free . Of the Cause of Sin; 20. Of Faith and rks; 21. Of the Worship of Saints. The and more practical part, which is carried out ength, contains seven articles on disputed — On the Two Kinds of the Sacrament; he Marriage of Priests; 24. Of the Mass; 25. ession; 26. Of Distinctions of Meat; 27. Of nal Vows; 28. Of the Authority of Bishops. document, signed by some six Protestant nd two free cities, was read before the emperor diet, 25th June 1530. Melanchthon, not upon the Confession as binding, began shortly make some alterations in its expression; at 1540, he published a Latin edition (*Confessio*) in which there were important changes litions. This was especially the case with le on the Lord's Supper, in which, with a conciliation, he endeavoured to unite the f the Lutherans and Calvinists. This gave sequently to much controversy; orthodox nism repudiated the alterations of Melanch- d long continued to subject his memory to ure; though it is clear that Melanchthon and rents contemplated no substantial departure from the original Confession. It is not t the form of the Confession found in the ndards is identical with the unaltered two original documents—German and Latin—before the diet have been lost. The ction between the orthodox Lutherans reformed churches of Germany has all along reference to the 'unaltered' or to the 'altered' on. It was even a matter of controversy the 'reformed' were entitled to the rights to the Protestants by the Religious Peace of concluded in 1555, on the ground of the d' Confession.—Though the A. C. is still adhered to by the Protestant churches of y, it is confessedly no longer the expression el of the vast majority of the members, at advances made by theology, and the sions in public opinion and feeling.

BURG INTERIM. See INTERIM.

I ES AND AUSPICES. These terms e to every reader of Roman history, and , so frequently employed in English in and metaphorical sense, that a vague eir original meaning is caught up even who know nothing of classical anti- As, however, the entire religious and life of the early Romans was deeply pene- y the influence of their sacred superstitions, amongst these auguries and auspices held a st place, a clear conception of what they were ter of considerable moment. The following ns exhibit, in a condensed form, the sub- is known on the subject.

all primitive nations, the Romans unusual occurrence had a super- and contained, hidden in it, the rding men. To reveal or inter- was the exclusive privilege of who apparently derived his official desig- part at least, from *avis*, a bird; while history abundantly proves that the observa- the flight of birds was a principal means adopted for discovering the purpose of the gods. It was not, however, any one who could be appointed an augur. The gods selected their own interpreters —that is to say, they conferred the divine gift upon them from their very birth; but an educational discipline was also considered necessary, and hence a 'college of augurs' figures in the very dawn of Roman history. Romulus, it is almost certain, was an augur himself. He is said to have been skilled in the art of divination from his youth; and by 'divination' we must specially understand augury; for the Romans, with patriotic piety, held all the forms of divination practised in other countries to be useless and profane. Previous to the Ogulnian law, passed in the year 307 B. C., there were only four augurs, who were selected from the patricians. By this law, however, the plebeians became eligible for the pontifical or augural offices, and five were immediately created. For more than two hundred years, the number continued the same, till Sulla, in 81 B. C., increased it to fifteen. Finally, in the first days of the Empire, when all parties, sick of the long civil wars, hurried to throw their privileges at the feet of the monarch who had brought peace into their homes, the right of electing augurs at his pleasure was conferred on Augustus, after which the number became indefinite.

At first, the augurs were elected by the *Comitia Curiata*; but as the sanction of the former was necessary to give validity to the acts of the latter, they could always 'veto' any elections which were obnoxious to them; so that the power of electing members to fill up vacancies naturally fell into the hands of the college itself, and so continued till 103 B. C., when a tribune of the people named Ahenobarbus carried a law by which it was enacted that for the future, vacancies in the augural and pontifical offices should not be filled up by those religious corporations themselves, but by a majority of certain picked tribes. This new law was occasionally repealed and re-enacted during the civil wars which lasted till the time of Augustus. The scramble for power, however, during these political vicissitudes, as well as the general advance of knowledge, had rendered its prophetic pretensions ridiculous in the eyes of educated people. By Cicero's time, it had lost its religious character altogether, but was still regarded as one of the highest political dignities, and coveted for the power it conferred.

The modes of divination employed by the augurs were five in number—*augurium ex coelo, ex avibus, ex tripudiis, ex quadrupedibus, ex diris*. The *first*, related to the interpretation of the celestial phenomena, such as thunder and lightning, was apparently of Etruscan origin, and held to be of supreme significance. The *second* related to the interpretation of the noise and flight of birds. It was not every bird, however, that could be a sure messenger of the gods. Generally speaking, those 'consulted,' as it was called, were the eagle, vulture, crow, raven, owl, and hen. The first two belonged to the class of *alites*, or birds whose *flight* revealed the will of the gods; the last four to the class of *oscines*, whose voice divulged the same. These two modes of augury were the oldest and most important. Of the other three, the auguries *ex tripudiis* were taken from the feeding of chickens; the s *ex quadrupedibus*, from four-footed an , if a dog, or wolf, or hare, ran a path a n, and startled him by any unt he med it to an augur, who was e be able to advise him what to do; the *ex diris* (a vague kind of r). from any accidents or occurrences ad as sneezing, mit

of the Capitoline Hill; and the ground on which the augur stood was solemnly set apart for the purpose. The latter then took a wand, and marked out a portion of the heavens in which his observations were to be made. This imaginary portion was called a *templum* (hence *contemplari*, to contemplate), and was subdivided into right and left. According as the birds appeared in either of these divisions were the auspices favourable or unfavourable. How vast the political influence and authority of the augurs must have been is seen from the fact, that almost nothing of any consequence could take place without their sanction and approval. The election of every important ruler, king, consul, dictator, or prætor, every civic officer, every religious functionary, was invalid if the auspices were unfavourable. No general could lawfully engage in battle—no public land could be allotted—no marriage or adoption, at least among the patricians, was held valid—unless the auspices were first taken, while the Comitia of the Centuries could be dispersed at a moment's notice by the veto of any member of the augural college.

We have employed the two terms, auguries and auspices, as synonymous. But a slight difference is perceptible between them: not the augurs only, but the chief magistrates of Rome (inheriting the honour from Romulus), held the 'auspices,' while the 'auguries' were exclusively in the possession of the former; but the mode of divination, and the end to be obtained by it, seem to have been the same in both cases.

The power of taking the auspices in war was confined to the commander-in-chief; and any victory gained by a legate was said to be won under the auspices of his superior, and the latter alone was entitled to a triumph. Hence has originated the very common phrase in our language, 'under the auspices' of some one, which usually denotes nothing more than that the person alluded to merely lends the influence of his name.

AU'GUST, the sixth month in the Roman year, which began with March, was originally styled *Sextilis*, and received its present name from the Emperor Augustus, on account of several of the most fortunate events of his life having occurred during this month. On this month he was first admitted to the consulate, and thrice entered the city in triumph. On the same month, the legions from the Janiculum placed themselves under his auspices, Egypt was brought under the authority of the Roman people, and an end put to the civil wars. (See Macrobius, i. 12.) As the fifth month, or *Quintilis*, had previously been styled Julius in honour of Julius Cæsar, a day was taken from February to make A. equal with July.

AUGU'STA, the name of two considerable cities in the United States.—1. A. is the capital of Maine, situated principally on the right bank of the Kennebec, which is here crossed by a bridge 520 feet long. Its lat. is 44° 19′ N., and long. 69° 50′ W. Up to A., the river is navigable for sloops from its mouth, a distance of 43 miles, in a straight line; while a dam, constructed immediately above the city, enables steam-boats to ply more than 20 miles above, as far as Waterville. A. is also a station on the railway between Portland and Bangor. The dam, too, which improves the navigation, has created a vast water-power, which is extensively employed for manufacturing purposes. Between 1830 and 1870, the population had increased from 3984 to 7808.—2. A. is the second city in Georgia, on the Savannah, 231 miles from its mouth. Its lat. is 33° 28′ N., and long. 81° 54′ W. Standing at the head of the navigation of the river, it is connected with the interior by the A. and Atlantic Railway, 170 miles long; while to the north again, it communicates with Charleston by means of the South Carolina Railway. The construction of the former of these lines was at first prejudicial to the city; but the internal improvement soon brought more business, though of a different kind, than it had taken away. Another cause of prosperity is a canal, which, from a point 9 miles up, brings the waters of the Savannah to the city on such a level as to furnish a fall of 35 or 40 feet—a water-power which is extensively and profitably employed. Of late years, the population has increased rapidly. In 1870, it numbered 15,389.

AUGU'STENBURG, a village of 800 inhabitants in the centre of the island of Alsen. It is noted for being the residence of the Duke of Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg, for its splendid 'stables,' and for the castle belonging to the ducal family.

AUGU'STI, a learned German theologian, born in 1772 at Eschenberga, near Gotha. He studied at Jena under the celebrated Griesbach, and afterwards devoted himself for some time to public teaching. In 1798, he became lecturer (*privat-docent*) in philosophy, and in 1800 he was appointed professor-extraordinary of the same. Three years after, he succeeded Ilgen in the chair of Oriental Literature; but his love of theological studies becoming predominant, he accepted the offer of a theological professorship in the university of Breslau, where he exerted a wide and beneficial influence. In 1819 he was transferred to Bonn, and made a director of the consistory at Cologne. Other ecclesiastical honours were conferred on him during the course of his life. He died on the 28th April 1841.

In the early part of his career, A. was a decided rationalist; but subsequently he returned to orthodox Lutheranism, more, perhaps, from the conservative bias of his nature, than from any profound conviction of the truth of the national creed. The change, however, was not accompanied, as is usual in such cases, with any intense bigotry. A. remained to the last a liberal-hearted Christian. His writings, marked by great learning, industry, and spirit, are much esteemed by his countrymen. The most important is his *Manual of Christian Archæology* (Leip. 1836—1837).

AUGUSTINE, Aurelius St, the great Latin fathers, was born at T[illegible], Numidia, on the 13th of Nov[illegible]. His father, Patricius, was poor, but [illegible] filled the office of magistrate. He co[illegible] till advanced in years, and was [illegible] before his death. He does no[illegible] remarkable for any elevation of [illegible]; trary, one may fairly conclude, from his [illegible] ments, that he was an irascible, kind-h[illegible] more intent on his son's advancement in [illegible] than in that which is to come. His [illegible] caused great sorrow to his gentle [illegible] who loved him faithfully, however, [illegible] fore rewarded with the secret by [illegible] charm the evil spirit out of him. [illegible] anxious that A. should become a [illegible] noticed that not a few people in [illegible] ing large incomes by their 'wit[illegible]. A. [illegible] ingly sent to school at Madaura, and [illegible] to Carthage, to complete his studies. [illegible] this, however, he had enjoyed the ine[illegible] of a religious education at h[illegible]. Monnica, had been his best [illegible] truly says: 'Whatever [illegible] worth the life of faith, e[illegible] by scientific culture, [illegible] him in the example of [illegible]. The energy and pene[illegible]

yo A. ex l the most flattering hopes.
he l h ... Carthage, a joyous, ardent,
... a bright career of worldly pros-
... open before him. But strong as
tations of Carthage were stronger.
, ... impetuous, and passionate, thirsted
ment. He had just reached the age when
is conceived to be synonymous with plea-
d Carthage, the second city of the empire, was
Rome in its sensual corruptions. A. fell.
Confessions, he paints the frightful abyss into
he felt himself plunged; nor does he seek to
himself; on the contrary, the shadow of his
thrown forward over all his boyish life, and
s even a morbid zeal and acuteness in
at what others, less censorious, might term
...ous errors of his childhood, but which
to A. the parents of his subsequent vices,
refore equally bad and equally reprehensible.
he had reached his eighteenth year, his mis-
him a son, who was named Adeodatus—
baptised along with him at Milan. The
appears to have first stirred his deeper
life was a passage which he suddenly
— in the *Hortensius* of Cicero, treating of
and dignity of philosophy. To use the
of Neander: 'The conflict now began in
which lasted through eleven years of his
is the simplicity of the sacred Scriptures
d no attractions for his taste—a taste
by rhetorical studies and the artificial dis-
the declamatory schools—especially as
was now in the same tone and direction
of the Emperor Julian, when the latter
...ected to the Platonic theosophy; as,
r, he found so many things in the doctrines
church which, from want of inward experi-
uld not be otherwise than unintelligible to
hile he attempted to grasp, by the under-
from without, what can be understood only
...nner life, from the feeling of inward wants,
's own inward experiences; so under these
tances, the delusive pretensions of the Mani-
ect, which, instead of a blind belief on autho-
ld out the promise of clear knowledge and
actory solution of all questions relating to
human and divine, presented the stronger
ms to his inexperienced youth.' A. now
a professed Manichæan. Returning to his
own, he lectured for a short time on 'gram-
t is to say, on literature. Soon after-
... returned to Carthage, to pursue his pro-
under more favourable auspices. Here he
in his twenty-seventh year, his first work,
et Pulchro—a treatise on æsthetics, which
ortunately been lost. About the same time
nature became keener and more impera-
... nda. The futile speculations of the
... so which he had attached himself now
apparent. He had a series of interviews
iversations with Faustus, one of the most
ed teachers of Manichæism; and these so
disappointed his expectations, that he left
sty in disgust and sad bewilderment, after
wasted ten years in a fruitless search for
and truth.
3 he went to Rome, followed by the tears,
ers, and the anxieties of his excellent mother,
s not, however, bereaved of hope, for both
h and her love were strong. After a short
left Rome, and proceeded to Milan, where
me a teacher of rhetoric. No change could
en more fortunate. At this time, the Bishop
a was the eloquent and devout St Ambrose.
y sprang up between the two. A.
o hear his friend preach. He was not, however, as yet a Christian. He had only emerged, as it were, from Manichæism—the region of night-clouds and shadows—and was now gazing on the gray dawn of the Platonic philosophy, prophetic of the noon-tide splendours of Christianity which were soon to burst upon his vision. Still, A. did not afterwards despise this preliminary training; he was too great and honest a man for that. He confesses that the Platonic writings 'enkindled in his mind an incredible ardour;' they awakened his deeper spiritual nature, which keenly upbraided him with his sins. Once more he studied the Bible, although from a purely Platonic point of view, and rather wishing to find in it 'those truths which he had already made himself acquainted with from the Platonic philosophy, but presented in a different form.' He began to think that Christ and Paul, by their glorious life and death, their divine morality, their great holiness, and manifold virtues, must have enjoyed much of that 'highest wisdom' which the philosophers thought confined to themselves. For some time he clung to his Platonic Christianity, and shaped the doctrines of the Bible according to it; but when he found that it was weak to overcome temptations, and that 'he himself was continually borne down by the ungodly impulses which he thought he had already subdued,' the necessity of a living personal God and Saviour to rescue him from the condemnation of his own conscience, and impart a sanctifying vitality to the abstract truths which he worshipped, shone clear through all the stormy struggles of his heart. In the eighth and ninth books of his *Confessions*, he has left a noble though painful picture of his inward life during this momentous crisis. It is sufficient to say, that the Spirit of God triumphed. On the 25th of April 387 A.D., A., along with his natural son Adeodatus, of whom he seems to have been justly fond, was baptised by Ambrose at Milan. Shortly after, he set out on his return home. At Ostia, on the Tiber, his beloved mother, who had followed him to Milan, died; her eyes had seen the salvation of her son, and she could depart in peace. After her death, and before leaving Italy for Africa, A. wrote his treatises, *De Moribus Ecclesiæ Catholicæ et de Moribus Manichæorum*; *De Quantitate Animæ*; and *De Libero Arbitrio*. It is unnecessary to relate at any length the subsequent life of Augustine. His character and principles of action had become fixed, and he now brought the whole majesty of his intellect to bear upon the side of Christianity. Having, as was then customary for converts, divided his goods among the poor, he retired into private life, and composed several treatises—*De Genesi Contra Manichæos*, *De Musicâ*, *De Magistro*, and *De Veri Religione*, which secured him a high reputation. In 391, he was ordained a priest by Valerius, Bishop of Hippo; and during the next four years, though earnestly engaged in the work of preaching, contrived to write three different works. In 395, he was made colleague of Valerius. Then ensued a period of hot strife, known in church history as the Donatist and Pelagian controversies. A., as may naturally be supposed, having passed through so fierce a fire of personal experience on religious questions, would be very jealous both of what he *knew* to be the truth, and of what he only *thought* to be the truth. This, added to his acute and profound intellect, made him, in spite of the poverty of his historical erudition, a most formidable and relentless antagonist. But this portion of his career will fall to be treated more properly under PELAGIUS and PELAGIANISM (q.v.). In 397, appeared his *Confessiones*, in 13 books. It is a deep, earnest, and sacred autobiography of one of the greatest intellects the world has seen. Passages of it have no parallel except in the Psalms of

David. In 413, he commenced his *De Civitate Dei*, and finished it in 426. It is generally considered his most powerful work. Exception may be taken to much that it contains. The learning is no doubt very considerable, but it is not accurate. A. was an indifferent scholar: he had studied the Latin authors well; but of Greek 'he knew little, and of Hebrew, nothing.' Many of his reasonings are based on false and untenable premises, and he erred often in his etymological explanations; but in spite of these and other drawbacks, the final impression left on the mind is, that the work is one of the most profound and lasting monuments of human genius. In 428, A. published his *Retractationes*, in which he makes a recension of all his previous writings. It is a work of great candour. He frankly acknowledges such errors and mistakes as he had discovered himself to have committed, explains and modifies numerous statements, and modestly reviews his whole opinions. His end was now drawing nigh. In 429 the Vandals, under the barbarian Genseric, landed in Africa; next year they besieged Hippo. A., now in his seventy-sixth year, prayed that God would help his unhappy church, and grant himself a release out of this present evil world. He died on the 28th of August 430, in the third month of the siege.

No mind has exerted greater influence on the church than that of Augustine. Consistency of theological opinion is not to be looked for from him, nor from any of the church fathers. A larger sphere of freedom was permitted to religious speculation in those unfettered days, before creeds were encircled with that traditionary sanctity they now possess. Nevertheless, we have little difficulty in determining the central tenets of his theological belief. He held the corruption of human nature through the fall of man, and the consequent slavery of the human will. Both on metaphysical and religious grounds, he asserted the doctrine of predestination, from which he necessarily deduced the corollary doctrines of election and reprobation; and finally, he strenuously supported, against the Pelagians, not only these opinions, but also the doctrine of the perseverance of the saints. At the same time, it is but fair to add that, even on such points, his language is far from uniform; that much of the severity of his doctrines arose from the bitter and painful remembrance of his own early sins, and from the profound impression which the corrupt state of society in his time, and the vast desolations of barbarism, had made on his earnest and susceptible soul; and that, in his desire to give glory to God, he sometimes forgot to be just to man. In illustration of this may be mentioned the fact (see Neander, Mosheim, and Waddington's Church Histories), that the maxim which justified the chastisement of religious errors by civil penalties, even to burning, was established and confirmed by the authority of A., and thus transmitted to following ages. In his epistle to Dulcitius, a civil magistrate, who shrank from putting in force the edict of Honorius against heretics, he uses these words: 'It is much better that some should perish by their own fires, than that the whole body should burn in the everlasting flames of Gehenna, through the desert of their impious dissension.' In the opinion of Neander, it was to the somewhat narrow culture, and the peculiar personal experience and temperament of Augustine, that the doctrines of absolute predestination and irresistible grace, first systematised by him, owed much of that harshness and one-sidedness which so long obstructed their general reception by the church, and which continue to render them repulsive to multitudes.

His life has been written by Tillemont, and his entire works have been repeatedly edited. The Benedictine edition, published at Paris in 11 vols. (1679–1700), is the best. Numerous editions of the *Confessions* and the *De Civitate Dei* have also appeared. In the 'Library of Fathers of the Holy Catholic Church,' published by J. H. Parker, there are translations into English of A.'s *Confessions*, *Exposition on St John's Gospel*, and *on the Psalms*, *Sermons on the New Testament*, and *Short Treatises*. His *Sermon on the Mount* has been translated by Trench, and published by Parker and Son.

AUGUSTINE, St, first Archbishop of Canterbury, was originally a monk in the convent of St Andrew at Rome. In 596 he was sent, along with forty other monks, by Pope Gregory I. to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity, and establish the authority of the Roman see in Britain. The missionaries were kindly received by Ethelbert, king of Kent, whose wife Bertha, daughter of the king of the Parisians, was a Christian, and retained a Frankish bishop in her suite as chaplain. A residence was assigned to them at Canterbury, then called *Dorovernum*, where they devoted themselves to monastic exercises and preaching. The conversion and baptism of the king contributed greatly to the success of their efforts among his subjects, and it is recorded that in one day A. baptised 10,000 persons in the river Swale. Nominal as much of this conversion must have been, there is abundant testimony to the fact, that a marked improvement in the life and manners of the Anglo-Saxons followed the evangelistic labours of A. and his companions.

In 597 he went to Arles, by direction [illegible], and was there consecrated Archbishop [illegible] bury and Metropolitan of England. On [illegible], he despatched a presbyter and monk to [illegible] inform the pope of his success, and obtain [illegible] tion on certain questions. Gregory's advice regard to the propagation of the faith are adm examples of that pious ingenuity which has characterised the missionary policy of Chu Rome. Thus, instead of destroying [illegible] temples, A. was recommended to con[illegible] Christian churches, by washing the [illegible] water, erecting altars, and substituting [illegible] and symbols for the images of the heathen gods. A.'s subsequent efforts to establish his authority over the native British church were not so successful as his missionary labours. He died in 604, and was buried in the churchyard of the monastery bearing his name, founded by King Ethelbert. His body was removed to the cathedral of Canterbury in 1091. Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum* is the great authority for the life of St Augustine. A thoughtful and pleasing sketch of it will be found in the Rev. Arthur P. Stanley's *Historical Memorials of Canterbury*. Lond. 1855.

The site and remains of St A.'s monastery were purchased in 1844 by Mr Beresford Hope, by whom they were presented to the Archbishop of Canterbury in trust, for the erection of a missionary college in connection with the Church of England. This institution was incorporated by royal charter in 1848. The buildings, in which as much of the ancient structure as possible has been preserved, contain accommodation for about 45 students, whose course of study extends over three years. Twenty exhibitions have been founded in connection with the college.

AUGUSTINES, or **AUGUSTINIANS**, name given to several religious bodies in the Roman Catholic Church. Whether St Augustine ever framed any formal rule of monastic life, is uncertain; but one was deduced from his writings, and was adopted by as many as thirty monastic fraternities, of which the chief were the Canons Regular, the Knights

(q. v.), the Begging Hermits, the Friars
or Dominicans (q. v.), and the Premon-
ss (q. v.). The CANONS REGULAR OF ST
, or AUSTIN CANONS, appear to have been
remodelled about the middle of the
ir discipline was less severe than that of
properly so called, but more rigid than that
secular or parochial clergy. They lived under
f, having a common dormitory and refectory.
abit was a long cassock, with a white rochet
all covered by a black cloak or hood, whence
ere often called Black Canons. In England,
they were established early in the 12th c.,
ad about 170 houses, the earliest, it would
eing at Nostell, near Pontefract, in York-
In Scotland, they had about 25 houses: the
at Scone was founded in 1114, and filled
ons from Nostell; the others of most note
Inchcolm in the Firth of Forth, St Andrews,
Cambuskenneth, and Inchaffray.

GOING HERMITS, HERMITS OF ST AUGUS-
AUSTIN FRIARS, were a much more austere
ing all property, and vowing to live
ordinary alms of the faithful. They are
d to have sprung from certain societies of
s who, in the 11th and 12th centuries,
especially in Italy without any regulative
ation. At the instigation, as is alleged, of the
raternities of Dominicans and Franciscans,
sent IV., about the middle of the 13th c.,
m the rule of St Augustine, whom they
as their founder. In 1256, Pope Alexander
ced them under the control of a superior or
at called a 'general.' In 1287, a code of rules
stitutions was compiled, by which the order
ntinued to be governed. About 1570, Friar
s of Jesus, a Portuguese brother of the order,
l a more austere rule, the disciples of which
idden to wear shoes, whence they were
calceati, or 'barefooted friars.'
degeneracy of the order in the 14th c., called
istence new or reformed Augustinian societies,
which was that Saxon one to which Luther
ed. But in his day, even these had fallen
to the general corruption of the priesthood,
afflicted serious injury upon it by his unspar-
nunciations. After the French Revolution,
er was wholly suppressed in France, Spain,
ortugal, and partly in Italy and Southern
ay. It was diminished even in Austria and
. It is most powerful in Sardinia and
a.

name of AUGUSTINES was given also to an
f nuns who claimed descent from a convent
d by St Augustine at Hippo, and of which his
ras the first abbess. They were vowed to the
the sick and the service of hospitals. The
Dieu at Paris is still served by them.

GU'STULUS, ROMULUS, the last emperor of
stern portion of the Roman empire. His
ras Augustus, but the diminutive title under
he is universally known was given him by
mans on account of the essential littleness of
racter. He was the son of Orestes, a Panno-
f birth and wealth, who rose to high rank
the Emperor Julius Nepos, whose favour he
by stirring up the barbarian troops in the pay
se to mutiny against him. On the flight of
peror, Orestes conferred the vacant throne on
A. (476 A. D.), retaining all substantial power
own hands. Orestes, failing to conciliate the
ians, who had helped him against Nepos, with
t of the third of the lands of Italy, they, under
ommand of Odoacer, besieged him in Pavia,
pturing, put him to death. A. yielded at
ad being of too little consequence to be put
to death, he was dismissed to a villa near Naples
with an annual pension of 6000 pieces of gold. His
after-fate is unknown.

AUGU'STUS, CAIUS JULIUS CÆSAR OCTAVIANUS,
the son of Octavius and Atia (daughter of Julia,
the younger sister of Julius Cæsar), was born 23d
September B. C. 63. The Octavian family came origin-
ally from Velitræ, in the country of the Volsci; and
the branch from which A. descended was rich and
honourable. His father had risen to the rank of
senator and prætor, but died in the prime of life,
when A. was only four years old. A. was carefully
educated in Rome under the guardianship of his
mother and his step-father, Lucius Marcius Philip-
pus. At the age of 12, A. delivered a funeral
oration over his grandmother; at 16, he received
the toga virilis. The talents of the youth recom-
mended him to his grand-uncle, Julius Cæsar, who
adopted A. as his son and heir. At the time of
Cæsar's assassination (March 15, B. C. 44), A. was a
student under the celebrated orator Apollodorus, at
Apollonia in Illyricum, where, however, he had been
sent, chiefly with a view to gain practical instruc-
tion in military affairs. He returned to Italy,
assuming the name of Julius Cæsar Octavianus, and
at his landing at Brundusium, was welcomed by
deputies from the veterans there assembled; but
declining their offers, he chose to enter Rome
privately. The city was at this time divided between
the two parties of the republicans and the friends
of Mark Antony; but the latter had, by adroit
manœuvres, gained the ascendency, and enjoyed
almost absolute power. A. was at first haughtily
treated by the consul, who refused to surrender the
property of Cæsar. After some fighting, in which
Antony was worsted, and had to flee across the
Alps, A., who had made himself a favourite with the
people and the army, succeeded in getting the will
of Julius Cæsar carried out. He found an able
friend and advocate in Cicero, who had at first
regarded him with contempt. The great orator,
while imagining that he was labouring in behalf of
the republic, was in fact only an instrument for
raising A. to supreme power. When Antony
returned from Gaul with Lepidus, A. joined them
in establishing a triumvirate. He obtained Africa,
Sardinia, and Sicily; Antony, Gaul; and Lepidus,
Spain. Their power was soon made absolute by the
massacre of those unfriendly to them in Italy, and
by victories over the republican army in Macedonia,
commanded by Brutus and Cassius. After the
battle of Philippi, won by A. and Antony, of which
the former unjustly claimed all the credit, whereas
it mainly belonged to the latter, the triumvirs made
a new division of the provinces. A. obtaining Italy,
and Lepidus, Africa. The Perusian war, excited by
Fulvia, wife of Antony, seemed likely to lead to a
contest between A. and his rival; but was ended by
the death of Fulvia, and the subsequent marriage
of Antony with Octavia, sister of Augustus. Shortly
afterwards, the claims of Sextus Pompeius and
Lepidus having been settled by force and fraud, the
Roman world was divided between A. and Antony;
and a contest for supremacy commenced between
them. While Antony was lost in luxurious dissipa-
tion at the court of Cleopatra, A. was industriously
striving to gain the love and confidence of the
Roman people, and to damage his rival in public
estimation. At length war was declared against the
queen of Egypt, and at the naval battle of Actium
(q. v.), B. C. 31, A. was victorious, and became sole
ruler of the whole Roman world. Soon afterwards,
Antony and Cleopatra ended their lives by suicide.
The son of Antony by Fulvia, and Cæsarion, son of
Cæsar and Cleopatra, were put to death; and in
B. C. 29, after disposing of several affairs in Egypt,

Greece, Syria, and Asia Minor, A. returned to Rome in triumph, and closing the temple of Janus, proclaimed universal peace.

His subsequent measures were mild and prudent. To insure popular favour, he abolished the laws of the triumvirate, adorned the city of Rome, and reformed many abuses. At the end of his seventh consulship (B. C. 27), he proposed to retire from office, in order that the old republican form of government might be re-established, but he was ultimately induced to retain his power. Hitherto, since Cæsar's death, the consul had been named Octavian; but now the title of *Augustus* (meaning 'sacred' or 'consecrated') was conferred on him. In the eleventh consulship of A. (B.C. 23), the tribunitian power was conferred on him for life by the senate. Republican names and forms still remained, but they were mere shadows. A. was in all but name absolute monarch. In 12 B.C., on the death of Lepidus, he had the high title of Pontifex Maximus, or High Priest, bestowed on him. The nation surrendered to him all the power and honour that it had to give.

After a course of victories in Asia, Spain, Pannonia, Dalmatia, Gaul, &c., A. (9 B.C.) suffered the greatest defeat he had sustained in the course of his long rule, in the person of Quintilius Varus, whose army was totally destroyed by the Germans.

This loss so afflicted A., that for some time he allowed his beard and hair to grow, as a sign of deep mourning, and often exclaimed: 'O Varus, restore me my legions!' From this time A. confined himself to plans of domestic improvement and reform, and so beautified Rome, that it was said, 'A. found the city built of bricks, and left it built of marble.' He also founded cities in several parts of the empire; and altars were raised by the grateful people to commemorate his beneficence; while by a decree of the senate, the name Augustus was given to the month Sextilis.

Though surrounded thus with honour and prosperity, A. was not free from domestic trouble. The abandoned conduct of his daughter Julia was the cause of sore vexation to him. He had no son, and Marcellus, the son of his sister, and Caius and Lucius, the sons of his daughter, whom he had appointed as his successors and heirs, as well as his favourite step-son Drusus, all died early; while his step-son Tiberius was an unamiable character whom he could not love. Age, domestic sorrows, and failing health, warned him to seek rest; and, to recruit his strength, he undertook a journey to Campania; but his infirmity increased, and he died at Nola (August 19, A.D. 14), in the seventy-seventh year of his age. According to tradition, shortly before his death, he called for a mirror, arranged his hair neatly, and said to his attendants: 'Have I played my part well? If so, applaud me!' A. had consummate tact and address as a ruler and politician, and could keep his plans in secrecy while he made use of the passions and talents of others to forward his own designs. The good and great measures which marked his reign were originated mostly by A. himself. He encouraged agriculture, patronised the arts and literature, and was himself an author; but only a few fragments of his writings have been preserved. Horace, Virgil, and all the most celebrated Latin poets and scholars, were his friends. His was the *Augustan Age* of literature. His death threw a shade of sorrow over the whole Roman world; the bereaved people erected temples and altars to his memory, and numbered him among the gods.

AUGU'STUS, Elector of Saxony (1553-1586), son of Duke Henry the Pious, and of Katherine of Mecklenburg, was born July 31, 1526, at Freiberg, then the seat of his father's court. While still a youth, he spent some time at Prague, and there formed an intimate friendship with Maximilian, King Ferdinand's son, afterwards Emperor of Germany. In 1548 he married Anna, daughter of Christian III. of Denmark, who was universally popular on account of her devoted adherence to Lutheranism and of her domestic worth. After the death of his brother, Maurice, in 1553, A. succeeded to the electorate. His rule is chiefly noticeable as bearing upon the history of the newly established Protestant Church. Equally intolerant and inconsistent in his theology, A. first used his utmost influence in favour of the Calvinistic doctrine of the sacraments; and then, in 1574, adopted the Lutheran tenets, and persecuted the Calvinists. On the other hand, however, it must be owned, to his honour, that, by his skilful internal administration, he raised his country far above the level of any other in Germany, introducing valuable reforms both in jurisprudence and finance, and giving a decided impetus to education, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. He even wrote a book on the management of orchards and gardens, and commanded that every newly-married pair should, within the first year of their marriage, plant two fruit-trees. The Dresden Library owes its origin to him, as do also most of its galleries of art and science. His own favourite private pursuit was that of alchemy, in which the Electress Anna also took a part. In the January of 1586—the electress having died in the previous year—A. married a young princess of Anhalt, but died a month after, and was buried in the cathedral of Freiberg. He was succeeded by his son, Christian I.

AUGU'STUS II., FREDERICK, commonly called the Strong, Elector of Saxony and king of Poland, second son of the elector, John George III., and of the Danish princess, Anna Sophia, was born at Dresden in 1670. His extraordinary strength was developed by a careful physical education, and his mental faculties more successfully cultivated than his morals. From 1687 to 1689 he travelled over the greatest part of Europe, but was prohibited by his father from visiting Rome. Upon his father's death (1691), he went to Vienna, and there formed an intimacy with Joseph, king of Rome, which materially influenced his politics. When, in 1694, he succeeded to his brother George as Elector, instead of turning his arms against France, according to previous arrangement, he undertook the command of the Austro-Saxon army against the Turks in Hungary. After the battle of Olasch, in 1695, he returned to Vienna as a candidate for the throne of Poland, vacated by John Sobieski. Bidding higher than Prince Conti for the crown (10 million Polish florins), and adopting the Catholic faith, he was elected king by the venal nobles; and having, by his imposing force, awed the adherents of Conti, he was crowned at Cracow, 15th September 1697. On ascending the throne, he promised to regain, for his new kingdom, the provinces that had been ceded to Sweden; but his efforts to do this only led to the defeat of himself and his allies, his own deposition as king of Poland, the election of Stanislaus Leczynski, and the ignominious peace of Altranstädt in 1706. So complete was his humiliation, that A. was compelled to send a letter of congratulation to the new Polish king, together with all the crown-jewels and archives. However, on receiving intelligence of the defeat of Charles XII. at Pultowa, in 1709, he declared the treaty of Altranstädt annulled, marched with a powerful army into Poland, formed a fresh alliance with the czar, and recommenced a war with Sweden, which continued raging with redoubled fury, till the death of Charles XII. at Friedrichshall, in 1718, gave a new aspect to affairs, leading first to

eventually to a peace with Sweden. a confederation, headed by a Polish been formed against the Saxons, and with much success, till, in 1716, mediation of the czar, a compact was ween the Poles and A., agreeably to which troops left the kingdom. The king now himself obliged to employ conciliation, and the ar of his dissolute court soon won the favour Polish nobles, who followed his example but ely. Saxony had bitter cause to regret the of the crowns. Its resources were shame- ersal, even when want and famine were on the adornment of the capital, on the ses, his illegitimate children, and the no deluded him with hopes of the elixir supported the fine arts as ministering , but did little for the cause of science. n principle, though easy in temper; ambi- well as luxurious; reckless alike in the of war and pleasure, death overtook him in of projected festivities. On his way to r diet, gangrene of an old wound set died in February 1733, and was buried ow. By his wife—a Protestant, and daughter rgrave of Brandenburg-Kulmbach—he son, who succeeded to him. The most of his numerous illegitimate offspring it is affirmed, to somewhere about 300 rice, Count of Saxony.

'US III., FREDERICK, Elector of Saxony Poland, the son and successor of the born in October 1696, and carefully by his mother in the Protestant faith. At of fifteen, however, he left her tutelage for through Germany, France, and Italy, where aged his religion, secretly professing Catho- at Bologna, in 1712, though the fact was icly known in Saxony till five years is possible that an eye to the crown of and to an alliance with one of the Austrian , may have had something to do with After succeeding his father in the ne in 1733, he was chosen king of Poland art of the nobility; and triumphing over al claims of Stanislaus Leszcynski, sup- by Louis XV., was unanimously proclaimed ears later. He inherited his father's sumptu- es, though not his talents; and his , cultivated by his Italian tour, enriched of Dresden with noble paintings. The of his country he made over entirely minister, Count von Bruhl, whose whole l system consisted in complete dependence ussia. In 1742, alarmed at the increased Prussia had obtained by the conquest of A. formed an alliance with Maria Theresa; the secret treaty of Leipsic, contracted to her with 50,000 men. But their united troops mpletely routed by the Prussians in 1745; derick II. pushing on into Saxony, A. had pe from his capital, saving his art-treasures, ving his state-papers in the hands of the or. In 1746, the peace of Dresden restored ony; but the close of the year again saw broiled with Prussia. Joining the camp at he narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, d to flee to Poland, where his popularity, rery great, was much diminished by his reverses in Saxony, added to which the Catharine of Russia used every effort to as being an ally of France. At the the peace of Hubertsburg, A. returned where he died in 1763. His son, n, succeeded him in the electorate, stowski became king of Poland.

AUK (*Alca*), a genus of web-footed birds, the type of a family called *Alcadæ*, which was in great part included in the Linnæan genus *Alca*, and to many of the species of which, now ranked in other genera, the name A. is still popularly extended. The *Alcadæ* are amongst those web-footed birds collectively called *Brachypterra* (i. e., short-winged) or Divers by Cuvier, remarkable for the shortness of their

Great and Little Auks.

wings, which they employ as fins or paddles for swimming under water, some being even incapable of flying; and for the position of their legs, further backward than in other birds, which makes walking difficult, and compels them, when on land, to maintain an upright attitude. They are distinguished by the very compressed bill, which, in the true auks, is vertically elevated, and so sharp along the ridge as to resemble the blade of a knife; and by their entirely palmated feet, destitute of hind toes. The auks are entirely confined to the seas of the northern hemisphere, the penguins taking their place in the southern, and are most abundant in the colder regions. All of them have a dense plumage, which generally exhibits on its surface a beautifully polished appearance and silvery lustre. The genus *Alca*, as restricted by Cuvier and others, contains only two species, distinguished from the Puffins (q. v.), which also belong to this family, chiefly by the greater length of the bill, and its being covered with feathers as far as the nostrils. The bill, both in the auks and puffins, is transversely and strongly grooved. But even the two known species of the restricted genus *Alca* differ from one another in a most important particular, the wings of the one, the Great A., being so short that it is quite incapable of flight, like the penguins, of which it may be deemed the true northern representative, whilst the other, the Razor-bill, has comparatively long wings, and flies well.—The GREAT A. (*Alca impennis*) is as large as a goose. It is an inhabitant of the most northerly shores, and a very rare visitant of those of the Orkney and Shetland Islands and the Hebrides. It is almost equally rare in Norway and Sweden, and has nearly disappeared even from Iceland and Greenland, and from localities on the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland, where it is said to have been formerly frequent. The rapidity with which this bird moves under water is extraordinary: one of them has been pursued by a six-oared boat for hours in vain. Like most of the *Alcadæ*, the Great A. lays only one egg, which is very large, about five inches in length, and three in its greatest breadth.

The egg is laid on the bare rock, without any attempt at a nest.—The RAZOR-BILL (q. v.) (*A. Torda*) is the only other species now commonly included in the genus *Alca*.—The name LITTLE A. is often given to a bird also called the ROTCHE (q. v.) (*Mergulus Alle*, formerly *Alca Alle*), common in arctic regions.—The common puffin is sometimes called the Labrador Auk.—The northern parts of the Pacific Ocean abound in auks remarkable for a somewhat quadrangular bill, notched near the tip, which form the genus *Phaleris*. One of them, *P. psittacula*, is known as the Parrakeet Auk.—All the auks feed upon fishes, crustaceans and other marine animals, which they pursue under water, and for which they dive to great depths.

AU'LIC COUNCIL (Lat. *aula*, court or hall), one of the two highest courts of the old German empire, co-ordinate with the Imperial Chamber. It came into existence in 1495, and seems to have been at first employed principally in preparing business-matters regarding the crown-lands and the empire generally, in order to expedite the decisions of the Imperial Chamber. It soon, however, began to assume or acquire higher functions. After 1502, the States submitted important grievances to its independent consideration; but it did not receive a fixed constitution before 1559. In 1654, it was formally recognised as the second of the two supreme courts, and equal in dignity to the Imperial Chamber. It was composed of a president, a vice-president, a vice-chancellor, and eighteen councillors, who were all chosen and paid by the emperor, with the exception of the vice-chancellor, who was appointed by the Elector of Mainz. Of the eighteen councillors, six were Protestants, whose votes, when they were unanimous, could not be set aside by those of the others, so that a religious parity was to some extent preserved. The councillors were divided into three classes—counts, barons, and men of learning—all of whom were on a footing of equality, except that the last mentioned received a higher salary, and were usually advanced into the ranks of the nobility. The Council held aloof from politics, but under its jurisdiction were placed: 1st, All matters of feudality in which the emperor was immediately concerned; 2d, All questions of appeal on the part of the States from decisions in favour of the emperor in minor courts; 3d, Whatever concerned the imperial jurisdiction in Italy. On the death of the emperor, the Council was dissolved, and had to be reconstructed by his successor. It finally ceased to exist on the extinction of the old German empire in 1806.

AUMALE, CHARLES DE LORRAINE, DUC D', born 1554, was an ardent partisan of the League in the politico-religious wars which devastated France in the latter half of the 16th c. The aim of the League was ostensibly to suppress the Huguenots, but in reality to secure the supreme power to the Guises. Closely allied by blood to this crafty and ambitious family, A. from the very first entered with fanatical sympathy into its schemes; and after the murder of the Duke of Guise at Blois in December 1588, he became, along with the Duke of Mayenne, the leader of the party. In 1589, he seized Paris, dissolved the parliament, and imprisoned its members. Shortly after, he put himself at the head of a body of troops to attack the town of Senlis, but was defeated by La Noue, and compelled to retreat. Always unfortunate in war, his presence seemed invariably to insure the overthrow of his friends. He commanded a portion of the forces of the League at the battles of Arques and Ivri, where the Huguenots triumphed under their skilful and sagacious monarch, Henry IV. But A. was as obstinate as he was unlucky, and in the end proved himself as traitorous as he was obstinate. He held out for the League in Amiens until the populace expelled him, when he suddenly allied himself with the Spaniards who had invaded Picardy, refused the royal pardon, and delivered over to the enemy several places in his possession. For this he was impeached, condemned, and sentenced to be broken alive on the wheel. His property was confiscated, but he himself escaped. He lived in exile till his death, which took place at Brussels in 1631. He left no male posterity.

AUMALE, HENRI-EUGENE-PHILIPPE, LOUIS D'ORLÉANS, DUC D', born at Paris, January 16, 1822, is the fourth son of the late king of France, Louis Philippe. He enjoyed the privilege—so rare among princes—of being educated along with his fellow-men, at the college of Henri IV., where he exhibited considerable talent, and obtained several honours. When 16 years of age, he entered the army, soon distinguished himself by his bravery, and passed rapidly through the various grades of rank. In 1843, he embarked at Brest for Algeria, where he commanded a subdivision of the French army, and performed some brilliant exploits, the most signal of which was his surprising Abd-el-Kader, when encamped in the environs of Goudjilah. By this *coup de main*, which occurred on the 16th of May 1843, there fell into his hands a multitude of cattle, 4 standards, 3600 prisoners, and the correspondence and treasure of the Emir. He was, in consequence, elevated to the rank of lieutenant-general, and appointed to the government of the province of Constantine. In 1847 he succeeded Marshal Bugeaud in the governor-generalship of Algeria. While holding this high office, he was exposed to a series of bitter attacks by the Democratic 'opposition' in the Chamber of Deputies, but was ably defended by Guizot. After the expulsion of his father, he withdrew from Algeria, having first, with self-denying patriotism, exhorted the colony peaceably to obey the orders of the metropolis. He then resided in England till 1871, when he returned to France, and became President of the Council-general of the Oise. He has written two remarkable articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*—one on the *Zouaves*, and another on the *Chasseurs-à-pied*. He has also composed a *Histoire des Condés*, and several other works.

AUNE, the French cloth-measure corresponding to the English *ell*. Both words are derived from the Lat. *ulna*. The English ell = 1¼ yard = 45 inches; the French *aune usuelle* (or *nouvelle*) = 1¼ mètre = 47¼ inches English. The old *aune* was a little shorter.

AUNOY, MARIE-CATHERINE-JUMELLE DE BERNEVILLE, COMTESSE D', a celebrated French authoress of the reign of Louis XIV. She was born about 1650, and died at Paris, January 1705. She composed fairy tales, romances, and historical memoirs. Among her fairy tales may be mentioned, *The Yellow Dwarf*, *The White Cat*, and *Cherry and Fair Star*. Many of these fictions have been translated into English, and are greedily read by school-boys. They have, both in France and other countries, gone through numerous editions, and are the sole monuments of her fame; for her sentimental novels, *Hippolyte*, and *Comte de Duglas*, have long ago vanished from the eyes of men; while her historical memoirs are not regarded as in the slightest degree trustworthy.

AURANTIA'CEÆ (from *aurantium*, modern Latin for an orange), a natural order of exogenous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, often of great beauty. Both leaves and bark are generally very smooth, and all parts are filled with little transparent receptacles of a fragrant volatile oil, which especially abounds in the leaves and in the rind of

The leaves are alternate, and always
—ith their stalks, which are frequently
. flowers have a short, 3—5 toothed,
vx. and 3—5 petals, which are broad at
—, s times slightly coherent, and imbri-
bus. The stamens are equal in number to
ts, or a multiple of their number; the fila-
sometimes slightly coherent in one or more
s; the anthers terminal and erect. The
s and petals are inserted on a disk. The
is free; there is one style with a thickish
The fruit (a *hesperidium*) is pulpy, with a
v or spongy rind, of one cell, or of a number
le cells; the seeds attached to the axis,
cotyledons and no albumen, not unfre-
containing more embryos than one.—The
contains about one hundred known species,
of warm climates, and almost all of the East
The species of the genus Citrus (q. v.) are
t known, among which are the orange, lemon,
&c. But the order contains many other
ducing agreeable fruits, among which the
rmelos (see ÆGLE)—called Bhel, or Bael,
—*Cookia punctata* (the Wampee), *Glycosmis*
, and *Triphasia trifoliata* deserve particular
The fruits, ripe and unripe, juice and rind,
wers, leaves, bark, &c., of a number of species
ployed medicinally. The medicinal uses of
Marmelos have been already noticed in the
ÆGLE; those of the species of *Citrus* will be
ed under their proper heads. The leaves of
s *Karnigii* are used by the Hindus as a
hic and tonic, the bark and roots as stimu-
-*Feronia elephantum*, a large tree growing in
arts of India, yields a gum which closely
les gum-arabic, and is used for similar pur-
The young leaves of this tree have a smell
at of anise, and are used by the native prac-
rs of India as a stomachic and carminative.
mia (or *Limonia*) *Laurcola* and *Skimmia*
ica are remarkable exceptions in this order,
the climate to which they are adapted: the
grows on the cold and lofty mountains of
rth of India, braving frost and snow; the
a beautiful shrub, recently introduced into
from Japan, is perfectly hardy even in the
t winters; its evergreen leaves and pretty
ed berries remaining quite uninjured by frost,
its small white flowers, produced early in
r, have the fragrance of orange blossoms.

LIA. See CHRYSALIS.

ELIA'NUS, LUCIUS DOMITIUS—also named
ius DOMITIUS and VALERIUS—one of the most
ful of the Roman emperors, was of very
e origin, his father having been a husbandman.
s born about A.D. 212, and enlisting early as
mon soldier, he rapidly distinguished himself,
eld the highest military offices under Vale-
and Claudius II. On the death of Claudius
270), A. was elected emperor by the army.
mmenced his reign by vigorous opposition to
rbarian Alemanni, or Marcomanni, whom he
d. Thereafter, he commenced the erection
new line of fortified walls round Rome,
were not completed till the reign of Probus
276). Their ruins still mark the boun-
of Rome in the time of Aurelian. Finding
he province of Dacia (now Wallachia) could
e maintained against the assaults of the
he surrendered it, on certain conditions, and
hened the frontier of the Roman empire by
g the Danube its boundary. He next turned
tention to the East, where the renowned
Zenobia (q. v.), had extended her sway from
o Asia Minor and Egypt. A. defeated her in
two battles, and besieged her in Palmyra, from which she attempted to escape, when she saw defence would prove unavailing. She was, however, taken prisoner, and soon after the city surrendered, and was treated leniently. Shortly after A. had departed, a new insurrection took place. He returned, in 273, and gave the splendid city up to destruction. A. was again called to the East by a rebellion in Egypt, instigated by Firmus, a merchant of great influence, which he speedily quelled. Besides, Tetricus, who had held imperial power in Gaul since before the death of Gallienus, finding himself unable to wield it, surrendered it to Aurelian. By restoring good discipline in the army, order in domestic affairs, and political unity to the Roman dominions, A. merited the title awarded to him by the senate—'Restorer of the Roman Empire.' He fell a victim to conspiracy during his campaign against the Persians (A.D. 276).

AURE'LIUS, MARCUS. See ANTONINUS.

AURICLES, two cavities of the heart. See HEART.

AURICULA (*Primula Auricula*), a plant of the same genus with the Primrose (q. v.), much cultivated in flower-gardens. The A. has long been a florist's flower. It was highly esteemed by the Romans, and has, at least since the beginning of the 18th c., received particular attention from the florists of England and Holland. It is one of those flowers, the cultivation of which is often most successfully

Auricula (wild state).

prosecuted in the little gardens of operatives near large towns. Lancashire is particularly famous for it.—The A. has smooth, dark-green leaves, scapes (or leafless stems), and calices, covered with a mealy powder. A similar fine meal appears also on the flowers, and adds much to their beauty. The A. is a native of the Alps and other mountains of the middle and south of Europe, and of sub-alpine situations in the same countries. It is found also on the Caucasus and the mountains of Syria; it grows in shady and moist places. In a wild state, it has comparatively small flowers, of a simple yellow colour, on short stalks, forming an umbel of generally six or seven on one scape, with the

same delightful fragrance which aids so much to make it a favourite flower in cultivation. The leaves are used by the inhabitants of the Alps as a remedy for coughs.

By cultivation and art, the A. has been brought to great beauty and splendour of colour. Red, pink, crimson, apple-green, and mulberry are the chief colours which the different varieties exhibit. More than 1200 varieties have been reckoned, and new ones are continually raised from seed. Some of them are entirely of one colour, others of two or more; some are delicately shaded, and some variegated. The mere colour of an A. is not of so much consequence, in the eye of a florist, as the form and shading. The chief requisites of a good A. are large flowers, so many of them on one scape as to give fulness to the umbel, the flower-stalks so strong that the flowers do not hang down; the scape itself must be so tall, that the umbel of flowers may rise completely above the leaves, and so strong as to bear it erect; the flower must be nearly round; the white or yellow eye in its centre must be distinct and round, its colour not mixing with the ground colour, which, however, may mix at the outer part with the green of the margin. The green margin adds much to the beauty of many varieties. The mealiness of the flower differs much in different varieties.—The A. blooms in April and May, and often also a second time in the end of autumn, which adds to the charms of the flower-border, although it is to the first or proper flowering-season that the florist looks. It succeeds best in a rich light soil, and cultivators diligently prepare for it composts of various kinds, but in general consisting chiefly of fresh loamy soil, and of well-rotted horse or cow dung, often with the addition of a little sand. The finer varieties are always cultivated in pots, and require great attention. They are protected from the severe weather of winter, and during the flowering-season, from wind and rain. They ought, however, previous to flowering, to stand in an airy, sunny situation. Their delicacy forms a striking contrast to the natural hardiness of the plant; but few sights are more pleasing than that of a collection of choice auriculas, tastefully arranged. They are propagated by offsets, generally in the latter part of August.—When it is proposed to raise the A. from seed, care ought to be taken to select the finest flowers, which are encouraged to ripen their seeds by exposure to sun and air, hand-glasses being placed over them during heavy rains. The seed is sown either in autumn or spring, generally in boxes placed under shelter, or in a slight hot-bed. The more weakly plants are tended with particular care, as they are generally found to produce the finest flowers.

The name A., originally Latin, is derived from *auris*, an ear, on account of a fancied resemblance of the leaves to the ears of an animal.

AURICULA, a genus, and AURICULIDÆ, a family of Gastropod Mollusca. They have a spiral shell,

Auricula.

covered with a horny epidermis, the first whirl very large and the spire short, the aperture elongated and toothed. They belong to that section of Gastropods in which the sexes are united in the indivi and to the same order with the common s having respiratory organs adapted for breathi air, although some of them are capable of subs for a considerable time in water. Some of inhabit fresh-water marshes, and others p vicinity of salt water. They generally b warm climates, and some of them attain a l *Auricula Midæ*, a native of the East Indies, is k to shell-collectors by the name of Midas's Ear.

AURI'CULAR CONFESSION. See

AURI'CULATE, in Botany, a term appoe leaves, stipules, &c., and signifying that they h at the base two small ear-like lobes.

AURILLAC, a town of France, capital of department of Cantal (Auvergne). A. is situated pleasant valley on the banks of the Jourdanne, a 269 miles south from Paris. It is said to owe origin to a Benedictine monastery founded in 9th c. by St Gerard. The English, in the 14th 15th centuries, often besieged the town, and it frequently taken and pillaged during the religious w in France in the 16th c. The streets are wide, irregular, and are kept clean by streams supplied a reservoir above the town and by a canal from Jourdanne. The neighbouring quarries supply sl to cover the houses. The principal buildings of are the churches of Notre Dame and St Gerard Stephen's Castle, the theatre, college which contain a valuable public library. corn-market. There is also a monument the memory of the French philanthropist, M. Montyon. Paper, jewellery, lace, copper utens leather, and beer are the chief industrial produc Pope Sylvester II. was born at A., and the infam Carrier of the first French revolution. Pop. (1 11,098.

AURO'RA (styled *Eös* by the Greeks), the g dess of the dawn, or 'morning redness,' wa daughter of Hyperion and Theia, and sister of He and Selene, and wife of the Titan Astræus. Zephyr Boreas, Notus, Hesperus and the other w her children. She was described as morning from her bed in the ocean, b a chariot drawn by the divine steeds Phaëton, ascending heaven from the river O where she lifted with her 'rosy fingers' the c of night, and announced the light both to gods men. Homer frequently describes A. as the go of day, and the tragic writers identified A. w *Hemera* (the day). She was represented as clad in a rosy-yellow robe, with a star shi forehead, and a torch in her right hand. passion for mortal youths, and carried Cleitus, and Tithonus.

AURO'RA BOREA'LIS, or NORTHE LIGHTS (Ger. *Nordlicht*), the name given luminous phenomenon which is seen towa north of the heavens by the inhabitants of the latitudes. During the winter of the northern sphere, the inhabitants of the arctic zone the light of the sun for months togeth long dreary night is relieved by the li beautiful meteor, which occurs with grea in these regions. Those who have e southern seas have seen the same direction of the south pole, so t Lights might be more appro Lights to designate the aur the A. B. has been describe observers, both in Northern and Ce of whom give substantially the same acc manner in which the phenomenon takes briefly as follows: A dingy aspect of direction of the north is genera

aurora; and this gradually becomes darker in
r, and assumes the form of a circular segment
ed by a luminous arch, and resting at each
the horizon. This *dark segment*, as it is
...as the appearance of a thick cloud, and is
n as such in the fading twilight before
...nt of the auroral light. Its density
...ves, be very small, as stars are sometimes
...g brightly through it. This dark segment
...ed by a luminous *arch* of a bluish-white
r, which varies in breadth from 1 to 6 diameters
moon, having the lower edge sharply defined,
upper edge only when the breadth of the
ll. This arch may be considered to be a
...inous ring elevated at a considerable
...ve the earth's surface, and having its
corresponding with some point near the north
An observer several degrees south of this
would see towards the north only a
...re ... it, the larger part being hid by the
to one situated not so far south, it would
as a larger and higher arch; to one placed
below it, it would be seen as an arch passing through the zenith; and to one situated within the ring and further north, it would be found as an arch culminating in the south. On this supposition, nearly all the various positions of the auroral arch may be accounted for. The centre of the ring corresponds probably with the magnetic north, which is at present situated in the island of Boothia Felix. Hence it is that in Greenland, which is situated to the east of this island, the auroral arch has been seen stretching from north to south with its highest point in the west. The luminous arch, once formed, remains visible for several hours, and is in a constant state of motion. It rises and falls, extends towards the east and towards the west, and breaks sometimes in one part, sometimes in another. These motions become all the more observable when the arch is about to shoot forth *rays;* then it becomes luminous at one point, eats in upon the dark segment, and a ray of similar brightness to the arch mounts with the rapidity of lightning towards the zenith. The ray seldom keeps the same form for any length of time;

Aurora Borealis.

undergoes continual changes, moving eastward
westward, and fluttering like a ribbon agitated
he wind. After some time, it gradually fades
rightness, and at last gives way to other
When the aurora attains its full brightness
activity, rays are projected from every part
e arch, and if they do not rise too high, it
at the appearance of a comb furnished with
...en the rays are very bright, they some-
...e a green, sometimes a violet, a purple, or
..., giving to the whole a variegated and
...t. The accompanying sketch, taken
Muncker's *Kosmische Physik*, of the A. B.
orway, represents a beautiful aurora of this
-shaped character; the effect of colour, how-
is wanting to complete the picture. When the
darted by the luminous arch are numerous and
eat length, they culminate in a point which is
ted in the prolongation of the dipping-needle,
what south-east of the zenith. There they
what is called the *Boreal Crown;* and the whole
ns, towards the east, west, and north, present
the appearance of a vast cupola of fire, supported by columns of variously coloured light. When the rays are darted less brilliantly, the crown first disappears, then, here and there, the light becomes faint and intermittent, till at last the whole phenomenon fades from the sky.

The preceding description indicates the general features of the appearance of the A. B.; but several auroras have been described which presented striking peculiarities. Sometimes the phenomenon assumed the form of one or more curtains of light, depending from dingy clouds, whose folds were agitated to and fro, as if by the wind. Sometimes this curtain seemed to consist of separate ribbons of light, arranged side by side in groups of different lengths, and attaining their greatest brilliancy at the lower edges. In this country the A. B. seldom occurs with the distinctness and brilliancy which attend it in northern latitudes, but the description just given portrays the type to which such appearance of the meteor more or less approximates.

The height of the aurora has been variously

estimated. The first observers were inclined to place the seat of it beyond the atmosphere; but this hypothesis is untenable, as the aurora does not seem to be affected by the rotation of the earth, but appears to be in every respect a terrestrial phenomenon. By taking observations of the altitude of the highest point of the arch of the same aurora at different stations, heights varying from 5 to 500 miles have been calculated. The cause of these widely differing results may be found in the probability that exists of each observer seeing a different arch of the aurora for himself, and he is, in consequence, furnished with no comparable or reliable data for his calculations. It is now, however, generally admitted, on what are considered to be sufficient grounds, that the A. B. occurs at various heights, and that it is seldom found beyond ninety miles above the surface of the earth. The distance of the stations at which the same aurora has been visible, indicates the enormous geographical extent, and likewise the great altitude which the phenomenon frequently attains. One aurora, for instance—that which occurred on the 3d of September 1839—was seen in the Isle of Skye by M. de Saussure; at Paris, by the astronomers of the Observatory; at Asti, in the Sardinian states, by M. Quetelet; at Newhaven, in Connecticut, by Mr Herrick; and at New Orleans, by credible observers. On the other hand, some observers of eminence assert that the aurora sometimes descends to the region of the clouds, and appears almost as a local phenomenon. A brilliant aurora was seen by Mr Farquharson, the minister of Alford, in Aberdeenshire, on the 20th of December 1829, from eight to half-past eleven in the evening, above a thick bank of clouds, which covered the tops of the hills to the north of where he lived, and which never attained an altitude of more than 20°. The same aurora was seen in the zenith, at a quarter-past nine, by Mr Paul, another minister, at Tullynessle, which is about two miles north of Alford, so that the height of it could not have been quite 4000 feet.

The noise that is alleged to accompany the A. B. in high latitudes would indicate for it a comparatively moderate height. Some of those who have heard it, compare it to the noise that is produced by the rolling of one piece of silk upon another; and others, to the sound of the wind blowing against the flame of a candle. In Siberia, it has been related that this noise sometimes resembles that attending the discharge of fireworks; and that the dogs of the hunters, when overtaken by such an aurora, lay themselves with terror on the ground.*

The intimate connection between the A. B. and the magnetism of the earth is shewn by various facts. During the occurrence of the phenomenon, the magnetic needle appears very much disturbed, sometimes deviating several degrees from its normal position, and appearing to be most affected when the aurora is brightest; and this oscillation is frequently perceived far beyond the district where the aurora is seen. The vertex, likewise, of the luminous arch is almost always found to be in or very near the magnetic meridian, and the boreal crown has its seat in the prolongation of the freely suspended needle. There seems, moreover, to be a connection between the magnetic poles of the earth in regard to the aurora, for, so far as has been ascertained, the meteor occurs simultaneously at both. The A. B. appears to be an electric discharge connected with magnetic disturbance. This is pretty well established by the great resemblance which the l attending the passage of electricity through ve from which the air has been exhausted bears to aurora. If one of Gassiot's vacuous tubes be brou near an electric machine, or between the pole an induction coil, flashes of light pass between ends, which bear a striking resemblance to aurora borealis. A comparison of the spectra the two goes far to establish identity. The aur spectral line, according to Angstrom, is a yel line near the sodium line, and is the same as air line seen in the solar light when the sun is n the horizon. Other lines, however, have been s by different observers, which cannot as yet produced by the physicist from any known s stance.

* Arctic voyagers, such as Parry and Franklin, throw doubt on the existence of any such noise, for not one of the numerous and brilliant auroras seen by them was ever attended with the faintest sound.

AURUNGABAD, or *Throne-town*, the name at least four places in India. The most import is in the territory of the Nizam, situated on Doolna, a tributary of the Godavery. Its lat. 19° 51′ N., and long. 75° 21′ E. It is one of the stati of the Nizam's army. In 1825, its population w estimated at 60,000—a number supposed to ha since then considerably diminished. Its ruins of former grandeur are a palace, built by and the mausoleum of Aurungzebe's da former is now in ruins; and the latter, he ing some resemblance to the Taj Maha greatly inferior.

AURUNGZEBE (properly, Aurangzīb, ' ment of the Throne') was the most powerful Great Moguls, the last who ruled with energy effect. He was born on the 22d October 1618, was ten years old when, his grandfather dying, father, Shah-Jehan, ascended the throne. A. aspired to wield the rod of empire, but he craf hid his designs beneath the cloak of piety.

Aurungzebe.—From a Native Drawing.

1657, his father, who had previously promoted to high civil and military offices in the state, in forming the duties of which he greatly distin himself, was seized with an illness fr wh was not expected to recover. The reins of were at once seized by his eldest son, treated his brothers very arbitrarily— that time being governor of Bengal, A. of the and Mūrad of Guzerat. The first imm took up arms. A.'s policy was to let the it out, and exhaust each other, and then t his third brother against the victor. He with Mūrad; assured him he had no eart tion; that the crown he strived for was a

emporal one; and that, for affection's sake, view to promote the interests of the true a was liberal in his religious opinions, and n a look to prove that Mohammed and greed in all essential points—he would is pretensions to the throne. Murad m, and the forces of the two were joined. , Dara having overcome Shuja's army, s forces against his other two brothers; lausibility prevailed over Dara's generals, d, and Dara had to seek safety in flight. me, however, Shahdehan had somewhat

A. professed the utmost loyalty, but ve his commissions to take possession han's palace, which was done, and the rch was made prisoner. A. next seized d his two remaining brother, Murad; and ruggle of two or three years' duration. Shuja also fell into his power, and all put to death. The sceptre was now firmly grasp of Aurungzebe. He professed not the imperial insignia, but was ultimately receive them on August 2, 1678. He, at time, assumed the presumptuous title of Conqueror of the World.' He also took Mohi-eddin, 'the Reviver of Religion.' In h year of A.'s reign, his father died, at a ge; but there are suspicions, nevertheless, ath was hastened by slow poison, administ command of his son.

; reign of half a century was distinguished outward prosperity, but the empire was t its heart. Everywhere there was dis who had established his empire by fraud, dly enough distrusted by all. He lacked in his statesmen, who, in their turn, dis n and one another. His sons imitated disobedience to his father, and the Hin he treated with great harshness, excited ttas against him in the south. Still his ties sufficed during his reign not only to s empire intact, but even to enlarge it ly. Discord between the monarchs of ul Golconda, which was mainly due to when acting as governor of the Deccan, ma to add these two kingdoms to his but the seeds of decay which had been s reign bore ample fruit in the reign of The decadence of the Mogul empire dates death, which took place at Ahmednugur, t February 1707, in the eighty-ninth year and fiftieth of his reign. The latter years were passed in misery. The memory of imes weighed heavy on his soul. He lived t dread that he himself would receive of e which he had meted out to others. His remarkable among Oriental courts for its ad freedom from ostentation. A.'s character without its good features, as instanced , that in the third year of his reign, when a great famine in the land, he gave unsparing e funds of his treasury, which had been rmented by his frugality, to procure food ple.

'LTATION (Lat. *auscul'to*, to listen), a detecting disease, especially those of the lungs, by listening to the sounds produced ity of the chest. This is done either by ted ear (*Immediate* A.), or by the aid of a nd-conveying instrument, the stethoscope *diate* A.). By care and attention, the unds produced by respiration and the the heart may be distinguished from the normal sounds indicating disease. A. is mong the most important of discoveries medical science. Its details are ably explained by the discoverer, Laënnec. See PERCUSSION.

AUSONIUS, DECIUS MAGNUS, the most conspicuous Roman poet in the 4th c. after Christ, was born at Burdegala (Bordeaux), about 309 A.D. Scaliger asserts that his father, Julius A., was the favourite physician of the Emperor Valentinian, but the assertion has no historic basis, so far as we know. He was, however, a man of considerable importance, having been at one time honorary prefect of Illyricum, and he appears to have taken care that the young A. should receive an excellent education. Many amiable female relatives fostered, and probably flattered the talents of the boy. After finishing his curriculum at Toulouse, he returned to Bordeaux, where, after practising for a short time at the bar, he turned his attention to literature, and soon distinguished himself as a professor of oratory. Some years later, he was appointed by Valentinian tutor to his son Gratian; afterwards quæstor, and, by Gratian, prefect of Latium, and subsequently consul of Gaul (379 A.D.). On the death of Gratian, A. retired from public life to his estate at Bordeaux, where he occupied himself with literature and rural pursuits until the time of his death (392 A.D.). The question whether or not A. was a 'Christian,' has occasioned much controversy, and remains yet unsettled. His works include translations of Greek eclogues, a collection of 150 epigrams, epistles in verse and prose, 20 so-called idyls and other descriptive pieces, which, though admired in their day, are generally worthless, and bear all the marks of the corrupted taste prevalent in literature during his time. But though destitute of every true poetic quality, A. occasionally displays a certain neatness and grace of expression, which shew that, in a better era, he might have proved a greater poet. Besides these, he also wrote a panegyric on the Emperor Gratian, full of bombastic phrases and fulsome adulation. Editions of his writings have been given by Scaliger (Leyden, 1575), Tollius (Amsterdam, 1669–1671), and Souchay (Paris, 1730).

AUSTEN, JANE, a novelist of deservedly high reputation. Her father was rector of Steventon, Hampshire, at which place his daughter was born, December 16, 1775. Mr Austen, who was himself a gentleman of some literary attainments, bestowed on his daughter an education superior to that usually given to young ladies in her sphere of life in the end of last century. Jane was distinguished alike by good sense, sweetness of disposition, and personal attractions. Her novels, which are rather limited in subject, are remarkable for the truthfulness with which they portray the everyday life of the middle classes of England in her time, and for their delicate, yet withal distinct discrimination of the various shades and peculiarities of character. Sir Walter Scott said of her: 'That young lady had a talent for describing the involvements, feelings, and characters of ordinary life which is to me the most wonderful I have ever met with. The big bow-wow I can do myself like any one going; but the exquisite touch, which renders common-place things and characters interesting from the truth of the description and the sentiment, is denied to me.' Miss A.'s first four novels—*Sense and Sensibility*, *Pride and Prejudice*, *Mansfield Park*, and *Emma*—were published anonymously between 1811 and 1816. *Northanger Abbey* and *Persuasion* followed, with her name on the title-page, in 1818, after her death, which took place at Winchester, July 24, 1817.

AUSTEN, WILLIAM, an English metal-worker and designer of the 15th c., celebrated as the constructor of the famous tomb of Richard de

Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, in St Mary's Church, Warwickshire. Men of taste and judgment have not hesitated to put his works on an equality with those of Italian artists of the same period.

AU'STERLITZ, a small town in Moravia, about 12 miles east-south-east from the town of Brünn, stands on the Littawa, and has a population of 2400. A. has a handsome palace; but it is celebrated chiefly as the place where Napoleon I., in December 1805, defeated the combined forces of Austria and Russia, under the command of their respective emperors. After the capitulation of Mack, at Ulm, October 17, Napoleon had marched on without opposition to Vienna, of which he took possession, November 11, 1805. The Russian and Austrian forces had retreated to Moravia, and Napoleon had fixed his head-quarters at Brünn. Towards this locality the troops of Alexander and Francis marched in five parallel columns to offer battle. The movements of the allies were ill-conducted, and evidently made without a due knowledge of the strength of the French army, which was concealed by the tactics of Napoleon. It amounted to about 80,000 men; while the allied armies numbered 84,000, of which 16,000 were cavalry. The battle commenced at seven, on the morning of December 2, and the Russian line was soon broken. The left wing of the allies suffered severely towards the close of the engagement, and endeavoured to save themselves by crossing a frozen lake; but Napoleon ordered his artillery to play upon the ice, which was broken up, and about 2000 perished in the water. According to Alison, the allies lost 30,000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners, and the French 12,000. Russian and French accounts make their respective losses smaller. The battle was followed by an armistice, the terms of which were dictated by Napoleon; and immediately after, on the 26th of December, by the treaty of Presburg, which determined that Austria should surrender the Venetian territories, and also her possessions in Swabia and the Tyrol.

AU'STIN, the capital of Texas since 1844, is situated on the left bank of the Colorado, in lat. 30° 15′ N., long. 97° 47′ W., at a distance of 200 miles from its mouth. In the season of high-water—that is, in the winter—A. is accessible to steam-boats from the sea. Population, in 1853, estimated at 3000.

AUSTRALA'SIA, a term etymologically equivalent to *Southern Asia*, but according to usage different. While *Southern Asia* vaguely means the lower regions of that continent, A. definitely indicates those large, or comparatively large, islands which, lying between the Malayan or Indian Archipelago and Polynesia Proper, are at once rounded off in collective position from the former, and distinguished in individual magnitude from the latter. The islands in question are chiefly Papua or New Guinea, Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, New Caledonia, New Hebrides, New Ireland, and New Britain—all to be again noticed in their places. Though the name is not in general use, yet it seems necessary, to a satisfactory system of geographical classification. In its entire extent, A. cannot be much less than Europe.

AUSTRA'LIA, the south-west division of Australasia. By some, it is strictly defined to be an island—as, indeed, may either of the masses of land called the Old and the New Worlds—while by others it is loosely described as a continent. It is bounded on the W. by the Indian Ocean; on the N., by Torres Strait; on the E., by the Pacific; and on the S., by Bass's Strait. It extends in S. lat. from 10° to 39°, and in E. long. from 113° to 154°; while its longest dimensions, as incidentally noticed under the h of AMERICA, may be said to run respectively a meridian and a parallel. The parallel in question is that of about 25°, nearly the mean lat. of A.; and the meridian is that of 142° or 143°, nearly the mean long. of Australasia—a meridian, too, which, when produced in either direction, seems to mark out both Tasmania and Papua as geological continuations of Australia. In English measure, the greatest breadth from north to south is upwards of 2000; and the greatest length from east to west nearly 2600 miles. Of the resulting rectangle of 5,200,000 square miles, A. comprises more than a half, perhaps four-sevenths, or, in all, about 2,970,000 square miles—half the area of South America, as the next larger continent, or ten times that of Borneo, as the next smaller island.

In the mutual relations of itself and the ocean—a point of vast importance to so large a mass of land—A. is decidedly inferior to every one of the grand divisions of the globe. It is not indented by the sea, as is North America on the east, or Asia on the east and south, or Europe on all sides but one. Again, as to navigable channels between the coast and the interior, A. is not to be compared even to Africa with its Nile and its Zambesi, its Niger and its Congo, its Gambia and its Senegal, and its many smaller arteries of communication besides.

Among the indentations of the coast, the Gulf of Carpentaria, on the north-east, the only one of considerable magnitude, does, it is true, penetrate inwards about 500 miles from Cape York on the east, and about 400 from Cape Arnhem on the This opening is entirely surrounded by ... regions, rendered suitable for colo... frequent and moderate rains. In ... the construction of the overland elec... from Adelaide, through the heart of ... co... to Port Darwin on the Gulf of Carpentaria, ... 2000 miles—effected by the Government of S... tralia, and opened in 1872—settlements have place in territories very different from what ear... servations seemed to indicate. For, saving the lying in the centre in lat. 27° to 25° S., the ... of Australia is found to be covered with soil ... or less fertile, in which, except during peri... droughts, that sometimes reduce the surface to... dition not unlike that of a beaten road, the ... is sufficient to revive the dorm... of life, and to clothe the cou... occasionally, the fall of r... ... form the whole of a plain, ... far as ... vis... sea, on the disappearance of which, in a wo... short time, the ground becomes covered ... dure. The other inlets put together are equal in size to the Gulf of Carpentaria while, strictly speaking, most of them are mere bends in the coast-line than actual arms ocean. Of the secondary inlets, the two deepest into the land are the Gulf of St ... Spencer Gulf, in the south. Of harbours, so called, there is a remarkable deficiency: deficiency is all the more impor... dangerous character of the reef... fluvial communications betwee... interior, they can, with a si... be said to exist at all. The in... ... alike unfavourable to the ... nance of regular and perma... —comprising the whole ... more than 100 miles i... ... senting, in proportional ... with the scantiest possi... ... of ... it—sends, as a general rule, barely ... the ocean. So far from possessi... ... the supply of rivers, its only l... ...

...sh pool or salt marsh, according to circum-
...l Lake Torrens (q.v.) is the rendezvous
... of at least one of its feeders, with the
... single exception of the Murray and
... others affluents ever send much water
... do conduct their surplus to the sea, the
... proportion of its volume carried
... and absorbed. With regard to the
... again, the mountains which form
... ridge, being, in general, not more
... from the sea, the streams which have
... their sources on the seaward slopes
... This is more particularly the case
... —for the Murray, as flowing from the
... of the maritime range, is an exception
... rule. To the west of the Grampians
... itself into the Southern Ocean
... Northumberland, and being within
... not a single river within the
... entire line between Spencer's Gulf
... —a stretch of 10° of longitude
... —pours into the sea any
... mass of fresh water. The Southern

... poverty of Australian hydrography
... l by the singularities of the geology.' An alternation of
... ed rainy periods is characteristic of
... skies. The rivers endure a
... of drought and flood to which
... tain limits almost as characteristic as the
... ren in these respects to any
... y. During the period of drought a
... succession of pools—a mere string of
... ar stream; nearly stagnant, with a
... thread of water between them. In the
... les' in all the gradations of depth; moist pits that may
... assure to the squatter and his family
... here the labour of carrying water
... In the drought, for instance, of the
... ugust 1839—during which the Darling
... in Sydney—even the Murray presented
... as the only permanent river of the
... e country, dwindled away into a chain
... d a recent explorer in Western Australia
... d of a large river—an ...
... ed, of the thoroughly inland character
... —the indubitable footprints, then 3 years
... ceding explorers. The flood, again, varies
... if not so definitely and regularly, as the
... To select what may be considered as an
... stance from a list of the floods of the
... ry in New South Wales: the torrent, at
... f July and beginning of August 1844 rose
... ht of 86 feet, or fully 30 above the reign of
... destroying the uncut crops of the settle-
... d sweeping away stacks of wheat and
... antities of stock of every description.
... n 60 such visitations appear to have been
... d and recorded within the last 50 years,
... nding over 80 years, of which about a
... rred in winter, the remainder being dis-
... in not very unequal proportions between
... mer, and autumn, and that without the
... of any one of the twelve months of the

... vers of the east coast—the Brisbane,
... , Clarence, Macleay, Hastings, Manning,
... Hawkesbury, and Shoalhaven—are, in
... towards their mouths, tidal streams,
... etween high banks through a comparatively
... rel region. Some of those of Victoria
... the Glenelg spring from a moist and
... g tract of country; while most of the
... se among the lofty ranges and snowy
... ...
... ...
... ...

sending off branch after branch to lose themselves in landlocked lagoons. Nor is its growth less curious than its lower channel. The whole of the interior drainage of the maritime ridge of New South Wales between lat. 25° and lat. 34°, a stretch of about 625 miles, converges into a vast basin of clay, on the 30th parallel, where the Balonne, Dumaresque, Gwydir, Namoi, Castlereagh, Macquarie, and Bogan, after spreading out in spacious marshes, and amid complicated junctions and bifurcations, unite such surpluses as absorption and evaporation may have left them to form the 'mysterious' Darling.

Such being the hydrography of A., the investigation of the interior, so far as it has hitherto advanced, has been conducted almost entirely by land. In 1844, Sturt penetrated to the centre of the country, between Spencer Gulf on the south, and the Gulf of Carpentaria on the north, meeting sterility and drought. In 1847, Leichhardt, encouraged by the success of his previous expedition from Sydney to Port Essington, started from Moreton Bay on the east, for Western A., following a sort of diagonal of nearly the greatest possible length; and, as was to be dreaded, he must have failed in his bold enterprise; for neither of himself nor of his companions has any intelligence ever been received. Subsequent explorations made by Stuart (1858–1862), Burke and Wills (1860–1861), and by expeditions in search of them, have resulted in the discovery that this interior of the Australian continent is, on the whole, well fitted for pastoral, and in many places, for agricultural purposes. See AUSTRALIAN EXPLORATIONS in SUPP.

Any detailed view of the climate, besides being equally difficult and unsatisfactory with respect to so vast an aggregate of latitudes and longitudes, has been rendered comparatively unnecessary by the incidental allusions to the subject in the preceding paragraphs. The following are tabular statements, extracted from local publications:

MEAN ANNUAL RAINFALL.

Locality.	Latitude.	Rainfall.
Brisbane, Queensland, lately Moreton Bay,	27° 1′	35·92 in.
Port Macquarie, New South Wales,	31° 25′	70·79 „
Sydney, New South Wales,	33° 51′	49·00 „
Port Phillip, Victoria Colony,	38° 18′	29·16 „
Lake Alexandrina, Mouth of the Murray,	35°	17·45 „
Adelaide, South Australia,	34° 55′	19·90 „
York, West Australia,	31 53′	25·39 „

FREQUENCY OF RAINY DAYS.

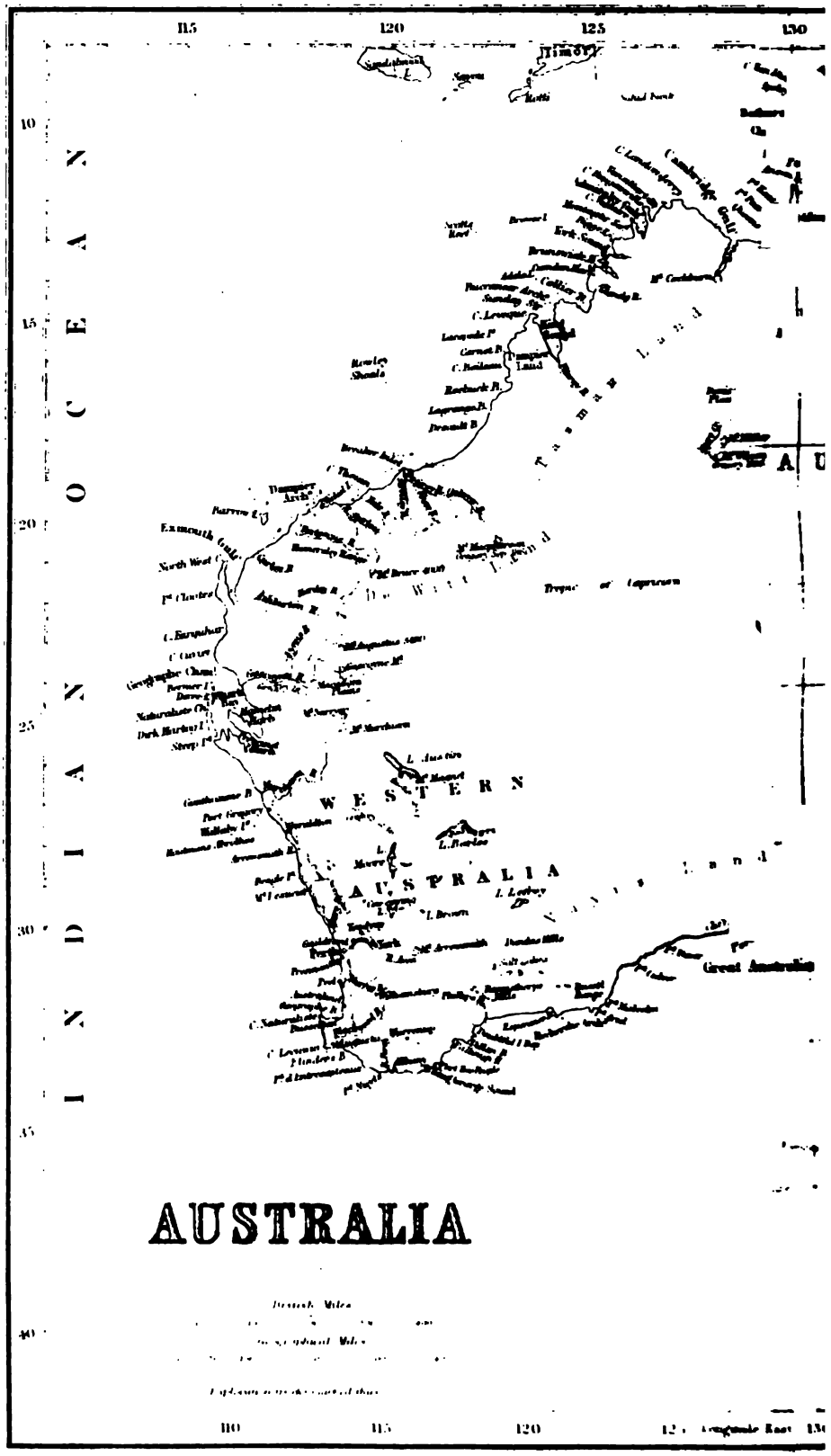
Month.	Adelaide.	Port Phillip.	Sydney, South Head.	Port Macquarie.
January,	4	6	13	11
February,	4	5	12	11
March,	5	7	13	12
April,	10	11	12	12
May,	10	13	12	11
June,	11	11	12	9
July,	14	12	13	9
August,	15	14	11	8
September,	11	12	11	9
October,	10	12	12	10
November,	6	10	11	9
December,	5	7	11	9
Whole Year,	105	120	143	120

The mean temperature of Melbourne is 59°, being about 9 higher than that of London. The warmest month is January, the mean of which is 68°; the coldest is July, 49·34. The corresponding temperatures of London are 63 and 36°.

Geology.—The little that is yet known of geology of A. has been chiefly obtained from o sional notes scattered through the journals of sc tific travellers. So utterly unknown were the min treasures of this continent, that it was only com ratively lately, and by the merest accident, that Burra Burra copper-mines were discovered. In 1 farmers were turning up with the plough the a ferous alluvium; pebbles of gold-bearing quartz w used for garden-walks; and we have heard of Oxford graduate who ornamented his garden-wa by building into them masses of white quartz var gated with portions of the unrecognised yellow met In 1846, when Count Strelecki submitted to Sir R Murchison a series of rock and mineral specime gathered in Southern A., the practised eye of th veteran in geology recognised in them a remarkab resemblance to the rocks in the auriferous distr of the Ural Mountains, which he had thoroughly explored. He could not ascertain that gold had ev been found in the colony, but so certain was he th the precious metal existed, that he printed and cir lated amongst the miners of Cornwall a paper urgi them to emigrate to New South Wales, and se there for gold, as they had been accustomed to se for tin and zinc among the alluvial débris of th own hills. After a few years, in the researches Mr Hargreaves, and the diggings that followed, t remarkable prediction was fulfilled to an extent th could not have been anticipated. This narrative of much value, as shewing that geology is no loo in the hands of empirics; that its truths have b so gathered and arranged as to afford bases for s inductions; and that, when rightly used, this scie is of the first importance, even when tested by utilitarian *Cui bono?* of the age. Recognising t the colonial governments of A. have appointed st geologists, who have begun their examination of Australian continent, and a few reports on circu scribed districts have been published.

In looking at the continent as a whole, it require not many broad touches to convey all tha at present known. An immense, roughly quadr gular and comparatively flat district in Central extending from the southern shores in lat. 35° where it forms a coast-line of somewhat bold to 18° S. lat., and having for its eastern and west limits 124° and 138° E. long., is composed of *Ter* rocks. The superficial characteristics of this almost unpeopled tract have already been descri Nothing more is known regarding its struct Three other patches of Tertiary rocks exist. largest is a broadish tract, which forms the coas Western A. northwards from the colony of Po as far as the Tropic of Capricorn. The second o pies a considerable portion of the valley of Murray River, in that district known as Lower L ling. The last and smallest patch covers southern slope of the Australian Alps, extend along the shore from Wilson's Promontory to t Howe.

The immense central expanse of Tertiary l is surrounded by a continuous belt of *Plutonic Metamorphic rocks*, only broken on the south shores, where it forms the coast-line, and where sea has indented it, forming a bay which has for boundaries the more enduring primitive rocks. crystalline belt is, on its east, north, and west sides, separated from the sea by a tract of land ha a nearly equal breadth of 100 miles thro its course. Tracing this from its southern tion in Western A., we find a limited p palæozoic rocks occupying the coloniza around Perth, and containing valuable c Northwards, as already indicated, consists of Tertiary rocks. From


115
120
125
130
10
15
20
25
30
35
40
INDIAN OCEAN
WESTERN
AUSTRALIA
Timor
Great Australian
110
115
120

AUSTRALIA

140
145
150
PAPUA
NEW GUINEA
TORRES STRAIT
Cape
York
Peninsula
GULF
OF
CARPENTARIA
CORAL SEA
Townsville
Mackay
Rockhampton
Gladstone
Brisbane
QUEENSLAND
NEW SOUTH
WALES
Sydney
Canberra
VICTORIA
Melbourne
BASS STRAIT
TASMANIA
Hobart
PACIFIC OCEAN
10
15
20
25
30
35
40
140
145
150

& 23½° S., the rocks along the whole western and
hern shores are composed of Secondary strata.
he eastern shore, from Cape York to the western
ndary of Victoria, the formations belong to one
ther of the Primary series. Through the whole
st of this boundary tract, whether consisting
ertiary, Secondary, or Primary strata, numerous
often extensive patches of igneous rocks exist
h have been erupted during the Tertiary or
-tertiary epochs.
bout 100 miles from the bounding tract of
asic rocks on the eastern limits of A., and
ing parallel with it, there is an equally broad
of similar strata extending from the shores
e Gulf of Carpentaria to Bass's Strait. These
regions, which unite together and are largely
loped in the southern portion of Victoria,
ly the great store of Australian mineral wealth.
veins which intersect these strata were the
al matrices of the *gold*. It has not, to any
nt, been sought for in this, its original position,
a belief that the amount of metal decreases as
escend in the solid rock. Mr Selwyn, colonial
gist for Victoria, has, however, lately reported
rour of quarrying for the gold in the solid rock.
greatest amount of gold is found in the heaps of
s or old alluvium derived from the denudation
old slaty rocks. The auriferous rocks of
A. are Lower Silurian, as shewn by Messrs
ore and Salter, from the examination of
mens of pentameri, trilobites, and corals from the
s which overlie them. Mr Selwyn has referred
Victoria gold-bearing strata to the same age,
the occurrence in them of about 60 species
wer Silurian fossils, including trilobites, grapto-
and lingulæ. The auriferous quartzose veins
t abundant in the vicinity of eruptive rocks,
r granite, porphyry, or greenstone.
ore Selwyn and Rosales have shewn that the
ficial drifts containing the gold consist of three
ict stages. The lowest or oldest contains the
ns of wood and seed-vessels differing little
the present vegetation; among them the cones
nkasia, an exclusively Australian genus, have
identified. The remains of animals exhibit also
presentatives of the living fauna of the country.
the marsupials then existed - kangaroos, poto-
and wombats - representing the elephants, and
the large carnivora of Asia; but with the
tion of the mastodon, of which one species
een found in A., there were, it would seem, no
ic forms common to this great district and
st of the land in the eastern hemisphere. In
ria, these beds of alluvium have been over-
l and even interlaced by basaltic *coulées*, which
ntly proceeded from terrestrial volcanoes, inas-
as the vegetable matter beneath them has
charred and destroyed *in situ* by the eruption.
extensive *coal-field* has been known for some
as occupying the whole of the great basin of
lunter River and its tributaries, down to the
ast at Newcastle, where several beds crop out
e beach. For a good many years, the monopoly
by the Australian Agricultural Company, in
orking of the coal, has ceased to exist, and
e result, the trade has increased enormously.
Port Hunter the coal is despatched to all
of A., and even to New Zealand and California.
belonging to the carboniferous system have
been discovered also in Western A., near Perth, and
oal has been successfully, though not so
nively wrought there.
er gold and coal, the next most important
alian mineral is *copper*. The Burra Burra
, in South A., were discovered in 1842. The
is 17 feet wide, and of vast extent. The ore
contains 75 per cent. of metal, and is quarried out
like stone in immense masses. Copper has also
been wrought for several years at Bathurst, in New
South Wales. The poorest ores are here most
abundant, the rich pyrites existing only in small
quantity. Traces of copper have been noticed in
Western Australia.

Iron is spread in great profusion over all the
continent. To such an extent does it exist in several
of the mountains on the north coast, that they
violently affect the magnetic needle. At Berrima,
in New South Wales, an oxidulated iron ore, from
which is manufactured a good steel, has been
worked, but not successfully. Iron has been noticed
in quantity in both Southern and Western Australia.

Lead is most abundant east and south-east from
Adelaide, at Mount Beevor, and near Cape Jervis.
The ore of Glen Osmond mines, near Adelaide,
yields 75 per cent. of lead, besides a proportion of
silver. This metal is also wrought at Geraldine, in
Western Australia.

Manganese, zinc, quicksilver, and antimony have
been met with in South A., as also good specimens
of jasper, chalcedony, and opal.

Zinc and quicksilver are mentioned as occurring
in Western Australia.

Botany and Zoology.—The natural history of A. is
remarkably different from that of any other quarter of
the globe. Its trees—which seldom form dense forests,
but are scattered as in a lawn or park, where the
colonist finds pasture for his flocks without any pre-
vious clearing—are, almost without exception, of very
peculiar appearance. Among the largest of them
are species of *Eucalyptus* (q. v.), some of which attain
the height of 150 or 200 feet, rising without branches
to at least half their height, their stately stems
resembling beautiful columns. Some of the Eucalypti,
on account of their resinous exudations, are known
to the colonists as Gum-trees. Their leaves are
leathery. It is, indeed, a general characteristic of
the trees and shrubs of A., that their leaves are ever-
green and of a firm texture; and although in this a
beautiful adaptation may be perceived to the pre-
vailing dryness of the climate, the foliage wants the
delicacy and the liveliness of tints which in other
countries form so much the charm of the landscape.
The *Casuarinæ* (see CASUARINA) or Cassowary-trees
(Beef-wood, She-oak, Swamp-oak, &c.), among which,
as among the *Eucalypti*, are some of the largest and
most useful timber-trees, are still more singular in
appearance; their long, wiry, jointed branchlets,
which greatly resemble those of *Equiseta*, are quite
leafless, having only very small sheaths instead of
leaves. Equally destitute of foliage are the greater
number of the *Acacias* (q. v.), which abound in the
Australian flora. The abundance of *Proteaceæ*—
which order includes the genus *Banksia*, already
noticed in the geology—connects the flora of A.
with that of the Cape of Good Hope, to which
there are also other points of resemblance; and
although true heaths do not appear, their place
is supplied by a variety of heath-like plants of
other natural orders, and particularly of the
order *Epacrideæ*, of which some (of the genus
Epacris) now take their place with heaths among
the favourite ornaments of our green-houses. *Arau-
carias* (q. v.) form a connecting link between the
flora of A. and that of Chili. In the more northern
parts, palms and other tropical productions connect
it in like manner with that of the south-east of Asia.

Few of the trees or shrubs of A. produce edible
fruits, and those known as Tasmanian Currants,
Tasmanian Cranberries, &c., are not of much value.
The seeds of the Araucarias are edible, having
some resemblance to almonds. Almost none of the
native vegetable productions of A. have been found

worthy of the care of the gardener, except as objects of beauty or curiosity; and it produces no plant which has yet found its way, or seems in the least degree likely to find its way, into agriculture—unless, indeed, some of its pasture plants may prove to be peculiarly adapted to dry climates. But the cultivated plants of other countries have been introduced with great success by the colonists, and their gardens boast not only of the fruits common in England and the south of Europe, but of some of those of China.

The zoology of A. is particularly characterised by the prevalence of Marsupial (q. v.) Quadrupeds, of which comparatively few exist in any other part of the world. Some of them are herbivorous, as the Kangaroos (q. v.), Potoroos (q. v.), and Wombats (q. v.); some feed indifferently on roots and insects, as the Bandicoots (q. v.); some are carnivorous, as the Thylacine (q. v.) and the Dasyure (q. v.)—the *tiger* and the *wild cat* of the colonists—but all are marsupial; that is, the females have a pouch for the young, which are born in a much less advanced state than the young of other viviparous animals. Besides its marsupial quadrupeds, A. has few others, yet known, except some species of bat; a kind of dog, known as the Dingo (q. v.); and the *Echidnas* (q. v.) and duck-bills (*Ornithorhynchus*) (q. v.), animals which have been regarded as forming a connecting link between quadrupeds and birds, both upon account of external form and anatomical structure, and to which nothing at all similar exists in any other part of the world.

Many of the birds of A. are very beautiful, but they do not exhibit peculiarities so general and striking as its quadrupeds, or even its plants. The Emu (q. v.) may be regarded as the Australian representative of the Ostrich and Cassowary. The Black Swan is chiefly remarkable for its colour. Ducks of various kinds, falcons, doves, parrots, and many other birds of families well known elsewhere, connect the natural history of this isolated continent with that of the other regions of the globe.—Reptiles are numerous, but exhibit as a class no very marked peculiarities, nor is there in any other department of zoology so wide a difference from the rest of the world as in the Mammalia. Among the fish of the Australian shores and rivers are many species which are not found elsewhere, but they present no remarkable common characteristic. Among them are no trouts, salmon, or other *Salmonidæ*, which, indeed, do not extend into the southern hemisphere. A premium has been offered for the introduction of salmon into one of the colonies.

As to the cultivated productions, wool may be reckoned the grand staple of Australia. For sheep-farming, the country, so far as it is not a desert, seems to be admirably adapted. The colonist, instead of having, as in America, to hew his way through dense forests, with tangled underwood, sees around him either open pastures or parklike woods overshadowing their green sward. His main difficulty is the scarcity of water, or rather the possibility that such a scarcity may occur. Wheat is grown to advantage, particularly in South Australia; cotton, tobacco, and sugar are produced in New South Wales and Queensland; the vine is grown extensively by the colonists, who have begun to avail themselves of the capabilities of the respective colonies by rearing the productions of tropical and temperate climates, both of which are possessed by Australia.

History.—In 1606, the north coast was descried by the Dutch on board of the *Duyfen*, and about the same time by a Spanish expedition sent from Peru in 1605, one of the commanders of which gave his name to Torres Straits. It is probable, however, that A. had been long known to the Chinese. In 1619 and 1622 respectively, the west and south-west coasts were seen. In 1642, the island, called for some time Van Diemen's Land, but now Tasmania, was visited by Tasman, who, within a month, sighted also New Zealand. In 1697, Swan River was discovered by Vlaming. In 1770, Cook, then on his first voyage, explored nearly the whole of the east coast, designating the same New South Wales. In 1798, Bass, a surgeon in the navy, ascertained the separation of A. and Tasmania, by passing through the strait that bears his name. In 1802, Port Phillip was entered; and in the same year, Flinders pretty nearly completed the general outline by sailing along the southern shore. To pass from discovery to colonisation: there was established, in 1788, the settlement of New South Wales, and from this all the other British Australasian settlements, with the exception of Swan River, have successively been planted. Norfolk Island, erected, in 1790, into a penal settlement for New South Wales, has recently been allotted to the descendants of the mutineers of the *Bounty*, removed for this purpose from Pitcairn's Island. The other colonies, whether offshoots or not of New South Wales, assumed an independent existence in the following order: Tasmania, 1825; Western A. or Swan River, 1829; South A., 1836; New Zealand, 1841; Victoria, 1851; and, lastly, Queensland or Moreton Bay, 1859 (see these heads). Besides these flourishing colonies, a settlement was established near Port Essington in 1839, but was abandoned in 1845, on account of the unhealthiness of the climate. Subjoined is a summary table of statistics for all the more important of these dependencies, not including those incipient settlements that have been effected along the course, and at the terminus, of the overland line of telegraph.

Colonies.	Square Miles	Pop. 1871.	Exports 1870.	Imports 1870.	Wool. 1871.	Gold. 1871.	Copper. 1871.	Land under Cultivation. 1870.	Pub. Rev. 1870.	Pub. Debt. 1871.
			£	£	lbs.	Oz.	Cwts.	Acres.		
New South Wales,	323,437	503,981	11,245,032	9,609,451	65,503,308	296,928	13,340	426,976	2,213,699	14,614,[illegible]
Victoria,	88,198	730,198	14,537,820	12,341,995	76,334,480	1,647,389	....	909,615	3,717,134	11,994,[illegible]
South Australia,	760,000	185,626	3,582,397	2,158,022	24,061,560	....	127,911	369,006	778,094	1,941,[illegible]
Queensland,	678,600	120,104	1,539,968	2,434,450	517,515	100,634	....	47,034	799,088	4,132,[illegible]
Western Australia,	978,000	25,353	199,280	198,010	83,976	....	....	59,263	97,402	....
Tasmania,	26,215	99,328	740,638	778,087	298,160	....	....	335,107	269,715	1,204,[illegible]
New Zealand,	102,000	256,279	5,282,084	4,078,193	1,986,996	730,029	....	1,129,811	1,342,116	9,496,[illegible]
Totals,	2,956,450	1,920,850	37,147,219	31,598,238	168,785,993	2,774,980	141,251	3,852,302	9,223,589	53,477,[illegible]

The native population of A. belongs to the race or group of tribes variously designated as *Negritos*, *Austral Negroes*, or *Kohomonsians* ('black islanders'). The chief members of the group, besides the Australians, are the Papuans of New Guinea, New Caledonia, and New Hebrides, and the natives of Tasmania. See Ethnology, Negritos. The Tasmanians are now extinct, and the Au are rapidly diminishing in number; their to will be considered under the head of each In Victoria they still number 1330 (not incl the foregoing table). The 38,540 natives Zealand (also not included in the table) be the Polynesians (q. v.).

AUSTRA'SIA, or the East Kingdom, the name
rn, under the Merovingians, to the eastern pos-
sions of the Franks, embracing Lorraine, Belgium,
d the right bank of the Rhine, and having their
ntral point at Metz. At the time of the rise of
e Frankish power, these districts were of great
portance, as they formed the connection with the
rman mother-country, and were the most thickly
habited by Franks. After the time of Charles
artel, the division of the Frankish kingdom into
and Neustria lost its political importance. Under
rma_ne's successors, A. merged into Germany -
s Neustria, or West Frank-land, into France.

AU'STRIA, ARCHDUCHY OF, the cradle and
ucleus of the Austrian empire, lies on both sides of
e Danube, from the mouth of the Inn to Presburg,
the borders of Hungary, and embraces an area of
out 15,000 square miles, with a population, in 1854,
2,624,237. It now forms three of the crown-lands,
administrative provinces of the empire—viz.,
wer and Upper Au tria (or Austria below, and
ustria above the Enn), and the Duchy of Salz-
rg. See AUSTRIA, EMPIRE OF. The south and
st portions are mountainous; the north and east
e more level and fertile, containing the great plain
Vienna, the Marchfeld, &c. The population is
stly German and Catholic. The chief towns,
ides Vienna, are Wiener-Neustadt, Salzburg,
yer, Linz, and Ischl (q.v.).

AU'STRIA, EMPIRE OF. The Austrian dominions
a compact territory, with a circumference of
ut 5350 miles. It is included between 42° 51'
lat., and between 12° 26' 20" E. long. The body
the empire lies in the interior of Europe, though,
means of the southern projection of Dalmatia, it
s about 1200 miles of sea-coast, on the Adriatic.
ith the rest of its circumference, it borders on
nice, Lombardy, Switzerland, Bavaria, Saxony,
ussia, Russia, Moldavia, Wallachia, Servia, Turkey,
d Montenegro. It embraces an area of 237,202
uare miles, and a population on December 31,
of 35,904,435. The empire falls into seven-
n administrative divisions called crown-lands
ronländer), together with a Military Frontier.
eir area and population are as follows:

Lower Austria,	7,[illegible]	1,[illegible]
Upper Austria,	4,[illegible]	[illegible]
Salzburg,	2,[illegible]	151,[illegible]
Styria,	[illegible]	1,[illegible]
Carinthia,	3,[illegible]	337,[illegible]
Carniola,	3,811	466,[illegible]
Coast Districts, or Illyria,	[illegible]	[illegible]
Tyrol and Vorarlberg,	[illegible]	[illegible]
Bohemia,	[illegible]	5,[illegible]
Moravia,	8,[illegible]	2,[illegible]
Silesia,	[illegible]	[illegible]
Galicia,	2,[illegible]	5,[illegible]
Bukowina,	3,[illegible]	511,[illegible]
Dalmatia,	4,[illegible]	4[illegible]
Hungary,	[illegible]	11,[illegible]
Croatia and Slavonia,	16,[illegible]	1,[illegible]
Transylvania,	21,[illegible]	2,[illegible]
Military Frontiers,	12,[illegible]	[illegible]
Total,	237,202	35,904,435

e census of 1867 for these crown-lands and
Military Frontiers returned a population of
330,082 shewing an increase of 3,574,433, a
le more than a tenth.

The population comprises the military establish-
nt, which, according to official returns, was, at
beginning of 1872, on a peace-footing, 278,470
n, and 838,700 on a war-footing. The naval
ces of Austria consisted, in April 1872, of 45
amers and 10 sailing-vessels.

The first eleven of these divisions—exce
Illyria and also part of Galicia,
extent of 75,180 square miles, with a population of above 12 millions, formerly belonged to the German Confederation.

Surface. Three-fourths of A. is mountainous or hilly, being traversed by three great mountain chains—the Alps, Carpathians, and Sudetes (q.v.), whose chief ridges are of primitive rock. The Rhaetian and Noric Alps stretch from Switzerland to the Danube, and contain the highest points of the Austrian territories, the Ortler Spitze rising to 12,779 English feet. Their height declines gradually towards the east, where the Leitha Hills (3000 feet), overlooking the plain of Vienna, form the transition to the Carpathians. This chain rises on the left bank of the Danube, near Presburg, and sweeping in a curve, first east, and then southward through Transylvania, again meets the Danube. The highest point is Butschetje in Transylvania, where a height of 9528 feet is reached. The central part, or Tatra Mountains, are vast granitic masses, resembling the Alps in character; the highest of these is the Lomnitz, in the longitude of Cracow, 8133 feet. The Alps are accompanied, north and south, by parallel ranges of calcareous mountains, covering whole provinces with their ramifications. The Carpathians are lapt on their northern side by sandstone formations; mountains of the same character also occupy Transylvania. Springing from the north-west bend of the Carpathians, the Sudetes run through the north-east of Moravia and Bohemia, in which last the range is known as the Riesengebirge, or Giant Mountains. The boundary between Bohemia and Prussian Silesia passes over the Schneekoppe, the highest peak of these mountains, which is 5275 feet in height. Continuous with this range, and beginning on the left bank of the Elbe, are the Erzgebirge, or Ore Mountains, on the confines of Saxony; and veering round to nearly south-east, the range is further prolonged in the Bohemian-Forest Mountains, between Bohemia and Bavaria.

The chief plains of the Austrian empire are the great plains of Hungary (the smaller of these is in the west, between the offsets of the Alps and Carpathians, and is about 4200 square miles in extent; the other, which is in the east, and traversed by the Danube and the Theiss, has an area of 21,000 square miles), and the plain of Galicia.

From the Gulf of Trieste to the south point of Dalmatia, A. has a sea-line of about 1000 miles, not counting the coasts of the numerous islands, the largest of which is Veglia, 23 miles by 12. The chief lakes are the Platten See (about 400 square miles), and the Neusiedler See (about 100 miles), both in Hungary. The first is navigable by steamers, and both are rich in fish, and have fruitful vineyards around them. The Alps and Carpathians enclose numerous mountain lakes. The Long Lake in the Tatra Mountains lies at an elevation of 6000 feet. The most remarkable of all is the Zirknitz Lake (q.v.) in Illyria. There are extensive swamps or morasses in Hungary. One connected with the Neusiedler See covers some 80 square miles. A good deal has been done in draining morasses.

The leading rivers that have navigable tributaries are: the Danube (q.v.), which has a course of 849 miles within the Austrian dominions, from Passau, at the mouth of the Inn, to Orsowa, on the frontier of Wallachia, and receives, on the right, the Inn, Traun, Ens, Leitha, Raab, Drau, and Save; and, on the left, the March, Waag, Neutra, Gran, Theiss, Bega, and Temes: the Vistula (q.v.), with its tributary the Bug: the Elbe (q.v.), with the Moldau and Eger: the Dniester and Adige (q.v.) have no navigable tributaries; this last, which rises in the
tian Alps, and flows past the famous city of

Trent, enters Lombardy above Verona, and confers on that country the benefits of what commercial importance it possesses—being navigable only up to a point below Legnago. The Rhine only bounds the empire for about fourteen miles above Lake Constance. The Isonzo, Zermagna, Kerka, and Narenta flow into the Adriatic.

The canal system of Austria is in general not extensive. Canal construction is recent. The Vienna and Neustadt Canal, in Lower Austria, has a length of 40 miles; the Bacser or Franz Canal, between the Danube and Theiss in Hungary, 69 miles; and the Bega Canal, constructed by the Romans, between the Bega and Temes, 83 miles. Extensive lines are still capable of being opened up, affording the only possible communication with many places now inaccessible, and, at the same time, the means of rescuing tracts of arable land from inundations.

The *climate* of A. is on the whole very favourable; but from the extent and diversity of surface, it presents great varieties. In the warmest southern region between 42°—46° lat., rice, olives, oranges, and lemons ripen in the better localities; and wine and maize are produced everywhere. In the middle, temperate region from 46°—49°, which has the greatest extent and diversity of surface, wine and maize still thrive in perfection. In the northern region, beyond 49°, except in favoured spots, neither wine nor maize succeeds; but grain, fruit, flax, and hemp thrive excellently. The mean temperature of the year is, at Trieste, 58° F.; at Vienna, 51°; at Lemberg, in Galicia, 44°.

The raw products of A. are abundant and various; and in this respect it is one of the most favoured countries in Europe. What one province lacks, another supplies. Its mineral wealth is not surpassed in any European country; it is only lately that Russia has exceeded it in the production of gold and silver. Mining has been a favourite pursuit in A. for centuries, and has been encouraged and promoted by the government. Bohemia, Hungary, Styria, Carinthia, Salzburg, and Tyrol take the first place in respect of mineral produce. Except platina, none of the useful metals is wanting. The mines are partly state property, and partly owned by private individuals. The value of their yearly produce was stated in 1851 at 119,664,781 florins (£11,966,478). Of this, salt yields 53 million florins; stones and earths, 40 millions; and metals, coal, and other products, 26½ millions. (In 1855, the value of metals and coal had increased to 37½ million florins.) Gold is found chiefly in Hungary and Transylvania, and in smaller quantity in Salzburg and Tyrol. The same countries, along with Bohemia, yield silver. The discovery of quicksilver at Idria (q.v.) first brought this branch of mining industry into importance. This metal is now also found in Hungary, Transylvania, Styria, and Carinthia. Copper is found in many districts; tin, in Bohemia alone. Zinc is got chiefly in Cracow and Carinthia. The most productive lead-mines are in Carinthia. Iron is found in almost every province of the monarchy, the chief Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola are chief seats. The production, though great, is not yet equal to the consumption. Antimony is confined to Hungary; arsenic is found in Salzburg and Bohemia; cobalt in Hungary, Styria, and Bohemia; sulphur in Galicia, Bohemia, Hungary, Salzburg, &c., though not enough to supply home consumption. Graphite is found abundantly in Bohemia, Moravia, Carinthia, &c.

The useful earths and building-stones are to be had in great profusion; all sorts of clay up to the finest porcelain earth (in Moravia, Bohemia, and Hungary), and likewise marble, gypsum, chalk, &c. Of precious and semi-precious stones are the Hungarian opal (which passes in commerce as oriental), Bohemian garnets (the finest in Europe), chalcedonies, agates, beryl, amethyst, jasper, ruby, sapphire, topaz, &c.

The following table shews the principal metals and minerals produced in Austria in 1867, and their average value in florins at the place of production:

		Weight.	Value.
Gold,	(Austrian pounds)	3,502	2,107,041
Silver,	"	81,074	3,242,960
Quicksilver,	(Austrian hundredweight)	7944	793,000
Tin,	" "	531	53,000
Zinc,	" "	40,296	402,960
Copper,	" "	47,653	2,382,650
Lead and Litharge,	" "	136,668	1,366,680
Iron, raw and cast,	" "	5,705,761	14,264,402
Graphite,	" "	27,377	273,770
Mineral coal,	" "	103,455,324	17,587,404

A. is peculiarly rich in salt. Rock-salt exists in immense beds on both sides of the Carpathians, chiefly at Wieliczka (q.v.) and Bochnia in Galicia, and in the county of Marmaros in Hungary and Transylvania. The annual produce of rock-salt is greatly above 3 million cwt. Salt is also made at state salt-works by evaporating the water of salt springs. The chief works are those at Hallstadt, Ischl, Hallein, and Hall in Tyrol. From two to three million cwt. are thus produced annually. A considerable quantity is also made from sea-water on the coasts of the Adriatic. Of other salts, alum, sulphate of iron, and sulphate of copper are the chief. There are inexhaustible deposits of coal in the monarchy; but they have not yet been rightly explored, nor are nearly all that are known yet worked. They are spread over all the provinces, but the richest are in the mountain-systems of Moravia and Bohemia. Of recent years, however, a great deal has been done to develop this particular branch of mining. A. has abundance of mineral springs, frequented for their salubrity; 1000 are enumerated, some of them of European reputation, as the sulphurous baths of Baden in Lower A., the saline waters of Karlsbad, Marienbad, and Ofen, &c.

The *veg table productions*, as might be expected from the vast variety in the soil and position of the different provinces, are extremely various. Although three-fourths of the surface is mountainous, more than five-sixths is productive, being used either for tillage, meadows, pasture, or forest. Grain of all kinds is cultivated, most abundantly in Hungary and the districts south of it on the Danube, in Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Galicia. Agriculture is not yet far advanced; the prevailing system is still what is called the three-field system, introduced into Germany by Charlemagne, in which a crop of winter wheat is followed by one of summer grain, and that by fallow. In Hungary, the Magyar adheres to his primitive husbandry, the German and Slave are adopting rational methods. Rice is cultivated in the Banat, but not enough for the consumption. Potatoes are raised everywhere; and in elevated districts are often the sole subsistence of the inhabitants. Horticulture is carried to great perfection; and the orchards of Bohemia, A. proper, Tyrol, and many parts of Hungary, produce a profusion of fruit. Great quantities of cider are made in Upper A. and Carinthia, and of plum-brandy in Slavonia. In Dalmatia, oranges and lemons are produced, but not sufficient for the requirements of the country; twice as much olive-oil is imported as is raised in the monarchy.

In the production of wine, A. is second only to France. With the exception of Galicia, Silesia, and Upper Austria, the vine is cultivated in all the provinces; but Hungary stands first, yielding not

Dresden
SAXONY
Erz Gebirge
BOHEMIA
Munich
Bodensee
L. Constance
Inspruck
SWITZERLAND
L. Como
L. Garda
Verona
Mantua
Modena
Legnago
Padua
Venice
Florence
Elba
MEDITERRANEAN
SEA
ADRIATIC
SEA
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Venice
the Po R.
Adige R.
Rhine R.
Danube R.
Elbe R.
Weser R.
Main R.
Neckar R.
Moselle R.
Saale R.
Inn R.
Tiber R.
Arno R.
Tiber R.
Pisa
Leghorn
Rome
Naples
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Salerno
Gulf of Taranto
Gulf of Policastro
Gulf of Squillace
Gulf of Quarnero
Gulf of Trieste
Gulf of Fiume
Gulf of Manfredonia
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Salerno
Gulf of Taranto
Gulf of Policastro
Gulf of Squillace
Gulf of Quarnero
Gulf of Trieste
Gulf of Fiume
Gulf of Manfredonia

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

st quality of wine, but four-fifths the
e whole produce of the empire. The
ace of the whole empire is estimated at
illion gallons, which is mostly con-
inhabitants themselves.

used in manufactures and commerce,
ce is held by flax and hemp. Flax
almost universally; white hemp in
via, and Hungary. Tobacco is raised
ntities, especially in Hungary, which
the cultivation of rape-seed. Bohemia
of the first quality, which are partly
ough other provinces require to import

The indigo plant has been lately suc-
imatised in Dalmatia. More than a
productive surface is covered with wood
e miles, which, besides timber, yields
secondary products, as tar, potash,
, cork, &c.

rs, bears are found in the Carpathians,
lmatia; wolves, jackals, and lynxes in
stricts, and also in the Banat, Croatia,
the Military Frontiers. The marmot,
eaver are also found in Dalmatia.
late sensibly diminished. The wild
the highest, the chamois and white
in the middle regions of the Alps and

More productive than the chase are
of the Danube, Theiss, and numerous
, and ponds. The chief sea-fishing is
Leeches, procured chiefly in Hungary and Transylvania; also
form an article of considerable trade.
mmerce the most important branch of
y is the rearing of silk. A. produces
er of a million of silk cocoons annually.
e is very extensive in the Tyrol the
y of cocoons in that country being

ing of *domestic animals* has not yet
that the home wants require. In some
excellent, in others quite neglected.
g is promoted by what are called
s.' Besides a number of imperial studs,
great many private establishments,
Hungary, for the same purpose. The
k-cattle is not equal to the demand;
are furnished by Hungary and Galicia
of sheep, like that of horses, has been
ct of care to the government. The
are furnished by Moravia, Bohemia,
Austria, and great part of Hungary.
The great mass is, however, composed
nown as middling and inferior sorts.
red chiefly in Dalmatia, and swine in
n 1851, the number of horses in the
s stated at 3,229,884 (not including
ng to the army); cattle, 10,410,184;
1,545; goats, 2,275,900); and swine,
early three-fourths of the population
n husbandry, so that A. is decidedly
l state, though its capabilities in this
by no means been fully developed.
tion is very unequally distributed.
alous districts are those of the south-
the north-west. The Alpine regions
e Carpathians are the sparsest; and
density diminishes towards the east.
empire, at the commencement of 1870,
7 cities which had a population above
tants; and three with more than
na at that date counting 834,284.
The population of Austria embraces
nber of races, distinct in origin and
n that of any other European country
a. The proportions in this respect
from the official statements of 1870.

The Slaves are the most numerous race, amounting to 16,219,000, nearly 50 per cent. of the whole population in 1870. They form the bulk of the population of Bohemia, Moravia, Carniola, Dalmatia, Croatia, Slavonia, the Military Frontiers, the Woiwodina, the north of Hungary, and Galicia. They are, however, split up into a number of peoples or tribes, differing greatly in language, religion, culture, and manners; so that their seeming preponderance in the empire is thus lost. The chief branches of the Slavic stem are the northern Czechs (the most numerous of all), Ruthenes, and Poles, and the southern Slowens, Croats, Serbs, and Bulgarians. The Germans numbered 9,040,000, or about 25 per cent. They are dispersed over the empire, but predominate most in the duchy of A., Salzburg, Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, the west of Hungary, &c. The Romanic peoples (speaking languages derived from that of ancient Rome) amounted to 3,456,000, or fully 9½ per cent., and are divided into western and eastern. To the first, the Germans give the general name of Welsch. They consist of Italians, inhabiting the south of Tyrol, Istria, and Dalmatia; the Ladins (Latins), occupying some valleys in Tyrol; and the Friauls about Gortz, north of Triest. The eastern Romans are the Valaks or Walachians, styled by themselves Rumuni, who are found in Transylvania, Hungary, the Woiwodina, Bukowina, and Military Frontiers. The Magyars, or Hungarians proper, numbered 5,631,000 (over 15 per cent.): they are located chiefly in Hungary and Transylvania; also in the Woiwodina, and a few in Croatia and Slavonia. The small remaining portion are composed chiefly of Jews, Armenians, and Bohemians or gipsies; and collectively they number 1,354,000, which is pretty nearly 3½ per cent.

As to *religion*, the great bulk of the nation is Roman Catholic. At the beginning of 1870 there were 23,954,233 Roman Catholics; of Greeks in union with the Church of Rome there were 3,941,796; not in union, 3,050,830. The Protestants of all denominations numbered 3,570,989; and the Jewish persuasion claimed 1,575,861. The Church of Rome has 11 archbishoprics and 57 bishoprics, and an army of secular priests. At the accession of Joseph II., there were 2024 convents; but at the end of the French war (1816), they had been reduced to 880. There are at present nearly 300 abbeys, and above 500 convents in the empire.

Education, since 1849, is under the care of a minister of Public Worship and Instruction. As compared with other German states, the education of A. presents some peculiarities. There is a greater prevalence of establishments where the pupils both live and receive instruction; also of schools for special callings. Instruction, again, whether high or low, is mostly gratuitous, or of trifling cost, being provided from general or local public funds. The government has recently made liberal allowance for elementary education. Another peculiarity is the sway of the clergy, both in schools and universities. The primary schools are entirely in their hands. The Jesuits, banished in 1848, have been allowed to return, and have had their schools restored. The number of elementary schools has increased greatly in recent times. In German Austria the law enforces compulsory attendance at the 'Volks-schulen,' or national schools, of all children between the ages of six and twelve; and parents are liable to be punished for neglecting to send them. Hungary is still backward in elementary education. There are seven universities in the empire. They are at Vienna, Prague, Gratz, Innsbruck, Pesth, Cracow, and Lemberg. The first four of these are classed among German universities, and were attended as follows, in the summer term of 1872:

	Vienna.	Prague.	Gratz.	Innsbruck.
Professors and Teachers—				
Ordinary Professors, . .	68	43	40	41
Extraordinary Professors,	38	23	10	7
Assistant Professors, . .	85	21	17	9
Teachers of Languages, &c.,	8	6	3	1
Total,	200	97	70	58
Students—				
Faculty of Theology, . .	198	207	103	197
" Jurisprudence,	1304	640	312	104
" Philosophy, .	697	265	141	148
" Medicine, .	1183	500	292	79
Total Matriculated Students,	3564	1612	859	528
Non-Matriculated Students,	317	97	76	84
Total,	3881	1709	926	612

The university of Pesth had in the same year 53 professors and 1700 students; Cracow and Lemberg, the universities of Galicia, and the other Slavonian provinces, numbered 70 professors and 1800 students. There are also a large number of establishments where the pupils are received young, and educated and trained for special professions, for the army and navy, for the counting-house, for the mine and the farm, as accoucheurs, &c. There are besides a large number of institutes for the promotion of science and art. The fruits of this extensive educational system are not what might be expected, in consequence of the priestly and monarchical restrictions which hedge it round. The chief libraries are the Imperial and University libraries of Vienna. There are in the whole monarchy 362 newspapers and other periodical prints; of which only 134 are political. Fully the half are in German; but the whole are fettered by conditions which render them quite worthless as organs of public opinion.

The *manufacturing industry* of A. is not yet adequately developed. The annual value of its manufactures—not including small trades—is estimated at 1000—1200 million florins, while that of its husbandry may reach 3000 millions. Bohemia takes the lead in this industry, then follow Austria proper, Moravia and Silesia, and Hungary. Vienna is the chief seat of manufacture for articles of luxury; Moravia, Silesia, and Bohemia for linen, woollen, and glass wares; Styria and Carinthia for iron and steel wares. The chief manufactured articles of export are those of silk and wool; the only others of consequence are linen twist, glass wares, and cotton goods. The yearly value of manufactured iron is about 54 million florins. The glass wares of Bohemia are of special excellence. The hemp and flax industry is one of the oldest and still most important. No branch of industry has risen more rapidly than that of cotton. The annual value of the silk industry is estimated at 60 million florins. The manufacture of tobacco is a state monopoly, and brings a revenue of nearly sixty million florins. The salt monopoly secures 18 millions.

In respect of *commerce*, A. is most unfavourably situated. High mountains oppose great obstacles on all hands to communication, and separate the producing districts from the only sea that touches the empire; while the chief navigable rivers have their mouths in other countries. Much has been done to remedy these obstacles. Since 1809, a length of 19,000 miles of highways has been made. The great Alpine roads over the Stelvio Pass, the Splugen, and the Semering (q. v.), are among the most remarkable constructions of our times. The first railway opened in A. extends from Linz on the Danube north to Budweis on the Moldau, and south to Wells and Gmunden. It is worked by horse-power. The state, in 1841, resolved to undertake the construction of railways, and since then a great extent has been laid down. The principal lines are from Vienna to Grätz, from Grätz to Cilly, thence to Triest; from Vienna to Stockeran, a to Brack; and from Vienna to Brunn, Olmütz and Prague. In Hungary, the are from Pesth to Szolnok, and from Presburg, *viâ* Waitzen, thence to Tyr total length of railways in the empire traffic at the beginning of 1870 was 45 miles. The length of lines under constr 1696, and the length for which conces been granted at that date was 171 miles.

The length of the telegraph lines in the 1870 was about 44,197 English miles.

River-communication received a grea from the introduction of steam. By m Danube Steam-company, formed in 1 second company (1852) confined to tug passengers and goods are now convey Danube between Ulm and Galatz, and c stantinople. The Austrian Danube Steam has a fleet of steamers plying on the D annual receipts from conveyance of go more than 7 million florins. This traffic vastly greater were the Lower Danube f the influence of Russia.

A great number of the political ed commerce have been removed or d ial customs-boundary that separated I adjoining provinces from the rest of ... done away in 1851, so that the whole is a one customs-district, with the exception of which still forms a small district by it tolls that obstructed the navigation of and the Danube have also been removed of conventions with the states through wh pass. By the new tariff, which came in operation in 1852, A. has passed from a p to a protective system. No article is admit free; but absolute prohibition is confined t of state monopoly (salt, powder, and tobacco for mere transit or transhipment pay no du the foreign commerce of A. is nothing with that between the different provinc great centre of this internal commerce is other important markets are Linz, Pragua, B Brody, Pesth, Grätz. The imports and e merchandise and bullion for the whole of th except the province of Dalmatia, which, as mentioned, is not within the imperial line of were tabulated as follows for 1870 and 1871

	Merchandise. Florins.	Bullion Florins
Imports—		
1870, . . .	421,548,651	41,054
1871, . . .	525,737,301	89,193
Exports—		
1870, . . .	391,477,615	34,661
1871, . . .	496,560,123	63,145

The principal article of import is wool which amounted to the value of 38,4 1870. Next in importance is the ... which was received by the empire to of 27,401,833 florins. The silk manu... ported the same year were estimated at ... florins' worth. The most important export are corn, flour, instruments, ... The last two were exported in 1871 to 6,373,063.

The chief harbours of A. are those of Triest, Rovigno, Pirano, Citta Nuova Croatia—Fiume, Buccari, Novi; of Zara, Spalatro, Ragusa, Cattaro, Cursola

As to *form of government*, A. is a mon ditary in the House of Hapsburg-Lothr the case of the reigning family dying out of Bohemia and of Hungary have ... choosing a new king; but for the other ...

sovereign appoints his own successor. The House must profess the Roman Catholic

1848, Hungary and Transylvania had a con- on limiting the monarchy, which was absolute rest of the empire; though the several pro- had each its consultative council composed of nobles, and burghers. After the Revolution and the subsequent reaction, all marks of dence of the separate provinces disappeared. perial constitution granted (*octroyirte*) March , as well as the provincial constitutions that d, were abolished, and government was d in the most absolute form by the imperial ' or charter of December 31, 1851. The guaranteed to every religious body recognised protection in the observance of public ces, in the management of its own affairs, the possession of buildings and funds for the of worship and instruction. The relation of man Catholic Church to the state was put new footing. It was no longer under the of the secular authority, the *placetum* and church-patronage were abolished, eccle- jurisdiction for discipline, and the independ- ministration of church-property, were conceded, intercourse of bishops and of all Catholics me left free. The clergy had no longer to so examination or tests on the part of the they were nominated by the state, but only he concurrence of the bishops, and without ncurrence they could not be deprived of their Along with all this, they obtained an over- influence over education, even in the es; and by the concordat signed in the of 1856, this influence was very greatly in- The patent further guaranteed the equality eye of the law of all citizens, irrespective of rank, or religion, and the liberation of the rom all serfdom. Subsequent patents (e. g. ngary, Croatia, &c. in 1853) regulated the between existing proprietors and their vassals, termined the indemnities due to the former ir seignorial rights.

since the year 1867, Austria has been recon- ed as a twofold empire, consisting of a German sleithan ' monarchy, and a Magyar or 'Trans- a ' kingdom. The former is generally known stria proper, and the latter as Hungary. Each two countries has its own laws, parliament, ers, and government; and the formal tie en them is a body known as the Delegations. form a parliament of 120 members: the one- chosen by the legislature of German Austria, is represented by it, and the other half repre- Hungary. The person of the sovereign is t in the tie between the two members are. The Magyars claim, under certain , the right of freely electing their monarch. egations have jurisdiction over all matters the common interests of the two countries, foreign affairs, war, and finance; the of which three departments are responsible discharge of their official functions to the m, a committee of whom sits permanently. of the Delegations require to be confirmed representative assemblies of their respective ries; and in this manner it is attempted to the self-government of both Austria proper Hungary free.

administration of Austria proper is divided sent among nine ministries—Foreign Affairs, Public Education, Agriculture and Public Finance, Interior, War and Navy, Com- and Justice. Formerly the ministry was the collective organ of the emperor, and was responsible to him alone. But a bill passed by the Reichsrath in 1867, and sanctioned by the emperor, renders it responsible to that parliament of the western empire.

The Reichsrath consists of an upper and a lower house. The upper house is constituted by princes, nobles, archbishops, bishops, and life members nominated by the emperor. The lower house numbers 203 members, elected by the 14 provincial diets of the empire in the following proportions: Bohemia, 54; Dalmatia, 5; Galicia, 38; Higher Austria, 10; Lower Austria, 18; Salzburg, 3; Styria, 13; Carinthia, 5; Carniola, 6; Buckowina, 5; Moravia, 22; Silesia, 6; Tyrol and Vorarlberg, 12; Istria and Triest, 6. The members of the Reichsrath are elected in the Provincial Diets, and no one who is not a member of one of these is eligible to the wider sphere of legislation. The emperor nominates the Presidents and Vice-presidents of both houses. The rights claimed by the Reichsrath are: 1. *Consent* to all military laws; 2. *Co-operation* in legislature affecting trade and commerce, customs, banking, posting, telegraphs, and railways. 3. Examination of the estimates, and general control of the public debt. To give validity to bills passed by the Reichsrath, the consent of both chambers is required, as well as the sanction of the emperor.

The executive of Hungary is carried on in the name of 'the king' by a responsible ministry.

Finance.—The protracted wars of the first 15 years of the 19th c. had so exhausted the resources of A., and shattered her credit, that paper-money, after being already twice reduced, had again sunk to 25 per cent. of its nominal value; and even 5 per cent. loans could only be obtained at a sacrifice of sometimes more than 50 per cent. During the 30 years that followed the war, much was done to restore the state credit, and 4 per cent. state paper was bought at par. The revolution of 1848 brought new difficulties, from which the finances had not recovered, when the Crimean war increased the expenditure; the Italian war must have added to it enormously; and the war with Prussia in 1866 threatened ruin to the empire.

The estimated revenue for 1871 was 17,667,859 florins; and the estimated expenditure, 122,501,173; shewing a deficit of 104,833,314 florins. The Budget estimates for the common affairs of the empire, for 1872, were—revenue, 17,208,883; expenditure, 110,647,498 florins; leaving a deficit of 93,438,615. To cover this latter deficit, the Austrian monarchy contributed 65,407,315; and the kingdom of Hungary, 28,031,584 florins. On the 1st July 1871, the national debt of the Austrian empire was 3,065,269,072 florins, or £306,526,906 sterling.

*History.**—The nucleus around which this great empire has grown was that part of the Archduchy of A. that lies below the Ens. In the age of Charlemagne, about 800, the defence of the south-eastern frontier of Germany against Asiatic hordes gave rise here to a Margraviate, called the Eastern Mark or boundary of the empire, or Ostreich (Austria), the eastern government; which, being united in 1156 to the country above the Ens, was raised to a duchy. After coming, in 1282, into the possession of the House of Hapsburg (q.v.), it rapidly rose to a powerful state. The princes of that House extended their dominion by marriage, purchase, and otherwise, over a number of other states, and from 1438 held almost uninterruptedly the throne of the German empire. By the acquisition (1526 and 1527) of the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, the House of A. rose to the rank of a European monarchy. In 1804, Francis

* As the history of A. and its rulers involves, for many centuries, the main strand of the thread of European history, it is given at somewhat more than the usual length.

declared himself hereditary Emperor of A., and, two years afterwards, laid down the title of Emperor of Germany and King of the Romans.

In the earliest times, what is now the Duchy of A. was inhabited by the Taurisci, a Celtic people; but their name subsequently disappeared before that of the Norici. After the conquest of the Norici by the Romans (14 B.C.), the country to the north of the Danube belonged to the kingdom of the Marcomanni (q. v.); on the south of the river lay the Roman provinces of Noricum and Pannonia, in which last was the municipal city of Vindobona (Vienna). Tyrol formed part of Rhætia. All these boundaries were swept away by the irruption of the northern peoples; and the regions in question were occupied in succession, during the 5th and 6th centuries, by Boii, Vandals, Goths, Huns, Lombards, and Avari. After the Lombards had settled in Italy, the Ens came, about 568, to be the boundary between a tribe of German origin and the Avari, a people who had penetrated thither from the east. The Avari having, in 788, crossed the Ens, and fallen upon Bavaria, then part of the Frankish empire, Charlemagne drove them back (796) as far as the Raab, and united the district from the Ens to that river with Germany, under the name of the East Mark, Marchia Orientalis, or Austria. He sent colonists, mostly Bavarians, into the new province, and appointed over it a margrave. It came into the possession of the Hungarians in 900, but was reconquered by Otto I. in 955, and reunited with Germany.

As margrave of the reconquered province, the emperor, in 983, appointed Leopold of Babenberg (q. v.), whose dynasty ruled A. for 269 years. Under Henry Jasomirgott (1141—1177), the Mark above the Ens was annexed to the Lower Mark, the united province raised to a duchy, and important privileges conferred on the newly named duke and his heirs. This Henry Jasomirgott took part in the second crusade; he also removed the ducal residence from Leopoldsberg to Vienna, now first called a city, and began the building of the cathedral of St Stephen. Under his successors, numerous additions (Styria, Carniola) were made to the possessions of the House. Leopold VI. undertook numerous expeditions against the Hungarians and the infidels, and is reckoned the best of the Babenberg princes. The line became extinct with his successor, Frederic, who fell in battle with the Magyars (1246).

Then followed an interregnum from 1246 to 1282. The Emperor Frederic II. at first treated the duchy as a lapsed fief of the empire; shortly, claims were set up by Count Hermann of Bavaria, who was married to a niece of the deceased margrave, Frederic; and when Hermann died, and the empire was distracted by the contests between rival emperors, the 'States' of A. and Styria chose Ottokar, son of the Bohemian king, as duke, who made good his nomination about 1260. Ottokar, refusing to acknowledge Rudolf of Hapsburg as emperor, was defeated, and lost his life and possessions, in the battle of Marchfeld (1278); and the emperor shortly afterwards (1282) conferred the duchies of A., Styria, and Carinthia on his son Albrecht.

The accession of the Hapsburg dynasty with Albrecht I. (q. v.) was the foundation of A.'s subsequent greatness. The despotic Albrecht contended successfully with Hungarians and Bavarians, but while attempting to subdue the Swiss, he was murdered near Rheinfelden (1308) by his nephew, John of Swabia, whom he had deprived of his hereditary possessions. Of his five sons, Frederic was chosen (1314) by a party to the imperial throne, but was defeated (1322) by his rival, Ludwig of Bavaria. Duke Leopold was defeated at Morgarten (1315) in his attempt to reduce the Swiss cantons that had thrown off their allegiance to Albrecht I. At last, by the death of all his brothers, Albrecht II. reunited the Austrian possessions, increased by various additions. After his death (1358), two sons, Rudolf and Albrecht III., successively followed in the Duchy of Austria. Another son, Leopold, held the other lands, but lost his life at Sempach, in seeking to regain the Hapsburg possessions in Switzerland. The posterity of Albert and Leopold formed the two lines of A. and Styria. During Albrecht III.'s reign, Tyrol and other districts were ceded to Austria. After his death (1395), the dukedom was held by his son, Albrecht IV. Albrecht V., who succeeded his father in 1404, by marrying the daughter of the Emperor Sigismund, succeeded (1438) to the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, and was at the same time raised to the dignity of German Emperor, as Albrecht II. With his death, in 1439, Bohemia and Hungary were for a time lost to the House of A., as were also, after a bloody struggle, the last of the family possessions in Switzerland. But the imperial dignity was henceforth uninterruptedly held by them. With Ladislaw, Albrecht's son, the Austrian line of the House closed (1457), and their possessions went to the Styrian line. Of this line was the Emperor Frederic III., who raised the dignity of his House by making A. an archduchy. After the death of Ladislaw and of his own brother, Albrecht, Frederic came into the undivided possession of the archduchy (1464).

His son, Maximilian I., by marrying Maria, daughter of Charles the Bold, acquired (1477) the Netherlands. Becoming emperor on the death of his father (1493), he ceded the government of the Netherlands to his son Philip. Under Maximilian, Tyrol fell again to the chief branch of the House of A., several districts were acquired from Bavaria, and fresh claims were established on Hungary and Bohemia. The court of Vienna began to be the seat of German art and science. The marriage of the emperor's son Philip with Johanna of Spain set the House of Hapsburg on the throne of Spain and the Indies. Philip died in 1506; and on the death of Maximilian I., in 1519, Philip's son, Charles I. of Spain, was elected German emperor as Charles V. (q. v.). Charles resigned by treaty all the German possessions, except the Netherlands, to his brother, Ferdinand I. (q. v.).

Ferdinand I. had married the sister of Lewis II. of Hungary; and on the death of the latter in the battle of Mohacz (1526), he claimed the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, along with Moravia, Silesia, and Lausatia. His claim was contested by John Zapolya, who secured the aid of Sultan Solmas II.; and Ferdinand, after contests extending over twenty years, had finally to pay an annual tribute of 30,000 ducats to Soliman for possession of Lower Hungary. Ferdinand was also fain to surrender Würtemberg to Duke Ulrich (1534), on condition of its reverting to A. on the death of the male line. Nevertheless, the possessions of the House of A. (in the German line) were at this time already of the extent of 110,000 square miles. On the abdication of Charles V. (1556), Ferdinand succeeded to the imperial dignity; he died with the reputation of a good ruler, though he strongly conservative of everything established, introduced the Jesuits.

In the partition of the inheritance that took place among his three sons, the eldest, Maximilian II. received the imperial crown along with A., Hungary, and Bohemia; the second, Ferdinand, Tyrol and Upper A.; the third, Karl, Styria, Carinthia. Maximilian was more fortunate in Hungary than his father. The death of Soliman before Szigeth led to a truce; he got his eldest son, Rudolf, crowned king of Hungary in 1572, and shortly after

a, and also chosen king of Rome. But his to bring the crown of Poland into his House Maximilian II. was fond of peace, tolerant on, and a just ruler. He died 1576; and of sons, the eldest, Rudolf II., became emperor. him, the possessions of the Archduke Ferdi- Tyrol, who had married Philippine Welser the beautiful daughter of an Augsburg , reverted to the other two lines, Ferdinand's not being considered noble. Rudolf II. to the old feudal usages, and was a t sovereign, leaving everything to his s and the Jesuits. His war with the Porte nsylvania brought him little credit; and the nts of Bohemia, oppressed by the Jesuits, from him a charter of religious liberty. At was obliged, in 1608, to cede Hungary, and, Bohemia and A., to his brother Matthias Matthias, who became emperor in 1612, d a 20 years' peace with the Turks, and 617 and 1618) Bohemia and Hungary to his Ferdinand, son of the Archduke Karl of hird son of Maximilian II. Matthias lived e outbreak of the Thirty Years' War (q. v.), March 20, 1619.

refused to acknowledge his successor, II. (q. v.), to whom all the Austrian ns had again reverted, and chose the Palatine, Frederic V., the head of the nt union, as king. The States of A. and ngarians were also refractory. But the Prague (1620) subjected Bohemia to Ferdi- rho formally set about rooting out Protes- in that country and in Moravia, annulled ht of electing their king, and the patent of freedom granted them by Rudolf II., and Catholic reformation tribunal which drove ls into exile. The emperor also succeeded ting acknowledgment of his sovereignty States of A., among which Protestantism nated; after which Protestantism was y prohibited. Hungary also was at last d to yield, which had revolted under the f Transylvania. But this religious war ecution cost the House of A. the life-blood ssessions. Of 772 cities in Bohemia, only e left; of 30,700 villages, only 6000; of inhabitants, only 780,000. Under Ferdi ccessor, the Emperor Ferdinand III. (1637 A. continued to be a theatre of war; and ace of Westphalia (1648), had to cede Alsace se. Ferdinand III.'s son and successor, I., provoked the Hungarians to rebellion by nty. Tekeli (q. v.) received aid from the d Kara Mustapha besieged Vienna (1683); as rescued only by an army of Poles and under John Sobieski, hastening to its assist- he emperor's generals now reduced the Hungary, which was declared a hereditary in the male line (1687). Prince Eugene d the Porte (1699) to restore the country the Danube and Theiss, and, in 1718, to er important provinces to Hungary. The between Leopold and Louis XIV. of France ership to the king of Spain, led to the war of sh Succession (q. v.), during which Leopold y 5, 1705. He was of sluggish phlegmatic , and wholly under the influence of the

eldest son and successor, the enlightened (q. v.), continued the war. He died childless 17, 1711, and was succeeded by his Karl VI. The peace of Utrecht concluded reign (1713) secured to A. the Netherlands, ntua, Naples, and Sicily. The monarchy ceed 190,000 square miles, with 29 million inhabitants, and had a revenue of 14 million florins, with an army of 130,000 men. Its strength, however, was soon much exhausted by fresh wars with France and Spain. At the peace of Vienna (1737), Karl VI. had to give up Naples and Sicily to Don Carlos of Spain, and part of Milan to the king of Sardinia; receiving only Parma and Piacenza instead. He also lost at the peace of Belgrade (1739) nearly all the fruits of Eugene's conquests, giving back to the Porte Belgrade, Servia, and the parts of Wallachia and Bosnia that had belonged to Austria. The emperor conceded all these points with the view of securing adhesion to the Pragmatic Sanction (q. v.), which conferred the succession on his daughter, Maria Theresa.

With his death (October 20, 1740), the male line of the Hapsburgs was extinct, and Maria Theresa, who was married to Franz Stephan, Duke of Lorraine, assumed the government. But counter-claims were raised on all sides, and a violent war arose, in which England alone sided with Maria. Frederic II. of Prussia conquered Silesia. The Elector of Bavaria took the title of Archduke of A., was crowned king of Bohemia at Linz and Prague, and elected emperor as Karl VII. (1742). The Hungarians alone stood by their heroic queen; who, at the peace of Breslau (1742) was forced to yield Silesia to Prussia. Frederic renewed the war by coming to the assistance of the emperor; but Karl dying (1745), Maria Theresa's husband was elected German emperor as Franz I. A second treaty of peace (1745) secured Silesia anew to Prussia; and at the peace of Aix-la-chapelle (1748), A. had to cede Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to Don Philip of Spain, and several districts of Milan to Sardinia. These sacrifices secured the existence of the Austrian monarchy; but Maria Theresa wished to recover Silesia, and with this view, entered into alliance with France, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden; but after a bloody Seven Years' War (q. v.), Prussia retained Silesia, and A. had spent her blood and treasure in vain. At this time, paper-money first appeared in A., under the name of state-bonds. At Franz's death (1765), his son, Joseph II., became German emperor, and joint regent with his mother of the hereditary states. Collateral branches of the House of A. were planted by the younger sons of Maria Theresa, the Archduke Leopold in Tuscany, and the Archduke Ferdinand, who married the heiress of Este (see Modena). In the first partition of Poland (1772), A. acquired Galicia and Lodomeria, and the Bukowina was ceded by the Porte in 1777. At the death of the empress in 1780, the monarchy had an extent of 234,000 square miles, with a pop. of 24 millions, and a debt of 160 million florins. The administration of Maria Theresa was distinguished by unwonted unity and vigour, both in home and foreign relations.

Her successor, Joseph II., was an active reformer in the spirit of the enlightened despotism of the times; though often rash and violent in his mode of proceeding. He introduced economy into every department, remodelled the censorship of the press, granted liberties and rights to Protestants, abolished 900 convents, and revised the school-system. His protective system of duties, though exhibiting his narrowness as a statesman, gave a start to native manufactures. But his reforming zeal and passion for uniformity excited opposition; the Netherlands rose in insurrection, and other disturbances broke out, which hastened his end (1790). He was succeeded in the government by his brother, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, as German emperor, Leopold II. who succeeded in pacifying the Netherlands and Hungary. Peace was concluded with Prussia and Turkey (1790). The fate of his sister, Marie

fortunes of his own daughter and her son—all furnished grounds of claim to that full indemnity for her losses which A. obtained at the close of the war. In the remodelling of the map of Europe that took place at the Congress of Vienna (1815), 32,000 square miles were added to the 253,000 possessed by A. after the last partition of Poland, besides the advantages she gained in point of compactness, and facilities for trade, especially by the acquisition of Venice and Dalmatia. Ferdinand, the emperor's uncle, was also restored to the grand duchy of Tuscany, of which he had been dispossessed by Napoleon.

After that time, A. exerted a powerful influence in European politics generally, and more especially in the German Confederation; and that influence was uniformly hostile to constitutionalism (see METTERNICH). When the Polish revolution broke out, a strict neutrality was assumed; but a Polish corps that was driven into the Austrian territories was disarmed, and sent into Hungary, while a Russian division that had taken refuge on Austrian soil was let go, and equipped with the Polish weapons.

The death of Francis I. (March 2, 1835) made little

Aula). A rising of the people (May ...), of the Central Committee, formed from the ... guards, which the government had still dissolve, compelled its continuance, a... revision of the electoral law, so as to ... new diet into a constituent assembly. ... ceedings led to the flight of the court to ... (May 17). An unsuccessful attempt of ... ment to break the power of the 'A... the appointment of a Committee of ... influence the government had to ... insurrection broke out in Prague ... was repressed with bloody s... Windischgrätz. While the emperc... ing at Innsbruck, leaving Vienna ... the populace, and the Hungarians ... independent course, it was in Italy tha... of A. began to recover itself.

Radetzky had at first been reduced to ... taining of a defensive position at Vero... Charles Albert of Sardinia, who had deel... on A. at the outbreak of the revoluti... forces that came to his aid from Tusc... and Naples; and the for... policy of ...

by the Archduke John, as his representa-
t a new crisis was ripening in Hungary.
ats, under their Ban, Jellachich (q. v.),
the predominance of the Magyars, and
obedience to the Hungarian government,
der the Batthyanyi-Kossuth ministry, was
a policy almost independent of Austria.
resistance was officially condemned by
and he was threatened with deposition;
sequently appeared, his conduct was
pproved by the court. The Archduke
Stephen, now left Hungary, after a last
t conciliation; and the emperor, who had
to Vienna after repeated invitations, named
amberg commissioner, with the supreme
in Hungary. Lamberg, however, was
on the bridge of Pesth (September 28).
rian parliament was now dissolved, and
d given to Jellachich. But the parlia-
mued its sittings, and appointed Kossuth
of the committee of defence. When the
ops now began to march against Hungary,
insurrection broke out in Vienna (October
was attributed to Hungarian instigation.
nal was stormed, and the war-minister,
murdered; the court fled to Olmütz, a
y of safety was appointed, the armed
organised, and the Polish general, Bem,
e head of military affairs; while the diet
between loyalty and revolution. In the
, the military forces had withdrawn, and
llachich, in order to prevent the Hungarians
the aid of the Viennese. Windischgratz
oached with an army, and declared Vienna
e of siege. The attack began on the 23d
r, and after a resistance of 8 days, Vienna
ed.

measures were then taken; and a number
, among others, Robert Blum (q. v.), were
d and shot. The diet now met at Kremsier,
w ministry was formed, into which Fran
, Count Stadion, Bach, Bruck, and
. But the vigorous policy thought to
for the restoration, and advocated by
uchess Sophia, was not responded to by
nature of Ferdinand I. Accordingly, the
abdicated, December 2, as did also the
Franz Karl, and the latter's son, Franz
. v.), was declared emperor.

ter, Windischgratz entered Hungary, and
e Hungarian war. After the encounters
and Babolna, Ofen was besieged (January
l the Hungarians retired beyond the Theiss,
to organise themselves under such able
Görgei and Klapka, and to prepare for
f the following summer.

antime, important events took place
an March (21–23), Radetzky made his
l decisive campaign, which, by the victory
a, led to the abdication of Charles Albert,
indemnification for war expenses from
of 15 million lire. With the surrender of
hich took place in August, the subjugation
as complete.

ussir, the diet proving intractable, was
March 4, 1849; and a constitution was
(*octroyirt*), with two elective chambers,
le ministers, and other constitutional pro-
In the National Assembly at Frankfurt,
d the project of a confederated state under
ship of Prussia, and managed to thwart
ering of the empire of Germany on the
king (March 1849).

agary, the Magyars, though the Germans
e within the country itself were hostile to
gan the campaign with decided success.
Bem conquered Transylvania in spite of Russian aid; and the rest of the Hungarian army advancing westward in spring, were successful against the imperial forces at Szolnok and Waitzen. Windischgratz was replaced in the command by Welden, but the imperial cause was not improved. Kossuth's hopes rising, he proclaimed the deposition of the House of Hapsburg, and virtually made Hungary a republic. By May, Pesth and Ofen were again in the hands of the Magyars; and although General Welden was recalled, and the command given to Haynau, there was little prospect of success against the Magyars, if a treaty with the czar had not brought the aid of a Russian army under Paskewitsch. The Austrians still suffered several reverses, and the Hungarians performed splendid feats of arms, such as Görgei's victory at Waitzen, and Klapka's sally from Komorn; but from June, the war on the whole began to be more favourable to A., whose forces were well managed by Haynau and Jellachich; and the intervention of the Russians brought an irresistible weight of numbers against the Magyars. After the affairs of Szegedin and Debreczin, Haynau's engagements on the Theiss, and the raising of the siege of Temeswar, it was in vain that Kossuth transferred the dictatorship to Görgei. Görgei, whether from treachery, as the other Magyar leaders maintain, or from necessity, as he himself avers, laid down his arms to the Russians at Vilagos (August 13). The surrender of Komorn, in September, completed the subjugation of Hungary, which was treated as a conquered country, and the officers taken in Arad were dealt with by Haynau with a blood-thirsty rigour.

A. was now free to attend to politics, internal and external, and the spirit of the restoration soon shewed itself. One important fruit of the revolution was retained—the liberation of the soil from the burdens and trammels of feudalism. All other liberal concessions very soon disappeared. For a time, the forms of the constitution of March 1849 were retained; but the rigorous military government and the surveillance exercised over the press, shewed the tendency of things. The fundamental principles of the constitution turned out to the profit only of the Catholic Church, which got rid of the placetum regium. In the beginning of 1851, Schmerling and Bruck, the liberal element of the ministry, retired; and in August appeared a number of imperial decrees rendering the ministers accountable to the emperor alone. At last, January 1, 1852, it was announced that the constitution and the fundamental rights were abolished, trial by jury set aside, the old press law revived, &c. This was followed by still greater concessions of influence to the clergy. The emperor did not conceal his predilection for absolute military government. All this was not effected without manifestations of discontent. The fires of revolution were still smouldering in Hungary and Italy; and in Lombardy, though still under strict military law, a tumult broke out, February 1853, in which a number of officers and soldiers were stabbed. The finances, too, notwithstanding vigorous measures for improving the material resources of the country, continued in a bad state, so that incessant loans were required to cover the current deficit.

On the confused arena of German politics, the struggle for ascendency was kept up between A. and Prussia. In October 1850, the two powers were armed and ready to come to blows; but the bold and determined policy of Schwartzenberg prevailed, and Prussia gave way. The points in dispute it might be difficult for any but a German to understand, even if it were worth trying. See GERMANY, HESSE-CASSEL. The result was that Prussia's

the treaty of 1815, was far from satisfactory; but what was chiefly complained of by the other powers was her interference in the affairs of the independent states of the peninsula. By means of secret treaties (copies of which were laid before the British Houses of Parliament this year, 1859), A. obtained a most undue influence in Parma, Tuscany, Modena, the States of the Church, and in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. That influence was of course exercised in the interests of despotism, and in opposition to the welfare of the people, whose wishes their rulers, backed by Austrian troops, were enabled to set at defiance. The position of A. in Italy was canvassed at the meetings which followed the signing of the treaty of peace at Paris in 1856, but nothing resulted from the discussions. Sardinia seeing herself gradually environed by, and afraid to fall a victim to the prevailing Austrianism, after all remonstrances of a peaceful kind had failed, began to arm. A. demanded her immediate disarmament, on pain of war; but Sardinia, whose army was swelled with volunteers from every part of the peninsula, and who had previously entered into a treaty, offensive and defensive, with France, refused. A. accordingly commenced hostilities by crossing the Ticino on the

[illegible] as in *autocral, automaton, autonomy;* in object, as in *autobiography, autocritic.* in others, again, a mere reference to in *autochthonous.* This variation in t[illegible] relation of *A.* sometimes occasio[illegible] meaning of the compound. Tha[illegible], both a machine that writes of i[illegible] writing done with the person's own [illegible]. both the mastery over one's self, and or absolute authority over a people or

AUTO'CRACY (Gr. *self-mastery*, or *aut[illegible]* signifies that form of government in [illegible] sovereign unites in himself the l[illegible] executive powers of the state, and trolled. Such a sovereign is t[illegible] autocrat. Nearly all eastern gov[illegible] form. Among European rulers, [illegible] Russia alone bears the title of Autocra[illegible] fying his constitutional absoluteness.—K[illegible] word *A.*, in philosophy, to denote the reason over the rebellious propen[illegible]

AU'TO DA FÉ (Port. Act of Faith) [illegible] name given to the procession or ceremo[illegible] used to take place in Spain and Por[illegible]

led by the Dominicans, carrying the flag of the
isition; next followed the penitents, on whom
penance had been laid; behind them, and
ed by a great cross which was borne before,
so condemned to death—barefoot, clad in
—aito, and with a pointed cap on the head;
ies of the fugitives; and lastly, the bones
culprits, in black coffins painted with flames
hellish symbols. The frightful train was closed
the army of priests and monks. The procession
t through the principal streets to the church,
re, after a sermon on the true faith, the sentence
announced. In the meantime, the accused stood
re a crucifix with extinguished torches in their
ds. After the sentence had been read to them, an
er of the inquisition gave each of the condemned
low on the breast with his hand, as a sign that
y were given over by that tribunal to the secular
rer; on which a secular officer took them in
rge, had them fettered, and taken to prison. A
hours afterwards, they were brought to the
e of execution. If they yet, at the last, made
fession of the Catholic faith, they were so far
oured as to be first strangled; otherwise, they
re burned alive, and with them the effigies and
es of the fugitive and dead culprits. As a rule,
ki along with his whole court, had to exalt
—ence the solemnity of the horrid transac-
The most splendid Auto da Fé took place at
l, under Charles II., in 1680; the last was
as recently as towards the middle of last

AUTOGRAPH (Gr.) is a term applied to what is
n with the person's own hand, and not by an
uensis. In relation to manuscripts, it is used
opposition to a *copy*. The collection of autographs
especially in recent times, become an object of
pursuit, and consequently they form a branch
literary trade. Their value is determined by the
erest felt in the writer, the scarcity of such relics
him, and the contents of the writing. Besides
traits of famous persons, we wish, particularly in
case of distinguished contemporaries, to possess
n of their handwriting, or at least their
, as the peculiarity of the style the
nomy of the handwriting—completes our
owledge of their personality. Lithography is
ularly serviceable in this matter, not only by
ying fac-similes for biographical and historical
ks and for portraits, but also by multiplying
pressions of collected autographs, such as have
peared in England by Smith, in Holland by
n, and in Germany by Dorow. But deserving
on before all others are the *Isographie des
mes Célebres* (3 vols. Par. 1828—1830), to which

Signature of Richard III. (Ricardus Rex).
From the Paston Letters

plement appeared in 1839; and the *Autographen-
abum zur* 200 *jarigen Gedächtnissfeier des
rhein Friedenschlusses* (fol. Leip 1848). We
an uninterrupted succession of the royal
phs of England from King Richard II. down-
Fac-similes are to be found in *Autographs
al, Noble, Learned, and Remarkable Person-
Conspicuous in English History, from the Reign
hard II. to that of Charles II.*, by John Gough
s (fol. Lond. 1829). The preface to the work
as some interesting notices.

AUTOLYCUS, a Greek astronomer and mathematician of Pitane in Æolia, about 330 B.C., wrote on the Revolving Sphere, and on the Rising and Setting of the Fixed Stars. Both works, printed in Dasypodius's *Propositiones Doctrinæ Sphericæ* (Strasb. 1572), contain, for the most part, only such propositions of spherical astronomy as can be solved by means of a globe; and, instead of presupposing the knowledge of spherical trigonometry, they seem rather to prove that A. himself was unacquainted with it.

AUTOMATON is derived from two Greek words signifying self-movement, and is usually applied to machinery constructed to represent human or animal actions. The construction of automata has occupied the attention of mankind from very early ages. Archytas of Tarentum is reported, so long ago as 400 B.C., to have made a pigeon that could fly. Albertus Magnus and Roger Bacon, in the 13th c., are said—but there is some dubiety about the matter—to have made respectively a porter to open the door, and a speaking head; while Regiomontanus, in the 15th c., is declared to have been successful in imparting life-like motion to a fly. In France, in the beginning of the 18th c., many persons busied themselves in the construction of automata; and among other things, a pantomime, in five acts, was represented by actors moved by machinery. An automatic carriage group, made by M. Camus for the amusement of Louis XIV., is stated to have been very perfect; but it is doubtful whether it was so complete as it is represented to have been. The most perfect A. about which there is absolute certainty, was one constructed by M. Vaucanson, and exhibited in Paris in 1738. It represented a flute-player, which placed its lips against the instrument, and produced the notes with its fingers in precisely the same manner as a human being does. In 1741, M. Vaucanson made a flageolet-player, who with one hand beat a tambourine; and in the same year he produced a duck. This was a most ingenious contrivance, the mechanical duck being made to conduct itself in every respect like its animated pattern. It swam, dived, ate, drank, dressed its wings, &c., as naturally as its live companions; and, most wonderful of all, by means of a solution in the stomach, it was actually made to digest its food! Maelzel made a trumpeter, which, about 1809, was exhibited in Vienna, and played the Austrian and French cavalry marches with much skill. An A., produced by M. Droz, drew likenesses of public characters; and, some years ago, Mr Faber contrived a figure, exhibited in various places, Edinburgh among others, which, by means of certain keys, was made to articulate simple words and sentences very intelligibly, but the effect was not pleasant. The inventor first mentally divided the word or sentence into its distinct sounds as a phonographer would do in writing—and having determined the sounds, pressed one after the other the keys which admitted the air into the various compartments containing the mechanism constructed to imitate them. The chess-player of Kempelen was long regarded as the most wonderful of automata. It represented a Turk of the natural size, dressed in the national costume, and seated behind a box resembling a chest of drawers in shape. Before the game commenced, the artist opened several doors in the chest, which revealed a large number of pulleys, wheels, cylinders, springs, &c. The chessmen were produced from a long drawer, as was also a cushion for the figure to rest its arm upon. The A. not being able to speak, signified when the queen of his antagonist was in danger by two nods, and when the king was in check by three. The A. succeeded in beating most of the players with whom it engaged; but it turned out afterwards that a crippled Russian

officer—a very celebrated chess-player—was concealed in the interior of the figure. The figure is said to have been constructed for the purpose of effecting the officer's escape out of Russia, where his life was forfeited. So far as the mental process was concerned, the chess-player was not, therefore, an A.; but great ingenuity was evinced in its movement of the pieces (see *Chambers's Journal*, vol. xii., p. 66). In 1845, Mr John Clark of Bridgewater exhibited an *A. Latin Versifier*, which he himself described as a practical illustration of the law of evolution. 'The machine,' he said, 'contains letters in alphabetical arrangement; out of these, through the medium of numbers, rendered tangible by being expressed by indentures on wheel-work, the instrument selects such as are requisite to form the verse conceived; the components of words suited to form hexameters being alone previously calculated, the harmonious combination of which will be found to be practically interminable.' An automatic group, consisting of a child, monkey, hare, and goat, was exhibited in this country in 1856, the motions of the animals being very perfect. M. Houdin, the celebrated conjuror, is the inventor of some striking automata. Automata have also been constructed to play on the piano, and to set up type. The latter are very ingenious machines, but hitherto they have not been successful enough to warrant their general introduction. They are, however, in use in some printing-offices in London. One practical difficulty they have not yet overcome, is the spacing out of the lines; that has to be done by the human hand. See Hutton's *Mathematical Recreations; Memoirs of Robert Houdin*. Lond. 1859. Chapman and Hall.

AUTONOMY (Gr. *self-legislation*) is the arrangement by which the citizens of a state manage their own legislation and government; and this evidently may, with certain restrictions, be the case also within limited bodies of the same people, such as parishes, corporations, religious sects. The term A. is used to designate the characteristic of the political condition of ancient Greece, where every city or town community claimed the right of independent sovereign action. The idea of two or more town communities sinking their individual independence, and forming the larger aggregate unity which we understand by a state, seems to have been intolerable to the Greek mind.

AUTUN (Bibracte, Augustodunum), a town in France, department of the Saône-et-Loire, in the Burgundian district of Autunois. Pop. 9729. It is situated on the river Arroux, is the seat of a bishop, and has a fine cathedral. Cloth, carpets, leather, stockings, and paper are manufactured in the place. The ancient Bibracte was the chief city of the Ædui, and had a much frequented Druid school; and at a later period, under the Romans, when it got the name of Augustodunum, it was no less famous for its school of rhetoric. A. was pillaged by the Saracens in 725, and nearly destroyed by the Normans in 888. There still exist at A. many ruins of Roman temples, gates, triumphal arches, and other antiquities. At the Council of A. (1094), King Philip I. was excommunicated for divorcing his queen, Bertha.

AUVERGNE, a southern central district of France, was before the revolution a separate province, composing almost exclusively the modern departments of Cantal and Puy-de-Dôme. Between the Allier and the upper course of the Dordogne and the Lot, A. rises into a highland region, having Roullonnais, Limousin, and Rouergue, as terraces of descent into the western plains, while on the east rises the Cevennes and the southern highlands. Chiefly do the cone and dome-like shapes of the summits betray a volcanic formation, but all great masses of basalt and trachyte that through the crust of granite and gneiss, rem probable that this was a chief focus of pl action. Among the summits that have appa been at one time volcanoes, the most rema are Cantal (6093), Mont-d'Or (6188), Puy-de- (4806), and Pariou; the latter, adjoining P Dôme, is basin-shaped on the top, and one finest specimens of an ancient and extinct vol all are now covered with verdure. A. falls nat into two divisions—Upper A., to the south Lower A., to the north; in which last the val Limagne, on the left bank of the Allier, is guished for extraordinary fertility. The clim colder in the mountainous districts than the sa position, with a less elevation, would lead expect, and is remarkable for furious wind violent thunder-storms; but in the deep valley heat of summer is often oppressive. The covered plateaus are desert, but the pulv volcanic earths that cover the slopes and v form a rich and fruitful soil, as is shewn b crops of grain, garden produce, fine fruits abundance of chestnuts in the south, and of in the north, as well as by extensive thriving along with flax and hemp fields and meadow in the poorer districts. Agriculture is in a neglected condition; but the breeding of especially of mules, is well managed. A. pro iron, lead, copper, antimony, and coal, and i in mineral springs.

The Auvergnese are a highland people, ra their manners, poor, ignorant, at the same honest and kind, though not free from the pr sity to revenge. They live by cattle-keeping agriculture, and by going to Paris as labo Domestic manufactures, therefore, remain c to weaving, tanning, and paper-making. A. however, produced distinguished men. It wa native place of statesmen and warriors of the and 16th centuries; and also of the Arnauld family, so distinguished in the history of Royal and of Jansenism. In more recent t Lafayette and Polignac may be named. Chief t Clermont and Aurillac (q. v.). The country de its name from the Averni, who long defended fastnesses against Cæsar, as later against the G Burgundians, and Franks, with whom they a coalesced.

AUXILIARY SCREW. See SCREW-PROPE

AUXILIARY VERBS. See VERBS, CONJ TION.

AVA, a ruined city of Burmah, of which it repeatedly been the capital, the honour having transferred again and again between it and A chobo, Sagaing, and Amarapura, which is the pr capital. It stands in lat. 21° 51' N., long. 95 E., on the south-east bank of the Irawaddy, about 4000 feet broad. The river at this p receives two affluents, and these being joined canal, the city is rendered circumnavigable. name is a Hindu and Malay corruption of Ac or Aacn-ua, meaning *fish-pond*, given it from b built where there were formerly fish-ponds, of some still remain; but in official docume designated as Ratnapura, *i.e.*, City of Pea city, which is, or was, eight or ten miles in c ference, is surrounded by walls and ditches, now almost a desert, having been reduced to r by an earthquake in 1839.—On the opposite b stands the city of Sagaing, which has twice the seat of government. The united populatio the three cities of Ava, Sagaing, and A was at one time estimated at 400,000.

A, AREA, YAVA, or KAVA (*Macropiper* ...sm), a plant of the natural order *Piperaceæ* ...ssessing narcotic properties. Until recently, ...d in the genus *Piper* (Pepper). It is a ... with heart-shaped, acuminate leaves, ..., solitary, axillary spikes of flowers. ... ...ave of many of the South-sea islands, ... inhabitants intoxicate themselves with ...ed liquor prepared from its root or (more ...ely) rhizome. The rhizome is thick, woody, ..., and aromatic. A tincture of it is useful in ... rheumatisms. The intoxicating liquor is ...ed by macerating it in water. The savage ...ns were accustomed to prepare it in a very ... manner; much as the Indians of the Andes ... *Chica* or Maize beer—chewing the root, ... it in a bowl, straining through cocoa-nut ...ing with water or cocoa-nut milk, after ...station speedily ensues. The taste is ...o those unaccustomed to it, and has been ... ... that of rhubarb and magnesia. The ...ation is not like that produced by ardent ... but rather a stupefaction like that caused ...m. It is succeeded by a copious perspira- The habitual use of ava causes a whitish ...on the skin, which, among the heathen ...ns, was reckoned a badge of nobility, the ...n people not having the means of indul- requisite to produce it.—The leaf of the ava ...is in some places used with the betel-nut, ...of that of the betel-pepper.

ALANCHES are masses of snow or ice that ... down the declivities of high mountains, ... occasion great devastation. They have ...s, according to their nature. Drift or ...anches (*Staub Lawinen*) consist of snow, ...oose and dry from strong frost, once set in ... by the wind, accumulates in its descent, and ...suddenly into the valley in an overwhelming ...oud. A. of this kind occur chiefly in winter, ...e dangerous on account of their suddenness, ...ting men and animals, and overturning ... by the compression of the air which they ... Another kind of avalanche resembles a land- ...en the snow begins to melt in spring, the ...ath becomes loose and slippery; and the ...des down the declivity by its own weight, ...g with it soil, trees, and rocks. The great- ...nger is where elevated tracts of moderate ...ty are separated from the valleys by precip- ...alls of rock; the soft-ned snow of spring ...ing to roll or slide on these slopes, is hurled ...e precipices with fearful force into the valleys, ...rv wind caused prostrates forests and houses. ... those that are seen and heard in sum- ...er down the steeps, e.g., of the Jungfrau. ... masses of ice that detach themselves ...iers in the upper regions. They are ...en in July, August, and September.

VENTURINE, a variety of quartz, remarkable ... brilliancy with which it reflects light, which ...osed to result from small particles of mica ...d in it. It is of a yellow, red, or brown colour, ...ed in jewellery, but is not so much valued as ...st or Cairngorm stone. It is found in India, ... and Scotland.

VARI, a tribe of eastern origin, made their ...ance 100 years later than the Bulgarians, ... countries about the Don, the Caspian ...nd the Volga. One part of them remained ... Caucasus, another part pressed forward ... A.D.) to the Danube, and settled in ...ere they served in Justinian's army, ...sisted the Lombards to overturn the king- ...f the Gepidæ; and, about the end of the 6th c., under the mighty Khan Bajan, they conquered Pannonia. Later, they made themselves masters of Dalmatia; made devastating incursions into Germany, as far as Thuringia; and into Italy, where they warred with the Franks and Lombards, and extended their dominion over the Slaves living on, and northwards from, the Danube, as well as over the Bulgarians as far as the Black Sea. These nations at last rose against them, and, in 640 A.D., drove them out of Dalmatia. Confined to Pannonia, they were subdued by Charlemagne, and well-nigh extirpated by the Moravians, so that, after 827, they disappear from history. They usually surrounded their settlements with fortifications of stakes driven into the ground, and earth, of which traces, under the name of Avarian Rings, are yet found in the countries formerly occupied by them. The results of the most recent criticism shew that, in all probability, the A. belonged to the same great Turanian stock as the Huns, and that their original residence was the land lying east of the Tobol, in Siberia.

AVAST, one of the peculiar terms employed on shipboard. It is a command to stop or cease in any operation going forward—such as, 'avast heaving.'

AVATAR primarily signifies, in Sanscrit, a descent, but is specially applied to the descent of a Hindu deity upon the earth in a manifest shape, either for beneficent or for retributive ends. It is thus almost synonymous in its signification with the Christian term *Incarnation*. The word is sometimes rhetorically employed in English literature. The avatars of Vishnu (q. v.) are the most famous in Hindu mythology.

AVATCHA, a mountain and bay of Kamstchatka. The bay is on the east coast, being by far the best harbour of the whole peninsula, and containing the capital city of Petropaulowsk (q. v.). The mountain, 9055 feet in height, is about 20 miles to the north, and not far from the sea, in lat. 52° 15' N., and long. 158° 50' E. It is a volcano with two craters—one at the summit, and the other rather more than half-way up, on the seaward side.

AVEBURY, A'BURY, or A'BIRY, a small village of Wiltshire, situated in N. lat. 51° 25', and W. long. 1° 50', 25 miles north of Salisbury, and 6 west-by-north of Marlborough. It is a place of no importance in itself, having a population of 769; but is remarkable as the site of the largest so-called Druidical temple in Europe—in fact, occupying the most of the sacred enclosure itself—and as having in its neighbourhood several remarkable barrows and cromlechs of remote antiquity.

What is called the temple occupies a flat area of ground on the south of the Kennet, a diminutive tributary of the Thames. It consists, or rather consisted, of a hundred large blocks of stone, placed on end in a circular form, around a level area of about 470 yards in diameter, bounded by a deep ditch and a high embankment forming the enclosure. There are also the remains of two small circles of stones within the enclosure, supposed to be inner temples. Of these, one consisted of two concentric circles of 43 upright stones, having a single stone near the centre; the other, a similar double circle of 45 stones, to the north-west of the former, with three large and high blocks in the centre. The stones that remain of this ancient work are not of uniform size; they measure from 5 to 20 feet in height above the ground, and from 3 to 12 in breadth and thickness.

The embankment, which is broken down in several places, had originally two entrances to the temple, eastward and westward, from which issue two long walks, bending round to the southward, each

furnished with a range of blocks on either side similar to those of the temple itself. These avenues are each upwards of a mile in length, the width varying from 56 to 35 feet. That which issues to the east, or rather south-east, after turning southward, bends near its extremity to the south-east again, and closes on a knoll called Overton Hill in two concentric oval ranges of blocks. That which issues to the west, also bends to the south, and then to south-west, ending in a point with a single block.

Of the surrounding antiquities, that which appears most closely connected with the temple is a large barrow, or lofty conical mound, called Silbury Hill, lying due south of it, at a distance of three-quarters of a mile. It is situated nearly midway between the two avenues, in the line of the ancient Roman road between London and Bath. Close to the base, it measures 2027 feet in circumference; the sloping height is 316 feet; the perpendicular height, 170 feet; the diameter of the level area at the top, 120 feet; the space covered by the whole work, over 5 acres. What proves the structure to have been more ancient than the time of the Romans, if such proof were necessary, is, that the Roman road, as it comes from the west, is straight for several miles till it reaches Silbury, when it bends round it to the south, and again proceeds in a direct line to Marlborough.

About a mile north of A. there are remains of a large cromlech, the stones of which have been overturned; and about 3 miles east there is another, which has two upright blocks standing apart, with a larger one surmounting them. In the neighbourhood, all round the Marlborough Downs, there are remains of earthworks and upright stones, and the sites of other antiquities now nearly obliterated.

Very little was known of A. temple and the antiquities in its vicinity till the year 1740, when Dr Stukeley, a somewhat fanciful antiquary, published his work, *Stonehenge and Abury, Two Temples Restored to the British Druids;* although Aubrey, an ardent student of antiquarian lore, had written an account of them in 1663, by command of Charles II., the manuscript of which still exists. None of the earlier topographers or antiquaries appear to have left any description of them. When Sir Richard Hoare, in collecting materials for his *Ancient Wiltshire*, made his examination of them in 1812, 72 years after the appearance of Stukeley's work, and 164 after the first survey by Aubrey, a great number of the stones had disappeared, and in many places it was difficult to trace out even the plan of the works. In 1849, in order to satisfy the curiosity of the lovers of antiquity as to the nature and intention of the great barrow, Silbury Hill, a tunnel was cut to its centre, but nothing was discovered to throw light on the subject. Some modern archæologists altogether reject the conclusions of Stukeley and his followers, and call for proof of any connection between the Druids and the stone-circles which it has been the fashion for the last century to call Druidical.

AVEIRO, a maritime town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, between Oporto and Coimbra, situated in an unhealthy locality at the mouth of the Vouga, which forms a wide but shallow harbour, is the see of a bishop, has 5000 inhabitants, and trade in oil, wine, oysters, sardines, and other fish, oranges, and sea-salt.

AVELLI'NO (anciently, *Abellinum*), chief town of the province of Principato-Ultra, in the former kingdom of Naples. It is situated at the foot of Monte Vergine, on which is the famous monastery founded by S. Guglielmo da Vercelli, on the ruins of a temple of Cybele, in 1119. Pop. 23,000. A. suffered greatly from earthquakes in and 1805. It has manufactures of wo s macaroni, and considerable trade in co nuts. The *nuces Avellanæ* were famous Pliny's time. Between A. and Benevent Val de Gargano, where the Samnites defe Romans in 433 A.U.C.

A'VÉ MARI'A, also ANGE'LICA SA TIO, or the Angelic Salutation, are name the Roman Catholics to a very common address to the Virgin Mary. *Ave Maria* are two words of the prayer, in Latin, w h from the angel Gabriel's salutation ' Hail, Mary, highly favoured, the Lord blessed art thou among women, and bl fruit of thy womb.' In this form, acc ordinance of Gregory I., the invocation said by the priests during mass, on the f day after Advent. With the extended the Virgin since the 11th c., the A. M. a a lay-prayer of nearly equal use with t Noster, and was sanctioned as such at th the 12th c. Accordingly, not only did C (1261) add the concluding words, *Jesus Amen*, but since the first half of the l prayer began to receive, more and more as an addition to the old formula, wha the conclusion of the modern form: ' mother of God, pray for us sinners, at the hour of our death, Amen.' As John XXII. (1326) ordains that every Catho morning, noon, and evening, at the warnin bells, repeat three aves. This ringing as a summons to morning, mid-day, and prayers, is retained in some Protestant count is still called the Ave Maria, or Angelus The aves are reckoned by the small be rosary, which are hence called Ave M the large beads are devoted to the 150 Ave Marias form—after the *Psalterium Mariæ*, and are thought to propitiatory power.

AVE'NA. See OAT.

AVENGER OF BLOOD. See BLOOD, A OF.

A'VENS. See GEUM.

AVENTI'NUS, JOHANNES THURMAYR, a and historian, born at Abensberg, Bavaria, his father was a publican, in 1476. Having at Ingolstadt, he went to Paris, where he t degree of M.A. He afterwards taught Gre mathematics at Cracow, and poetry and eloqu Vienna. In 1512, the Duke of Ba to Munich, and intrusted him of his sons. Here A. wrote his *Bavaria* (Annales Boiorum), a w him sixteen years. This work was until twenty years after his death, which in 1534, and then only with large portions than pleasant, about the Romish Church, These, however, were all restored in Camer of 1580. A. wrote several other learned wo

A'VERAGE. If any number of unequa ties are given, another quantity may be mean or intermediate magnitude, some of quantities being greater, and others less, one found, which is called the average. relation is this: that the sum of the exce greater above the A. is equal to the sum defects of the less below it. If there are vessels unequally filled with sand, and if handfuls from the greater, and add these t until the sand is equally distributed, then of the equalised measures of sand is the 7 unequal measures. If the quantities of s

the several vessels are stated in numbers, as 5, 10, 12, 8, 11, 14, 3 ounces, the A. is found by adding together the numbers, and dividing by how many there are of them—viz., 7. The sum being 63, this, divided by 7, gives 9 ounces as the average. The system of averaging is a very important and time-saving one. By averages, the farmer calculates the value of his crops; the grazier, the value of his cattle; and the forester, the value of his trees. Reflection, however, requires to be exercised in striking averages; otherwise, serious errors may be committed. If a farmer, for instance, has three lots of cattle, the first of which he averages at £25 a head, the second at £15, and the third at £9, it might be thought that the A. of the whole stock made up of the three lots would be got by taking the mean of £25, £15, and £9—viz., $\frac{25+15+9}{3} = £16\frac{1}{3}$. But this would be correct only if there were an equal number of cattle in each of the lots. To get the real A. in case of the lots being unequal, he must multiply the A. of each lot by the number of cattle in it, add the three products together, and divide by the whole number of cattle in all three lots taken together. If we suppose 9 head in the first lot, 20 in the second, and 15 in the third, the A. is $\frac{25\times 9+15\times 20+9\times 15}{9+20+15} = £15$.

AVERAGE (in Marit. Law). A rule was established by the Rhodian law (q. v.), and has prevailed in every maritime nation, that where a loss has been sustained, or expense incurred, for the general safety of the ship and cargo, a contribution should be made, in proportion to their respective interests, by the owners of the ship, freight, and goods on board; or, in modern times, by the insurers of these. To this contribution the name of *General A.* is given. The apparel, jewels, and other personal property of the passengers, not carried for purposes of traffic, and the seamen's wages and provisions, are not liable for any share in this contribution. Goods thrown overboard are now estimated at the price they would have yielded at the port of delivery at the time, freight, duties, &c., being deducted. See JETTISON. *Particular A.*, again, is the loss of an anchor, the starting of a plank, the leaking of a cask, the loss of goods washed from the deck, or the like, where the common safety was not in question, and where there is, consequently, no contribution. To losses of this description, the term A., though generally, is incorrectly applied. *Petty Averages* are the duties of anchorage, pilotage, &c. If these occur in the ordinary course of the voyage, they are not loss, but simply part of the expense necessarily incurred. But if they have been incurred in extraordinary circumstances, and for the purpose of avoiding impending danger, they are a loss which is included in the general A., and covered by the contribution. *A. Bond* is a deed which parties liable to a general A. are in the habit of executing, by which they empower an arbiter to value the property lost, and fix the proportion which shall be borne by each proprietor.

AVERDUPOIS. See AVOIRDUPOIS.

AVERNUS, in Gr. *Aornos*, or 'without birds,' called now Lago d'Averno, is a small, nearly circular lake in Campania, Italy, situated between Cumæ, Puteoli, and Baiæ. It is about a mile and a half in circumference, and occupies the crater of an extinct volcano. It is in some places as deep as 180 feet, and is almost completely shut in by steep and wooded heights. The sulphureous and mephitic vapours arising from the lake were believed in ancient times to kill the birds that flew over it; hence, according to some, its Greek appellation. Owing to its gloomy and awful aspect, it became the centre of almost all the fables of the ancients respecting the world of shades. Here was located Homer's Nekyia, or entrance to the under world; here the Cimmerians are said to have dwelt—a people who lived in deep caverns, without ever coming into the light of day, explored metals, and imparted Stygian oracles; here also were placed the grove of Hecate and the grotto of the Cumean Sibyl. Agrippa caused the dense woods to be thinned, by which the place lost much of its wildness; and by his orders Cocceius constructed the famous tunnel through the mountain to Cumæ, a work of comparative ease, considering that the hills round about are composed of volcanic tufa. The lake was also connected in ancient times with the Gulf of Baiæ.

AVERRHOA. See CARAMBOLA.

AVERRHOES, properly, Ibn Roshd, or more fully, Abul-Walid Mohammed-Ibn, Ahmed-Ibn, Mohammed-Ibn-Roshd, the most famous of the Arabian philosophers, was born at Cordova, in Spain, in 1149. His father, who was chief judge and mufti, instructed him in Mohammedan jurisprudence. In theology and philosophy, he had Thophail for his teacher; and in medicine, Ibn Zohr, the elder. His talents and acquirements made him be appointed successor to his father, and afterwards chief judge in the province of Mauritania. Being accused, out of envy, of a departure from the orthodox doctrines of Mohammedanism, he was dismissed from his office, and condemned by the ecclesiastical tribunal of Morocco to recant his heretical opinions, and do penance. After this, he returned to his native place, and lived in great poverty, until the Calif Almansor reinstated him in his offices, on which he went back to Morocco, where he died in 1198 or 1206. A. regarded Aristotle as the greatest of all philosophers. He translated and illustrated Aristotle's writings with great penetration; but the influence of the Alexandrine view laid down in the commentaries of Ammonius, Themistius, and others, is easily seen in his works, as in those of most of the Arabian philosophers. In opposition to the Arabian orthodox school, especially against Algazali, A. stood forth on the side of reason as the defender of philosophy. The Arabians called him, by way of eminence, the Expositor (of Aristotle), and his Syriac translation of Aristotle was held in the highest esteem among them. His writings are known to us only through Latin translations (Ven. 1489). His Commentaries on Aristotle appeared in an edition of that philosopher's works (11 vols. Ven. 1560). He also wrote a sort of medical system, which, under the name of *Colliget* (a corruption of the Arabic title *Kulliyat* i. e., 'The Total' system), was translated into Latin, and repeatedly printed (Ven. 1482 and 1514). The philosophy of A. attained to importance in the Christian Church as early as the 13th c., although his pantheistic doctrine of the unity of the active principle in the universe was often repudiated as an error, and astrology was characterised as Averrhoism.

AVERSA, a town in the province of Terra di Lavoro, in the former kingdom of Naples, is situated between Naples and Capua, in a beautiful district rich in oranges and wine. It is well built, with 16,000 inhabitants; has a cathedral, and a number of monasteries, in one of which, Andrew of Hungary, the Darnley of Neapolitan history, was murdered with the connivance of his wife, the beautiful but guilty Joanna, queen of Naples; an excellent asylum for the insane, established by Murat; and a foundling hospital. A. was built in 1029 by the Normans on a territory ceded to them by Duke Sergius of Naples, to be held in fief. About two miles from A., are still to be seen a few ruins of the Oscan city of Atella, famous as the birthplace of

the satirical farces so popular on the Roman stage.

A'VÉS. See Birds.

AVEYRON, a river and department in the south of France. The river rises near Severac-le-Château; flows, for the most part, in a westerly direction through the department of the same name; and, after a course of 90 miles, falls into the Tarn—a feeder of the Garonne—below Montauban. It touches in its course the towns of Rhodez, Villefranche, and Negrepelisse.—The department of A. has an area of 3402 square miles, and is one of the most mountainous parts of France. Situated between the highlands of Auvergne and the Cevennes, it slopes like a terrace south-west to the Garonne, to the basin of which the department belongs. The principal rivers flow through the department from east to west; and between these, several ramified offsets from the chain of the Cevennes traverse the country. The climate is healthy, but cold and raw, especially in the north and east. North of the Lot, only rye and oats are grown; in the rest of the valleys, other kinds of grain also thrive, as well as fruit, chestnuts, potatoes, and truffles. A third part of the land is unfit for cultivation, but affords excellent pasture for the numerous herds of cattle, goats, and sheep, which, along with the breeding of swine, form the principal resources of the mountaineers. 18,000 cwt. of cheese is sold yearly under the name of Roquefort cheese. The mineral wealth of the department is considerable. Coal, iron, lead, zinc, copper, vitriol, alum, and antimony are found in abundance, the mining, preparing, and sale of which form a principal means of support to the 402,474 inhabitants. Besides these, the principal employments are paper-making, cotton-spinning, tanning, the manufacture of woollen cloth and carpets, &c. The seat of the departmental courts is Rhodez, which is also a bishop's see.

A'VIARY, a place for keeping birds. The arrangements of an A. depend upon the habits of its inmates, the climate suited to them, and other circumstances. A bird-cage is a domestic aviary. Aviaries on the largest scale are to be seen in zoological gardens.

AVICE'NNA, properly, Ibn Sina, or more fully, Abu Ali Al-Hossein Ibn Abdallah Ibn Sina, a famous Arabian philosopher and physician, whose authority for many centuries passed for indisputable, was born 980, at Charmatain, a village near Bokhara, where he received a very learned education. He studied with special fondness mathematics, astronomy, philosophy, and medicine. He was physician to several of the Samanide and Dilemite sovereigns, and also for some time vizir in Hamadan, but afterwards retired to Ispahan, and died during a journey of the Emir Ala-ed-Daula to Hamadan, in 1037. He left a multitude of writings, among which his system of medicine, *Kanun fi 'l-Tibb*, acquired the greatest reputation. It is distinguished less by originality than by an intelligible arrangement and judicious selection from the writings of the Greek physicians, at a time when the knowledge of Greek was not widely spread. A. himself knew the Greek writers only through Arabic translations. The Arabic text of the *Kanun*, and of several of his philosophical writings, among which those on metaphysics especially attracted the attention of the schoolmen, appeared at Rome, 1593, in 2 vols. The *Kanun* was translated into Latin by Gerardus Cremonensis, and repeatedly printed (Ven. 1595, 2 vols.). His philosophical writings have also appeared several times in Latin translations (Ven. 1490, 1523, 1564).

AVICENNIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Avicenniæ* or *Myporaceæ*, an order very nearly allied to *Verbenaceæ* (q. v.), and almost exclusively confined to the southern hemisphere. The genus *A.* consists of trees or large shrubs resembling mangroves, and, like them, growing in salt-swamps. Their creeping roots, often curving for the space of six feet above the mud before they stick into it, and the naked asparagus-like suckers which they throw up, have a singular appearance. *A. tomentosa*, the White Mangrove of Brazil, has cordate ovate leaves, downy beneath. Its bark is much used for tanning. A green resinous substance exuding from *A. resinifera* is eaten by the New Zealanders.—The genus is named in honour of the Arabian physician Avicenna.

AVI'CULA. See Pearl Oyster.

AVIGNON (*Avenio Cavarum*), a city of Provence, in the south of France, capital of the department of Vaucluse, is situated on the left bank of the Rhone, which is here crossed by a long bridge. The population is (1872) 27,409; the streets are narrow and crooked. There is a multitude of churches and religious establishments, among which the cathedral on the Rocher des Dons and the church of the Franciscans, as well as the old papal palace and the tower Glacière, are distinguished. The Dominican convent now serves as a cannon-foundry. The city is the see of an archbishop, has a museum and picture-gallery, and several other valuable institutions. The university, founded in 1303, was abolished in 1794. A. has manufactures of silk, silk-dyeing, tanning, iron-founding, &c., and is famous for its garden produce, its fruit, wine, honey, &c. The country about A. is delightful, and extremely fruitful in corn, wine, olives, oranges, and lemons.—In A., Petrarch spent several years; it was here he saw Laura, whose monument is to be found in the Franciscan church. Vaucluse, which he has immortalised, lies about three leagues from Avignon. A. was the capital of the ancient Cavares, and presents many remains of the times of the Romans. In the middle ages it formed, with the surrounding district, a county, which the popes, who had already received the county of Venaissin as a gift from King Philip III., bought in 1348 from Joanna, queen of Naples and Countess of Provence. The pope governed both counties through a vice-legate, and continued in possession of them till 1790, when, after many stormy and bloody scenes, the city with its [illegible] was united with France. At the peace of [illegible] (1797), the pope formally resigned A. [illegible] A. is celebrated in ecclesiastical [illegible] for a time, the residence of the [illegible] Philip IV. of France, Pope Cl[illegible] his successors from 1309 to 13[illegible] reside there. It was afterwards the [illegible] more than one anti-pope. Two eccle[illegible] cils were also held at A. (1326 and 1[illegible] took into consideration the relation o[illegible] the laity; the other, the bad training o[illegible]

A'VILA, a town of Spain, capital of [illegible] of A., in Old Castile, 53 miles north-w[illegible] pop. 6000. The Spaniards declare [illegible] name was Abula, and please t[illegible] strangers with the belief th[illegible] Hercules 1660 B.C. It is the birth [illegible] highly remarkable persons—the first was Alfonso Tostado de Madrigal, who died in [illegible] whose doctrines (according to his biograp[illegible] so enlightened that they caused the blin[illegible] though, in the opinion of Don Quixote, he [illegible] voluminous than luminous; the second [illegible] Seraphic Mother, the Holy Teresa, [illegible] born March 28, 1515; she was [illegible] patroness of Spain by Philip III., and [illegible] honours of worship with St. [illegible] A. is [illegible] a bishop, with a beautiful c[illegible] time one of the richest

…ersity, which had been founded in …d in 1638, was abolished in 1807.
… the nobles of Old Castile assembled …se King Henry IV., and raise his … to the throne of Leon and Castile. …, was held the meeting of the so-called …ste, or of the Holy League, in 1520, under …rship of Juan Padilla, to which nearly all … of Castile sent representatives.

AVILA Y ZUNIGA, Don Luiz de, a Spanish diplomatist, and historian, born at Placencia, Estremadura, enjoyed the favour and confidence of Charles V., who intrusted him with embassies to Pope Paul IV. and Pius IV., and made him Commander of the order of Alcantara. He accompanied the emperor on his expeditions to Africa and against the princes of the league of Schmalkald, and wrote an account of the war which goes under that name, indeed, but able and spirited. The work entitled *de la Guerra de Alemaña hecha por Carlos V. en* 1546 *y* 1547, have been published repeatedly (first, Ven. 1548), and translated into various languages.—Avila, Gil Gonzalez de, born at Avila in Old Castile, in 1559, and died in 1658, was a Jesuit and canon of Salamanca; also royal historiographer for Castile and the Indies. He composed a great number of historical works, of which the following may be mentioned as containing many valuable facts: *Historia de la Vida y Hechos del Rey Henrique III. de Castilla* (Madr. 1638); *Historia de la Vida y Hechos del Monarca D. Juan III.* (in Mendoza's *Monarquia de España*, fol. 1770); *Historia de Salamanca* (Salam. 1606); and *Teatro Eclesiastico de la primitiva Iglesia de las Indias Occidentales* (2 vols. Madr. 1645–56).

AVIZ, an order of knighthood in Portugal, instituted by Sancho, the first king of Portugal, in imitation of the order of Calatrava, and having, like it, for its object the subjection of the Moors. By the present usage, the king of Portugal, who is grand-master of all of them, wears decorations of the first three orders of Portugal those of Christ, St James, and Aviz united in one medal, divided into three equal spaces.

Order of Aviz.

AVOCA, or **OVOCA** (Celt. meeting of the waters), a small … the south-east of Wicklow county, formed by the union of two streams, rising in the hills of the centre of the county. The A. runs through a picturesque vale only a quarter of a mile wide, with wooded banks 300 to 500 feet high, and after a course of nine miles, reaches the sea at Arklow. A. Vale is celebrated in Moore's *Irish Melodies*.

AVOCADO PEAR, or **ALLIGATOR PEAR** (*Persea gratissima*), a fruit-tree of the natural order *Laurineæ* (q. v.), a native of the warm parts of America. It attains the height of 30–70 feet, and is a slender tree with a dome-like top. The leaves resemble those of the laurel. The flowers are small and produced towards the extremities of the branches. The fruit is a drupe, but in size and form resembles a large pear; is usually of a brown colour and has a soft green or yellowish pulp, not sweet, but of a delicate flavour, which dissolves like butter on the tongue, and is believed to consist chiefly of a fixed oil. It is called *vegetable butter*

in some of the French colonies. It is much esteemed in the West Indies, and often eaten with sugar and lime-juice or wine, or with spices.

AVOCET, or **AVOSET** (*Recurvirostra*), a genus of birds, which, although having the feet webbed nearly to the end of the toes, is usually ranked among the *Grallæ* or *Grallatores*, upon account of the length of the legs, the half-naked thighs, the long, slender, elastic bill, and the general agreement in habits with snipes. They are distinguished from all other birds, except a few species of humming-bird, by the strong upward curvature of the bill, which is much like a thin piece of elastic whalebone, and most probably a delicate organ of touch, adapted for seeking food in mud, as their webbed feet are for walking upon it, and their long legs for wading in the fens and marshes which they frequent. They are birds of powerful wing. They are not much addicted to swimming. They scoop through the

Avocet.

mud with the bill, first to one side, and then to the other, in quest of worms and other small animals; although Audubon has also observed the American A. taking insects which were swimming on the surface of the water, and expertly catching them in the air, running after them with partially expanded wings. - The Common A. (*R. Avocetta*), the body of which is about as large as that of a lapwing, is found in the fenny districts of England, where, however, it is much more rare than it once was, and is a native also of the continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, occurring even at the Cape of Good Hope.—Other species are natives of North America, India, and New Holland.—The American A. (*R. Americana*) has the bill less recurved than the Common A., but its habits appear to be very similar.

AVOIDANCE, in English ecclesiastical law, the term by which the vacancy of a benefice, or the fact of its being *void* of an incumbent, is signified. A. is opposed to *plenarty*, or fulness. See Benefice.

AVOIRDUPOIS, or **AVERDUPOIS**, is the name given to the system of weights and measures applied in Great Britain and Ireland to all goods except the precious metals and precious stones. The word is generally said to be derived from the French *avoir du pois*, to have weight; but the middle-age Latin word *averia* for *avera*, used for goods in general, or the middle-age Latin *averare*, and French *avérer*, meaning to *verify*, seem to offer more probable etymologies.

The grain is the foundation of the Avoirdupois system, as well as of the Troy. A cubic inch of water weighs 252·458 grains. Of the grains so determined, 7000 make a pound A., and 5760 a pound Troy. See Weights and Measures.—The A. pound is divided into 16 ounces, and the ounce into 16 drams. A dram, therefore, contains 27$\frac{11}{32}$ grains, and an ounce 437$\frac{1}{2}$ grains.

TABLE OF AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

27$\frac{11}{32}$ grains	. are	1 dram,	1 dr.
16 drams or drachms	"	1 ounce,	1 oz.
16 ounces . .	"	1 pound,	1 lb.
28 pounds . .	"	1 quarter,	1 qr.
4 quarters . .	"	1 hundredweight,	1 cwt.
20 hundredweight	"	1 ton,	1 ton.

A cubic foot of water weighs 997·14 ounces A., or nearly 1000 ounces, which gives an easy rule for determining the weight of a cubic foot of any substance from its specific gravity. A. is the weight used in the United States of North America, where, however, in many places, the cwt. contains only 100 lb., and the ton, 2000 lb.

A'VON, a word of British or Celtic origin, meaning 'river' or 'stream,' which seems allied to Aa (q.v.), the name of so many continental rivers. It is the name of several of the smaller British rivers. Of these may be noticed: 1. The Upper or Warwickshire A., which rises in north-west Northamptonshire, runs south-west through Warwickshire and Worcestershire, passing Rugby, Warwick, Stratford, and Evesham, and joining the Severn at Tewkesbury. It has a course of 100 miles, and receives several tributaries. 2. The Lower, or Bristol, or West A., which rises in north-west Wiltshire, and runs 70 or 80 miles, first south in Wiltshire, and then west and north-west between Gloucestershire and Somersetshire. It traverses an oolitic basin, passing Bradford, Bath, and Bristol, and empties itself into the Bristol Channel. It is navigable for large vessels up to Bristol. It runs generally between deep banks in a rich valley. A canal through the middle of Wiltshire connects it with the Thames. 3. The Wiltshire and Hampshire, or East A., which rises in the middle of Wiltshire, and runs south 70 miles through Wiltshire and Hampshire, passing Amesbury, Salisbury, and Ringwood, and entering the English Channel at Christchurch. It is navigable up to Salisbury. It abounds in the small delicate loach. In Wales two rivers named A.—one rising in Monmouthshire, the other in Glamorganshire—fall into Swansea Bay. In Scotland there are several of the same name, affluents of the Spey, Annan, Clyde, and Forth.

AVRANCHES, a town of France in the dep. of Manche (q. v.).

AWE, Loch, a lake in the centre of Argyleshire, extending in a direction north-east and south-west about 24 miles, with an average breadth of from half a mile to 2½ miles. It rarely freezes, and its surface is 108 feet above the sea. The country around consists of mica slate. The scenery is most striking at the north-east end of the lake, where the water is studded with numerous wooded islets, overshadowed by towering and rugged mountains, prominent among which rises the dark and rocky ridge of Ben Cruachan, 3669 feet high, and 14 miles in circuit. Of the islands, the most noted is Fraochcilean, containing the remains of a castle granted to Gilbert M'Naughton in 1267 by Alexander III. On a peninsula, in the north end of the lake, stands Kilchurn Castle (Caisteal Chaoil-chuirn), once a fortress of great strength, built about 1440 by Sir Colin Campbell of Glenorchy, and garrisoned, as late as 1745, by the king's troops. The waters of the lake are carried off at its north-west end by the river Awe, which, after a course of 7 miles, enters the sea at Bunawe on Loch Etive. The magnificent 'Pass of Awe,' through which the road runs beneath the shoulder of Ben Cruachan, was the scene of a conflict, in 1308, between Robert the Bruce and the M'Dougalls of Lorn, in which that clan was all but exterminated. At the north-east end of the loch, it receives the waters of the Orchy and Strae, flowing through glens of their own names. Loch A. abounds in fine fish, especially trout and salmon; and the small village of Claddich, on the east side of the loch, due north of Inverary, is the general resort of anglers.

A-WEA'THER is a term denoting the position of the helm when jammed close to the weather-side of a ship; it is the reverse of *a-lee*.

A-WEI'GH, as applied to the position of an anchor, when just loosened from the ground, and hanging vertically in the water, is nearly equivalent to *a-trip*.

AWN (*Arista*), in the flowers of Grasses, a solitary pointed bristle, growing either from a glume or a palea. The flowers of some grasses are entirely *awnless;* in many, the glumes alone are *awned* (or *aristate*), or only one of them; in others, the glumes are awnless, and the paleæ, or one palea, awned. The awn is often terminal, and appears as a prolongation of the midrib of the glume or palea; from which, however, it sometimes separates below the point, and is then said to be on the back of it, or *dorsal;* sometimes it is jointed at the base, and finally separates at the joint; sometimes it is knee-bent or geniculate; sometimes it is twisted, and liable to twist and untwist hygrometrically; sometimes it is rough, or even serrate, at the edges, as in barley; sometimes it is feathery, as in feather-grass (*Stipa*), which also is remarkable for the great length of its awn. The characters of genera and species are often derived from it, but it is not always invariable, even in the same species, and the cultivated varieties of wheat and oats differ much in being more or less *bearded*. There appears to be a tendency to the diminution or disappearance of the awn through cultivation.

AXE, the name of two small rivers in the south-west of England. One rises in the Mendip Hills, north of Somerset, runs first south-west, and then north-east, through a carboniferous limestone, trias, and diluvial basin, past Wells and Axbridge, into the Bristol Channel. The other rises in west Dorset, and flows 21 miles south and south-west, through east Devonshire, in an oolitic and trias basin, past Axminster into the English Channel. A. is only another form of Exe. See AA.

A'XEL, or A'BSALON, Archbishop of Lund, in Denmark, and also minister and general of King Waldemar I., was born in 1128, and died 1201. He was descended of a distinguished family, and, in his youth, studied at Paris. A. distinguished himself as well by wisdom and uprightness in peace, as by valour and address in war. The Wendish pirates were not only driven from the coasts of Denmark, but attacked in their own settlements, and subdued. He defeated the Pomeranian prince, Bogislav, and made him dependent on Denmark. In the wise legislation of Waldemar and of his son, he took a great part. He favoured and promoted learning and art, and to his encouragement we owe the first connected history of Denmark by Saxo Grammaticus. By building a fortified castle for defence against the pirates, he laid the foundation of the future great city of Copenhagen, which was then an insignificant village, inhabited only by fishermen. Owing to this origin, Copenhagen has sometimes got the name of Axelstadt. A. lies buried in the church of Sora, where he had founded a monastery. The relics found when his grave was opened in 1827, the chief of which were a bishop's staff and ring, are described in the latest complete biography of A. by Estrup, translated into German by Mohnike in Illgen's *Zeitschrift fur Historische Theologie* (2 vols. Leip. 1832).

ſONE, a mineral generally regarded as a Nephrite (q. v.). It is of a greenish colour, r less translucent, hard, tough, and not ten. It occurs in primitive rocks, always nd is found in Saxony, in Greenland, lew Zealand and other islands of the Pacific. It derives its name from the use to s put by the natives of these islands for eir hatchets. They also make car-drops

LME ISLE (A. Sax. *holme*, a river-isle), a ract in the north of Nottinghamshire, sur- y rivers—the Trent on the east; Don, north Torne and Idle, on the west; and Vicar- reen the Trent and Idle on the south. This miles from north to south, and 5 on an ast and west, was anciently a forest, but became a marsh. The marsh was drained rent in 1634 by Vermuyden, a Dutchman, ars' labour, and at the cost of £56,000. med land became very fertile under Dutch ch Protestant settlers, and after much it was, in 1691, divided, the original s receiving 10,552 acres, and the settlers the land are raised abundant crops of s, rye, pease, beans, clover, flax, rape, atoes, and onions. Peat and turf fuel nd valuable gypsum beds occur. The rackish, too hard for washing, and curdles n boiled with it. A. I. includes seven There are two small towns, Crowle and

(*axilla*), in Botany, the angle between the of a leaf and the stem or branch from rows. Buds usually grow in the axils of hough they are not always actually devel- a bud may be made to appear in such a and to form a new shoot or branch, by neans, which direct the strength of the s particularly to that quarter, as cutting main stem, wounding it above the place new branch is desired, &c. Flowers or ks (*pedunculi*) growing from the axils of called *axillary*.

OMANCY (Gr. *axine*, an axe, and *manteia*,), a mode of divination much practised by t Greeks, particularly with the view of the perpetrators of great crimes. An oised upon a stake, and was supposed to to indicate the guilty person; or the names al persons being pronounced, the motion at a particular name was accepted as guilt. Another method of A. was by the movements of an agate placed upon axe. This is only one of a multitude of modes of divination practised in all among all nations. See DIVINATION, and ROD.

a Greek word meaning a *board* or , as commonly used to signify a general , which the understanding recognises as on as the import of the words conveying hended. Such a proposition is therefore vetly, and does not need to be deduced other. Of this kind, for example, are ations whose predicate is a property to our notion of the subject. Every ence requires such fundamental propo- on which all the truths composing it d; the whole of geometry, for instance, mparatively, a very few axioms. Whether for the whole of human knowledge, absolutely first A., from which all else own may be deduced, is a question that ises to much disputation; but the fact, that human knowledge may have various starting-points, answers it in the negative. Mathematicians use the word A. to denote those propositions which they must assume as known from some other source than deductive reasoning, and employ in proving all the other truths of the science. The rigour of method requires that no more be assumed than are absolutely necessary. Every self-evident proposition, therefore, is not an A. in this sense, though, of course, it is desirable that every A. be self-evident; thus, Euclid rests the whole of geometry on fifteen assumptions, but he proves propositions that are at least as self-evident as some that he takes for granted. That 'any two sides of a triangle are greater than the third,' is as self-evident as that 'all right angles are equal to one another,' and much more so than his assumption about parallels, which, it has been remarked, is neither self-evident nor even easily made evident. See PARALLELS. Euclid's assumptions are divided into three 'postulates' or demands, and twelve 'common notions'—the term A. is of later introduction. The distinction between axioms and postulates is usually stated in this way: an A. is 'a theorem granted without demonstration;' a postulate is 'a problem granted without construction'—as, To draw a straight line between two given points.

AXIS, in Geometry.—The A. of a curved line is formed by a right line dividing the curve into two symmetrical parts, so that the part on one side exactly corresponds with that on the other; as in the parabola, the ellipse, and the hyperbola. The A. of any geometrical solid is the right line which passes through the centre of all the corresponding parallel sections of it: in this sense, we speak of the A. of a cylinder, a globe, or a spheroid. By the A. of rotation, we understand the right line around which a body revolves. In physical science, the A. of a *lens* is the right line passing through it in such a manner as to be perpendicular to both sides of it; and the A. of a telescope is a right line which passes through the centres of all the glasses in the tube. The A. of the *eye* is the right line passing through the centres of the pupil and the crystalline lens.

AXIS, in Botany, a term applied to the central part both above and below ground, around which the whole plant is regarded as arranged. The stem is called the *ascending A.*; the root, the *descending axis*. The opposite tendencies of growth appear as soon as a seed begins to germinate, in the radicle and plumule; the former of which is the descending A., and the latter the ascending A.; the former descending deeper into the soil, the latter ascending towards the air and light. That part of the stem around which the flowers are arranged is called the *floral* A., and, in describing some kinds of inflorescence, the terms, *primary floral* A., *secondary floral* A., &c., are occasionally employed.

AXIS (*Cervus Axis*), a species of deer, abundant on the banks of the Ganges, but found throughout India and in many islands of the Eastern Archipelago. It was known to the ancients by the name Axis. One of its Indian names is Chittra, and by British sportsmen in India it is generally called the Spotted Hog-deer. By some naturalists, it has been made the type of a genus of *Cervidæ*, called *Axis*. The A. has a great resemblance in size and colouring to the European fallow-deer; it is generally of a rich fawn colour, beautifully spotted with white, nearly black along the back, the under parts snow-white. The horns, however, differ very much from those of the fallow-deer, being slender, sharp-pointed, little branched, and not at all palmated. The female has no horns. The A. frequents thick jungles in the

vicinity of water, and feeds during the night. It is commonly found in herds of 15 or 20, of which 3 or 4 are males. Its sense of smell is remarkably acute, and it is generally very shy and timid, so that sportsmen find it difficult to get within shot. The males, however, sometimes exhibit great courage in defence of the young. It is very easily domesticated, is very gentle in its manners, has been frequently imported into Europe, and breeds freely in the parks in which it is kept at a few noblemen's and gentlemen's seats in Britain and France.

A'XMINSTER, a small town in east Devonshire, on the side of a little hill on the left bank of the Axe. Pop. in 1871, 2861. A. was once famous for the manufacture of Turkey and Persian carpets, which were little inferior to those imported. Two celebrated geologists have been connected with A.: Dr Buckland was brought up here, and Dr Conybeare was lord of the manor, and vicar.

A'XMOUTH, a village at the mouth of the Axe, east Devonshire. A mile east of A. occurred, in 1839, a landslip; an area 200 feet wide, for three-quarters of a mile parallel to the shore, having sunk 250 feet below the sea, with a great noise. The chasm thus formed became a lagoon, while the neighbouring sea-bed rose 40 feet. Rather more than a mile further east, occurred another but smaller landslip in 1840. The district around consists of greensand strata.

A'XOLOTL (*Gyrinus*, or *Axolotl*, or *Axolotes edulis*), a remarkable animal, found in great abundance in some of the Mexican lakes, and particularly in the Lake of Mexico itself. It is a Batrachian (q. v.) reptile of the family of the *Proteida* or *Perennibranchiate Batrachians*, in which the gills remain during life, and the lungs are never sufficiently developed to maintain respiration by themselves. It is in general form very like a fish; has a large

Axolotl.

and broad head; and tapers into a long compressed tail, which has a thin membranous fin both on its upper and its lower side. It has four legs, with toes not webbed; and on each side of the neck the gills form three long branched or feathered processes, which give it a very remarkable appearance. It is brown, and mottled with small black spots. When full grown, it is 8 or 9 inches in length. It is esteemed a great delicacy in Mexico, and is there constantly brought to the market.

AXUM, once the capital of the Ethiopian kingdom of the same name, is situated in the modern Abyssinian province of Tigré, west from Adowa. Lat. 14° 7′ N.; long. 39° 27′ E. It now lies in ruins, among which stands the principal church of Abyssinia, built in 1657. The former greatness of the city is testified by yet remaining str cut in granite, some of which have inscri From these it appears that the Axumite extended over Abyssinia, and even over and Saba in Arabia, and possessed the co of the Red Sea. It acquired political imp from the circumstance, that it formed on th a boundary to the world-embracing power of as well as to that of Parthia, which then ex as far as Arabia. The Byzantine emperors ev an annual tribute to the sovereigns of A country was also the furthest point a Grecian civilisation reached; through of Egypt, Greek philosophy spread int Greek language became the language of th and of the priests. Under King Aizanes, wh still remaining inscription, appears as a h Christianity was introduced into the countr Egypt by the two apostles Frumentius and Æ who were followed by many priests from th quarter. The new doctrine soon spread ov whole country; Frumentius was made th Bishop of A., and Fremona was built in hon him. The stone churches, many of them very ing, yet scattered over the whole of Abyssin their architecture to Egyptian priests, and a that period, as well as the most celebrated convents and hermitages. The A carried on, through Adule, an active Arabia and India; it formed the out of Christianity; and, as such, particu the 6th c., it interfered in behalf of the Christi Arabia, and became the natural enemy of M medanism. The contests in which it soon b involved with that power caused its fall, as the gradually lost their possessions in Arabia, a whole coast on the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden outlets for commerce were thus cut off, an empire was at the same time so weakened b stant wars, that internal disorders brought complete dissolution.

AYACU'CHO, a town in a depa same name in South Peru. Here, on the ber 1824, the combined forces of Peru —the latter then comprising Ecuador, New and Venezuela—totally defeated the last army that was ever seen on the new contin

AYA'LA, Pero Lopez de, called El Vi distinguish him from his son of the same nam born at Murcia in 1332, of one of the first fami the Castilian nobility. He stood high in the f of several kings of Castile, and filled fi of the state, latterly, that of high- high-chamberlain of Castile. At the in 1367, he was taken prisoner by the in league with Peter the Cruel, and some time in an English dungeon; and a by the Portuguese, at the battle of Aljub died at Calahorra in 1407. A. has a name, not only as a statesman, but as especially as a historian and poet. His best work is his *Crónicas de los Reyes de Cas Pedro, D. Enrique II., D. Juan I., D. Enriqu* (2 vols. Madr. 1779–80—the older editions of and 1591 are imperfect). He was the first the Spaniards to give up the usual s of events in the order of time, and to a more rational representation of them the rules of historic art. It is only in that the poetical works of A. have been the most remarkable of which is the *Libro de Palacio*. This Book in Rhyme on C its singular title may be translated, was be the poet's first captivity in England, and is in the old national form of rhyming Al

stanzas of four lines; the contents are satirical and didactic. A. appears also in his poetical works as a representative of that transition epoch of Spanish national literature, when it was passing from a popular original literature to one of a more artificial imitative character.

AYE-AYE (*Cheiromys Madagascariensis*), a quadruped about the size of a hare, a native of Madagascar, which was at first placed by naturalists among Squirrels, and was ranked by Cuvier along with them in the order of Rodents (*Rodentia*), although Sonnerat, who discovered it, pointed out its affinity also to the Makis or Lemurs, to which family it is now pretty generally referred. The principal reason for placing the A. among the *Rodents* has been found in the conformation of its teeth; but

Aye-aye.

other characters of the animal agree generally those of the Lemurs, and its habits resemble . The A. has large broad ears, large round ong brownish gray hair, and a large bushy tail. it does not carry over its back as squirrels as is very active during the night, but sleeps g the day. In confinement, it will subsist on rice and fruits. It seems to be able to make al use of its front teeth for gnawing as any Rodents (Gnawers). Mr Ellis mentions one ch ate its way through a barrel, and made its e. He thinks it probable that there are more than one.

AYESHAH, the favourite wife of Mohammed, born at Medina in 610 or 611 A.D. She was —y nine years of age when she married the phet. Her father's name was Abdullah, but he as surnamed Abu-Bekr, 'father of the virgin,' in consequence, it is said, of his daughter being the only one of Mohammed's wives who was a virgin. Although A. bore no children to Mohammed, she was so tenderly beloved by him, that he was wont to say that she would be the first of his wives to whom the gates of Paradise would be opened. It is stated by Mohammedan historians, that to the charms of her beauty she added a knowledge of mathematics, rhetoric, and music. But this statement is improbable. She was accused of adultery, but Mohammed having produced a revelation from Heaven to the effect that she was innocent, punished her accusers, and made it an article of faith for all time, that whoever should not believe in her purity should endure the pains of hell for ever. In his last illness, Mohammed, by his request, was carried to her house, and expired in her arms. After the Prophet's death, A. took an active part in the plot which deprived Kalif Othman of his power and life, and headed a force to resist the accession of Ali. After some partial success, however, the troops under her were effectually defeated by Ali, and she was taken prisoner. Ali spared her life, and allowed her to reside in any town in Arabia she chose, provided she did not interfere with state affairs. She died at Medina (677 A.D.). In spite of her political adversities, A. was highly venerated by all true Mussulmans, and named the *Prophetess*, and the *Mother of Believers*. She was consulted on divers points of the Koran, and her interpretations were held to be binding. They have been collected in the *Sunna* (q.v.).

AYLESBURY, a town in the centre of Buckinghamshire, on a rivulet which flows into the Thame, an east branch of the Thames. It lies high above the vale in which the rivulet runs, which often causes a scarcity of water in the town. Pop. (1871) 28,760. A. returns two members to parliament. It is chiefly an agricultural town, but the inhabitants also engage in straw-plait, lace, and silk manufactures. Many ducks are reared for the London Christmas market. A. is a very ancient town, having been taken from the Britons by the Saxons in 571.

AYLESFORD, a village near the centre of Kent, on the right bank of the Medway, 3½ miles north-east of Maidstone. Remarkable ancient remains occur here. On a hill-slope a mile and a half to the north-east, there still stands a celebrated ancient dolmen, or burying-place, called Kits Coity House—a small truncated pyramidal chamber, open in front, and formed of four large rude Kentish rag blocks, three of which are uprights, with a slight slope inwards, and the fourth laid on them. Of the side-stones, one is 7 by 7 feet, 2 feet thick, and 8½ tons in weight; the second is 8 by 8½ feet, weighing 8 tons; and the third is smaller and more irregular in form. The capstone is 12 by 9½ feet, 2½ feet thick, and weighs 10½ tons. This dolmen seems to have been the centre of a group of ancient monuments connected by a long stone avenue with another group, 7 miles to the south-east. In this district also occur, on the brow of the chalk-hills on both sides of the Medway, large circular sepulchral pits, opening at bottom into one or more chambers. Some of these pits are covered with flat stones, and filled with flints. At A. the Britons defeated the Saxons in 455, and drove them from the island; but early in the 7th c. the Saxons were victorious here.

AYLOFFE, Sir Joseph, an English antiquary of celebrity, born about 1708 in the parish of Framfield, Sussex. In 1731 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, and in the following year, a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries. He was one of the first council of this Society, after it received its charter of incorporation in 1751; and he was made vice-president some years after. When the new State-Paper Office was established in 1763, he was made one of the commissioners for the preservation of the state papers. In 1772, he published a valuable work on the national records. He also wrote several useful papers for the publications of the Society of Antiquaries; and projected, and was engaged in the execution of the work, afterwards continued by Gough, and known as Gough's *Sepulchral Monuments*, at the time of his death in 1781.

AYMAR, Jaques, a celebrated French professor of the art of divination. A. was the son of a peasant of Dauphiné, and was born at St Veran in September 1662. He was brought up as a mason, but he forsook that trade for the divining rod, which he used at first to point out springs, hidden treasures, &c.

In 1692, a murder and robbery was committed at Lyon, and A. and his rod were called into requisition to detect the criminals. In some way or other, he succeeded in discovering one of the guilty parties. A.'s fame having been spread by this incident, he was called to Paris to exhibit his art before the Prince de Condé; but, unfortunately for his reputation, his power of divination utterly failed him; and being forced to confess himself an impostor, he was sent back in disgrace to his original obscurity.

AYMON, the surname of four brothers, called respectively Alard, Richard, Guiscard, and Renaud, sons of Aymon or Haimon, Count of Dordogne, who figure among the most illustrious heroes of the chivalric poetry of the middle ages; but their historic existence must be considered problematical, as the deeds attributed to them possess in so large a measure a miraculous character. What basis of fact may underlie the fanciful accretions of mythology, it is now impossible to determine. Their career belongs to the cycle of marvels, of which Charlemagne is the central point, and their adventures furnished rich material to the romantic narratives of Italy in the 15th and 16th centuries, and, in fact, were the exclusive subject of some of these. A novel, entitled *Les Quatre Fils Aymon*, by Huon de Villeneuve, a French poet of the age of Philippe Auguste, details very minutely their exploits. Finally, Ariosto conferred a poetical immortality on the family by the publication of his *Roland*, in which Renaud, the bravest of the four brothers, plays continually the most distinguished part. The traditions concerning them are not uniform or consistent. Some have a Provençal origin; but the author or authors of the popular German book which Tieck has edited and published, entitled *The Beautiful and Entertaining History of the Four Brothers Aymon, and of their Horse Bayard, with the Deeds and Heroic Feats that they accomplished against the Pagans, in the Time of Charlemagne*, seem to have drawn from a different source. The most probable hypothesis, therefore, is, that the varieties in these poetic legends are due to the fancy and national predilections of the particular authors, and that there originally existed a single tradition, out of which the whole sprang.

AYR, the county town of Ayrshire, is situated on the left bank of the river Ayr, about the middle of the coast of Ayrshire, 40 miles south-south-west of Glasgow by rail. It lies in a coal district. A. is a clean and handsome town, and its principal streets are well built. To the south, between the town and the race-course, numerous elegant villas have recently sprung up. The spire of the Assembly-rooms is 217 feet, and the Wallace Tower, 113 feet high. The river is here spanned by three bridges - the 'Auld Brig' and 'New Brig' of Burns, and one built long after, to permit the Glasgow and South-Western Railway to be carried on uninterruptedly into Carrick. These connect the town with Newton-upon-Ayr. A. harbour is formed by the estuary of the river, and is protected on each side by a pier. A wet dock of considerable dimensions is about to be constructed, at a cost of about £140,000. The coasting-trade is considerable. The chief export is coal, 180,000 to 200,000 tons yearly being exported from the Ayr collieries. A considerable quantity of grain and timber is imported. At one time, much wine was imported from France. At an early date, A. was a commercial and military place of some importance. William the Lion made it a royal burgh about 1202. During the Scottish wars of independence, it formed a regular centre of military operations, and, while in possession of an English garrison, it was the scene (according to *Blind Harry*) Wallace's first exploits. The principal objects interest near A. are connected with the memory Robert Burns. See ALLOWAY KIRK. Pop. in 18 municipal burgh, 7987; of the parliamentary bur including Newton-upon-Ayr, 17,954. A. unit with Campbelton, Irvine, Inverary, and Oban, sending a member to parliament. In 1872—18 custom duties, £7723; registered shipping, vessels, or 8835 tons.

AY'RSHIRE, an extensive maritime county i the south-west of Scotland, bounded, N., by Renfrew shire; W., by the Firth of Clyde and the Nort Channel; S., by Wigton and Kirkcudbright; E and N. E., by Dumfries and Lanark. Its greate length is 78 miles; its greatest breadth, 26—averag 14½; area, 1149 square miles, or 735,262 statute acre It is the seventh in size of the Scottish counti The general aspect of the county is undulating an hilly, the land attaining no great elevation, ex a small portion in the north, and some consider able tracts in the south and south-east, whic are mountainous. None of the eminences excee 2000 feet. A. contains a great number of lake and small streams, the latter rising near th inland boundary of the county. The chief river —only 20 to 35 miles long—are the A its tributary the Lugar, and the Doon. T across the centre of the county; the C Irvine in the north; and the Girvan flows in the south. A. to the south of the Girvan co of Lower Silurian rocks, and to the north of river, of patches of Devonian, carboniferous, an trap rocks. It is rich in valuable minerals, esp cially coal, ironstone, limestone, and freestone The other minerals have been long wrought, bu it is only of late years that the working of iron stone has been established—and is now carried on a large scale in the north of the county. On banks of the Ayr, is found an excellent of whetstone, called Water-of-Ayr Stone. climate of A. is mild and healthy, but moist. soil along the coast is light and sandy, inte with deep loam; the most fertile districts are a centre of the county, where clay predominates. the east side are extensive mosses and moorla The three ancient divisions of the cou Carrick, south of the Doon, mostly wild Kyle, between the Doon and the Irvine, c much rich level land, but towards the co is light, and, though well cultivated, is l tive; and Cunningham, comprising all north of the Irvine, mostly fertile. The istics of these districts are rudely indica old country rhyme:

> Kyle for a man;
> Carrick for a coo;
> Cunningham for butter and cheese;
> And Galloway for woo.

Agriculture in A., till about 1800, was v ward; but since then, especially of late, extra nary progress has been made in furrow-drai improved rotation, and road-making; while dition of the peasants has been much improv 1872, 311,529 acres were under crops, by 3487 persons, the farms being gener Dairy-husbandry is carried to high pe Ayrshire, the breed of milch cows, of wh a greater number than any other Scotch being noted as the finest in the kingdom for tity and quality of their milk. The so called from the parish of that name, as celebrated as Stilton, but is now almost s by that made on the Cheddar process. of horses is also excellent. Manufactures,

on and cotton, are carried on to an important
t. At Catrine there are extensive cotton-works;
lmarnock, dye-works, iron-foundries, &c.; and
nnock, a large pottery. Of the minor manu-
es, the most characteristic is that of snuff-boxes,
is extensively carried on at Old Cumnock and
hline. Kilmarnock 'cowls' or night-caps used
famous all over Scotland, but they have now dis-
ed. Great ironworks exist at Muirkirk, Hurl-
Kilwinning, Ardeer, Dalry, and Dalmellington.
are considerable willow-plantations for hoops
skets. The population was, in 1871, 200,809;
mber of inhabited houses was 26,798; and the
er of children, from 5 to 13, receiving education,
A. county returns one member to parlia-
The chief towns, besides Ayr, are Kilmar-
Girvan, Maybole, Dalry, Kilwinning, Beith,
Stewarton, Ardrossan, Saltcoats, Troon,
ne, Galston, Newmilns, Kilburnie, and Largs.
es, the most interesting are the ruins of
Abbey, near Kirkoswald, and of the
Turnberry, the family seat of Robert the
Dunure, Loch Doon, Dean, Auchinleck, Dun-
&c.; also the ruins of Alloway Kirk.
as inhabited, in the time of Agricola, by the
ii, with whom were afterwards mixed the
from the opposite coast of Kintyre. In the
the Northumbrian Saxons seized the territory;
fterwards came the Normans, whose traces
xist in local names. During the religious
utions of the Stuarts, A. was a stronghold
Covenanters.

RER, Jacob, next to Hans Sachs the most
and important German dramatic writer of
c. His history is involved in obscurity;
known that he was a citizen of Nurnberg
, and a procurator in the courts of law. It
s till after his death, in 1605, that a collection
pieces was published, consisting of 66 trage-
omedies, and carnival plays (Nurnb. 1618). A.
e same garrulous breadth of dialogue as Hans
but is inferior to him in wit and humour.

TON, Sir Robert, a Scottish poet and favour-
urtier in the reign of James VI. He was a
er son of Andrew Ayton of Kinaldie, Fifeshire,
he was born in 1570. He was enrolled as a
t in St Leonard's College, St Andrews, in 1584,
ok his degree of M.A. in 1588. For purposes
dy, he next visited France, from whence he
ned, in 1603, an elegant panegyric, in Latin
to King James, on his accession to the throne
gland. This poem appears to have been the
f A.'s fortune, for we find him afterwards
ed, successively, one of the gentlemen of
chamber, private secretary to the queen, and
of requests. Subsequently, he held the
tment of secretary to the queen of Charles I.
James employed him to convey copies of one
works, conjectured to be his *Apology for*
of Allegiance, to the German courts. A.
terms of familiarity with all the most
nt men of his time—poets, wits, and philoso-
alike—among others, Hobbes and Ben Jonson.
s himself a poet of considerable merit; but,
unately, a large number of his effusions being
mentary verses to his friends, are characterised
cest and extravagant flattery. He was one
first Scotsmen who wrote in English with
gree of elegance and purity. His verses on
l topics 'are conceived in a refined and tender
of fancy, that reminds us more of the fairy
of Herrick than anything else.' Burns had
t admiration of some of A.'s pieces, two or
f which he paraphrased. A. is also said to
written verses in Greek and French, as well
as in English and Latin. Several of his Latin poems are preserved in the work called *Deliciæ Poetarum Scotorum*, printed at Amsterdam in 1637. A. died in Whitehall Palace, March 1638.

AYTOUN, William Edmondstoune, was a native of Edinburgh, having been born there in 1813. He received his education at the metropolitan university, and was called to the Scottish bar in 1840. In 1845, he was appointed Regius Professor of Rhetoric and Belles-Lettres in the university of Edinburgh; and after the formation of the Derby administration, in 1852, he was promoted to the shrievalty of Orkney and Shetland. He married a daughter of Professor Wilson. During many years, Professor A. devoted himself to literary work. The earliest work of his with which we are acquainted is entitled *The Life and Times of Richard I.*, published in 1840—a subject well treated, and singularly in consonance with his chivalrous and romance-loving nature. Despite his minstrel tendencies, he is a master of caricature and parody; and many of the most successful of the *Bon Gaultier Ballads* are understood to be from his pen. In 1849, he published the *Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers and other Poems*, which established his reputation as a poet of the school of Sir Walter Scott, and which has run through eleven editions. Among his subsequent writings are *Firmilian, a Spasmodic Tragedy*, published in 1854; and *Bothwell*, a narrative poem of considerable length, in the measure and manner of Sir Walter Scott, which was, after its first publication in 1856, to a large extent recast and improved. His edition of the *Scottish Ballads*, in 2 vols., appeared in 1858. In the ensuing year, he issued, in conjunction with his friend, Mr Theodore Martin, translations of various minor poems of Goethe, in one volume. He was for many years one of the most frequent and brilliant contributors to *Blackwood's Magazine*. Professor A. was successful in quite opposite departments of literature—he was distinguished at once as a poet and humorist. His poems exhibit a ballad like simplicity, and a fiery flow of narration—the special merits of the poetical school in which he graduated; while his tales—the best known and appreciated of which are *The Glenmutchkin Railway*, and *How I became a Yeoman*—possess a certain robust humour and farcical abandonment, and are related to the writings of the great masters of humour much in the degree that the 'screaming farce' is related to genteel comedy. His poetical powers appear in their greatest perfection in the *Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers*; the special merits of his humour are best exhibited in *How I became a Yeoman*. As a critic, he took up the knout of the dreaded Christopher North of the 'Noctes,' which he wielded with considerable dexterity and force. Professor A. died at Elinburgh, Aug. 4, 1865. His Life has been written by Theodore Martin (Lond. 1867).

AYUNTAMIENTO is the name given in Spain to the councils or governing bodies of towns. Sprung from the institutions of the Romans, and firmly established during the long struggles with the Moors, the ayuntamientos acquired great influence and political power, the more so that the nobility were not excluded from them. Although this importance was impaired through the insurrection of Juan de Padilla in 1521; and at a later period, under the Bourbons, the last shadow of municipal freedom was lost; the remembrance of it continued to be cherished by the people. Accordingly, the cortes of Cadiz, in 1812, took up the leading features of the former system, adapting them, by more democratic modifications, to the requirements of the time. On the return of Ferdinand VII., the ayuntamientos were abolished; they were again restored by the

cortes, in 1823; and after the invasion by France, once more set aside. During the civil war, various proposals were made regarding the ayuntamientos; but at last the arrangements of 1812 were confirmed by the constitution of 1837. According to that statute, the A., with the alcalde as president, is appointed by the free choice of the people, and is entitled to exercise the highest functions within the circle of its jurisdiction. The government can provisionally annul its acts, but must afterwards procure the ratification of the cortes, by which alone an A. can be dissolved. The ayuntamientos are empowered to make up the lists of electors and jurors, to organise the national guards, to command the police within their own bounds, to direct the apportionment and raising of taxes, and to manage the funds of the commune. In 1840, a bill was brought into the cortes, formed on the model of the French law, proposing to deprive the ayuntamientos of all political power, and restrict their functions to purely municipal matters, and also to limit the franchise to the most highly taxed. But the insurrection which this step excited, and which ended in the expulsion of the queen, Maria Christina, prevented the project from being carried out. At last, in 1844, a law, similar to that proposed in 1840, was, through the intriguing of Christina, supported by French influence, adopted by the cortes, then composed of moderados; and this law, with little alteration, continues in force to the present day.

AZA'LEA, a genus of plants belonging to the natural order *Ericeæ*, and distinguished from Rhododendron (q. v.) chiefly by the flowers having five stamens instead of ten. Most of the species of A. also differ from the rhododendrons in having

Azalea Indica.

thin deciduous leaves. Some botanists unite the genus *A.* to *Rhododendron*. One of the species best deserving of notice is *A. Pontica*, a shrub from three to five feet high, a native of the countries around the Black Sea, with large obovate or oblong-lanceolate shining leaves and umbellate yellow flowers, which are externally covered with glutinous hairy glands, and are very fragrant. It may be regarded as, like many of the other *Ericeæ* (heaths, &c.), a *social* plant; and its golden flowers give great brilliancy to the landscape in many parts of Crimea, the south-east of Poland, the Caucasus. It covers many mountain slopes, but does ascend to great elevations, giving place to the alpine *Rhododendron Ponticum*. It is comme gardens and shrubberies in Britain, and varies orange, red, and almost white flowers. The plant is narcotic and poisonous, and the honey lected by bees from its flowers, which abound in honey, is said to cause stupefa delirium, as happened to Xenophon's soldiers famous retreat in Asia.—North America abo in azaleas as well as in rhododendrons, and som the species have been long cultivated in Britain ticularly *A. nudiflora* and *A. viscosa*, which, *Pontica*, have become the parents of many hy Both have nearly white flowers, very beautiful, of delicious fragrance. *A. viscosa* has the flo covered with glutinous hairs like *A. Pontica*: the flowers of *A. nudiflora* are nearly de them. Both species abound from Can southern parts of the United States. taller shrubs than *A. Pontica*. Upon ac its sweet smell, *A. nudiflora* is called in the Upright Honeysuckle. *A. calendulac* native of the southern parts of the United St is described as frequently clothing the mount with a robe of living scarlet.—India and C produce several species of A., of which one of finest is *A. Indica*, well known in Britain greenhouse shrub. Its flowers exhibit great liancy of colours. Many hybrids exist between more hardy species and this. Another extre beautiful species is *A. ledifolia*, an everer has been introduced into Britain from

A diminutive, procumbent, evergree native of alpine regions in Europe a America, plentiful on high mountains in was long known as *A. procumbens*, but is now *Loiseleuria procumbens*. The flowers are small rose-coloured. The whole appearance of widely differs from that of the genus Azale

AZE'GLIO, MA'SSIMO MARQUIS D', famous artist, a publicist, a romance-writer, and a man, was the descendant of an ancient an family of Piedmont. He was born in 1798 at where his father held a high military position fifteenth year, A. followed his father to where he had been appointed ambassador, an contracted a love for the fine arts; but his st music and painting was cut short by curing him an appointment in a Pied regiment. Here A. devoted his l intensity to scientific pursuits, that an illness which forced him to quit t journey to Rome, from which he returned 1820, restored his health, but deepened his pa painting. After some difficulty, he got his permission to devote himself entirely to A year had hardly elapsed ere A. had made a name in Rome as an artist. In landscape-pa he soon attained complete artistic L residence of eight years at Rome, he had pursued the study of history painting, he returned to Turin. On his father in 1830, he went to Milan, w was then flourishing. In Milan he made ship of Alexander Manzoni, whose d married. A. now began to make himself k known also in literature, his novels, *Ettore moro* (1833), and *Niccolo di Lapi* (1841) done much to fan the national spirit of The political affairs of Italy soon occupied exclusively; he traversed the provinces, entered villages, seeking to stir up the spirit of natio and to conciliate the unhappy party

anywhere received with rejoicing and acclamation. A. never belonged to a secret political society, but opposed conspiracies as mischievous, and counselled the impatient to moderation. While [illegible] he wrote his famous piece, *Degli ultimi casi di Romagna*, in which he lashed the misgovernment, denounced the vain attempts at revolution, and proved to the Italian princes that [illegible] a national policy. After the election of Pius IX. as pope, A. returned to Rome, where his influence were ascribed the reforms which Pius began his government. He was [illegible] re at this time, and wrote much on [illegible] ics. (An edition of his political writings, collected in one volume, appeared at Turin, [illegible] en Charles Albert, after the rising of Italy, crossed the Ticino, A. left Rome with [illegible] al troops destined to support the Italian [illegible] In the battle of Vicenza, where he commanded a legion, he was severely wounded in the [illegible] hile fighting at the head of his troops. [illegible] was he recovered, when with his pen he [illegible] r opposed the republican party, now [illegible] with victory. On the opening of the [illegible] iament, he was chosen a member of [illegible] of Deputies. After the unfortunate battle of Novara, the young king, [illegible] uel II., appointed him (1849) president of the cabinet, an office which he undertook [illegible] of love to his king and country. His [illegible] ce in this high position was most beneficial. [illegible] close of the war in 1859, A. was appointed [illegible] spore General and Commissioner Extraordinary, [illegible] surely military, for the Roman States. On [illegible] irement, he issued a proclamation to the [illegible] which greatly tended to strengthen their [illegible] ion by its noble yet temperate advice. He [illegible] the 15th of January 1866. Since his death, [illegible] al *Correspondence*, and other writings from [illegible] have been given to the world; and his [illegible] *ranky* has been published by his daughter.

JA'N, or ADERBAIJA'N, the ancient *Atropatene*, is the most northerly province of Persia. It is situated between lat. 36° and 40° N., long. 44° and 48° 40' E.; bounded on the S. by Kurdistan and Irak, E. by Ghilan, N.E. and N. by the Russian territory, and W. by Turkish Armenia. It has an area of about 30,000 square miles, and a population of 2,000,000. The surface is very mountainous, many of the ranges rising 7000 to 9000 feet in height. The peak of Sawalan (an extinct volcano) reaches an elevation of 14,000 feet. Mount Ararat rises on the northern border. The chief rivers of A. are the Araxes, the Kara Su, and the Kizil-Uzen. The lake Urumiyah or Urumiyeh (q. v.), the largest in Persia, is situated on the western border of the province. The climate of A. is not unhealthy, but is subject to the extremes of heat and cold. The transition from cold to heat is very rapid. In the mountainous districts, the hail-storms are occasionally so violent as to kill cattle. The principal products of A. are rice, barley, wheat, millet, flax, hemp, cotton, tobacco, honey, and silk; camels, horses, cattle, and sheep are also reared; velvet, silks, stuff, carpets, woollens, and cottons are the most important articles of manufacture, and a little is done in hardware. Lead, copper, sulphur, saltpetre, and salt are found in the province. The capital of A. is Tabriz, with a population of about 30,000. It has suffered severely from earthquakes. The other towns of note are Urumiyah, on the lake of that name; Sulduz, famous as the place where Nasir Eddin, the astronomer, fixed his observatory; Miana, Khoi, Maraga, and Ardebil.

AZIMGHU'R, or AZIM'S FORT, a name primarily applied to a town in India, and thence extended to its district. 1. The town is in lat. 26° N., and long. 83° 14' E. From Calcutta it is 448 miles to the north-west; from Benares, 81 to the north; from Allahabad, 109 to the north-east; and from Lucknow, 171 to the south-east. It is situated on the north-eastern Tons, a considerable offset of the Gogra, which is here crossed by a bridge of boats, and which is navigable downwards, a distance of 40 miles, to its confluence with the Surjoo. The town is estimated to contain about 14,000 inhabitants, besides the troops in garrison. During the mutiny of 1857, A. was, so far, a creditable exception to the general rule of ruthless cruelty among the insurgents. The sepoys did indeed mutiny, actuated, apparently, by a wish to appropriate a passing treasure of 7 lacs of rupees, or £70,000 sterling. But, having formed a square round their officers, and sworn to protect them, they brought carriages for them and their families, and escorted the whole ten miles towards Ghazeepore.—2. The district stretches in N. lat. between 25° 36' and 26° 24', and in E. long. between 82° 45' and 84° 12'. Its area is stated to be 2550 square miles; and its population to be 1,385,872. This gives the average of 543 persons to the square mile. This exceptionally high average is the more remarkable from the circumstance that there are few, if any, populous towns in the district besides the capital. The district is low and remarkably level. The soil is fertile, excepting that a few tracts are irreclaimably barren, from being impregnated with soda, nitre, and other saline substances. There are tolerably extensive manufactures—the silk looms being 3122, and the cotton ones, 10,560. Connected with the latter is the curious fact, that scarcely any cotton-wool is produced on the spot.

AZIMUTH. The A. of a heavenly body is the angle measured along the horizon between the north or south point, and the point where a circle, passing through the zenith and the body, cuts the horizon. The word comes from the Arabic, and is said to be derived from a word signifying a quarter of the heavens. It is usual to measure the A. westward from the point most remote from the elevated pole, beginning at 0°, and returning to it at 360°. Thus, in northern latitudes, where the north pole is elevated, the A. is measured from the south point, so that the east point, for instance, has an A. of 270°. See ALMUCANTARS, or ALMICANTARS, or ALMICANTARY SPHERE. A. circles are those which extend from zenith to nadir, cutting the horizon at right angles, or those in which all the points have the same azimuth.

AZINCOURT, or AGINCOURT, a village in the department of Pas-de-Calais, France, celebrated for a bloody battle between the English and French, October 25, 1415. The internal distractions of France under the imbecile Charles VI. (q. v.) had encouraged England to attempt to make good her ancient claims on France. Henry V. of England had landed at Harfleur, had taken that fortress, and wished to march through Picardie to Calais, in order to go into winter-quarters. The Dauphin advanced against him with a powerful force. A great number of the nobility accompanied him; and so great was their confidence, that the offered aid of the Duke of Burgundy and of the city of Paris was rejected. Henry hastened to the Somme, but was followed by the French, who opposed his passage; he at last managed to cross with his army at St Quentin. Greatly weakened in numbers, and suffering extremely from want of provisions, Henry offered to purchase peace by reparation of injuries. But the French would not

hear of a treaty, as they entertained the hope of completely annihilating the English army. They had, in fact, intercepted the English march to Calais, by getting possession of the high road behind the little river Ternoise, near the villages of A. and Framecourt. The invading army, therefore, still (according to French accounts) 14,000 strong, of whom 2000 were men-at-arms—though no English writer makes it more than 10,000—prepared for an engagement by posting themselves between two woods, in a single line of battle, with the archers on the wings. The French, to the number of 50,000, under the command of the Constable, D'Albret, were drawn up in two lines, the men-at-arms, of whom only 2000 were mounted, being in the first. The English were the first to begin the onset. The French cavalry rushed forward to meet them, but were received with such a storm of arrows that they took to flight, threw themselves upon the first line, and put it into disorder. On this, the light-armed English archers took to their bill-hooks and hatchets, broke into the ranks of the men-at-arms that fought on foot, whose heavy armour and close array rendered them almost incapable of resistance, and made the greatest havoc among them. This being followed by a charge of the English horsemen, the first line took to flight, the second was unable to arrest the victors, and the whole French army was soon completely dispersed. The victory was decided. For a moment, Henry believed that the rallying masses were going to renew the fight; and hearing also that a troop of armed peasants were plundering his baggage, he gave orders to slay all the prisoners taken. The order was already executed when he discovered the groundlessness of his alarm. As many as 10,000 Frenchmen were slain, among whom were the Constable and six dukes and princes, the Duke of Brabant, the Count of Nevers, the Duke of Alençon, the Duke of Bar and his two brothers. Five princes, among them the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, were taken prisoners. The English lost 1600 killed, including the Duke of York, the king's great-uncle, whom the Duke of Alençon slew. Alençon had even struck the crown from King Henry's head, when he was surrounded by all present, and fell with many wounds. Henry, however, was too weak to pursue his advantage, and therefore continued his march to Calais, where he embarked for England.

AZO'RES, a cluster of islands in the Atlantic, 800 miles due west of the southern half of Portugal, ranging in N. lat. between 36° 55′ and 39° 44′, and in W. long. between 25° 10′ and 31° 16′. In the first half of the 15th c., the A. were discovered by the Portuguese, or rather, it has been said, appropriated by them, after having been revealed to them by a Flemish navigator, Joshua Vanderberg of Bruges. They were at that time uninhabited—a fact which, so far as it goes, seems adverse to any notion that America could have been colonised from Europe in this direction. That the A. were visited by the Carthaginians is proved by Phœnician coins found on Corvo. As early as 1436, they are marked on a map of the world by the Venetian Andrea Bianco. The Portuguese colonists called the whole group A., from *acor* or *azor*, a hawk; and they named two individual islands Corvo and St Jorgo, from Corvos Marinos and St Jorsi, which, according to the maps of the 11th c., had been previously seen in the western ocean. In 1466, Alfonso V. made a life-grant of the island of Fayal to his aunt, the Duchess of Burgundy, and from this circumstance many settlers migrated thither from Flanders. Without reckoning mere rocks, the islands are nine in number. Taken from east to west, they are as follow: St Mary, St Michael, Terceira, Graciosa, St Jorgo, Pico, Fayal, Flores, and Corvo. The area of the group is estimated at 980 sq. miles; while its population is 252,480, yielding an average of nearly 260 to a square mile. In the order of population and importance, the islands stand thus: St Michael, Terceira, Pico, Fayal, St Jorgo, Flores, Graciosa, St Mary, and Corvo. The A. are still a dependency of Portugal. Their capital is Angra, in Terceira; but Ponta Delgada and Ribeira Grande, both in St Michael, are larger towns.

As may be presumed from the density of the population, the soil is fertile, and the climate healthy. The islands are also well watered. The exports are oranges, wine, brandy, grain, pulse, pork, beef, cheese, and coarse linens; and the imports are woollens, cottons, hardware, iron, glass, cordage, pitch, tar, staves, timber, oil, fish, rum, coffee, sugar, salt, and tea. Perhaps the greatest want of the group is a good harbour. The A. are of volcanic origin—a fact from which may probably be inferred their identity with the Isles of Brazil or of Fire in the maps above mentioned, of the 14th c. Though most of the volcanoes themselves appear to be extinct, yet the islands contain hot springs, and are subject to violent earthquakes. The coasts are generally steep and rugged, while the interior parts abound in ravines and mountains. The mountains range from 1869 feet to 7613—the latter being the height of the lava-covered *peak* which gives name to *Pico*.

AZO'TE (Gr. *a*, depriver of, and *zōē*, life) is the name given by French chemists to Nitrogen (q. v.).

A'ZOTISED BODIES are those substances which contain azote or nitrogen as one of their constituents, and which form part of the living structure of a plant or animal, or are produced during its natural decay. The principal members of the group are *albumen*, present in white of eggs, and the juices of plants and animals; *globuline*, or *crystalline*, a variety of albumen found in the lens of the eye; *vitelline*, another variety of albumen, composing the greater bulk of the yolk of the egg; *paralbumen*, a third variety of albumen found in the animal system during certain diseases; *fibrine*, which occurs largely in the seeds of cereals and in animal muscle; *caseine* (or cheese matter), present in all milk; *legumine*, a variety of caseine found in pease, beans, and leguminous seeds in general; *gelatine*, which is present in the skin, bones, and other parts of animals; *chondrine*, a variety of gelatine obtainable from the cornea of the eye and the permanent cartilages; *isinglass*, another variety of gelatine manufactured from the inner membrane of the floating bladder of sturgeons and other [illegible] and *size*, which are secondary forms o[illegible] *urea*, *uric acid*, and *hippuric acid*, which [illegible] in the urine of the higher animals; *kreatinine*, occurring in the juice of [illegible] forms of *urinary calculi*, which are fo[illegible] in the bladder; and the very large and class of *alkaloids*, including strychnine, quinine, &c. The principal members of the of A. B. will be considered under their specia[illegible] ings; and the use of several of them as art diet will come into notice under FOOD.

AZO'TUS, the *Ashdod* of the Old T[illegible] (now Esdud), a village on the Med[illegible] miles south of Jaffa. Lat. 31° 43′ [illegible] 37′ E. It was formerly one of the chief the Philistines, strongly fortified, and the [illegible] numerous contests between that race and the [illegible] Into this city the Ark of the Covenant was b[illegible] by the Philistines, and placed in the temple o[illegible] god Dagon, whose image fell in pieces [illegible] it. In the 8th c. B.C., the town fell into the h[illegible] of the Assyrians; and in the following century

by the Egyptians, after a 29 years' blockade
In the wars between Alexander Balas
s, A. was destroyed by fire. It was
rebuilt by the Romans, but never
its early importance. It has now a popu-
about 300, and the sea is gradually receding
harbour.

', or A'SOW, a fortress and port-town in the
Russia, situated on the Don, about 20 miles
mouth. The sand and mud deposited by
have choked up the port, so that the trade
ping of the place have dwindled away, and
inhabitants now depend mostly on fishing.
nciently a Greek colony, under the name of
nd carried on extensive commerce with the
peoples. In number of inhabitants and in
often rivalled Panticapæum (now Kertch).
3th c. it was taken possession of by the
who called it Tana. They were driven
by Timur (Tamerlane) in 1392. In 1471,
ken by the Turks, and since then has borne
of A., the Turks calling the town and the
ring sea Asak. After an obstinate struggle,
Peter the Great, then beginning his career,
ent, it was captured by the Russians about
of the 17th c. It more than once fell again
dominion of the Turks, but at last, in
mained in the undisturbed possession of
It was bombarded and destroyed by an
h and French squadron in 1855.

, SEA OF, named after the town, is a large
he Black Sea, formed by the peninsula of
or rather an inland lake connected with the
a by the long narrow strait of Kaffa. The
e Putrid Sea is the western portion of the
, cut off by the long narrow slip of low sandy
ed the Tongue of Arabat. The entrance to
d Sea is by the narrow strait of Genitschi at
of the Tongue. The Putrid Sea is little but
ion of swamps. The ancient name of the Sea
Palus Mæotis. It gets the name of Balik-
or Fish-sea, from the Turks and Tatars,
abundance of fish. The water is almost
The whole sea is shallow, and occupies an
about 14,000 square miles. During the
war, an expedition, having on board 16,500
French, and Turks, was sent to this sea in
5, which devastated the ports, and cut off
intended for Sebastopol.

SC CHI'LDREN. In the year 1853, there
ught over to this country from America
inutive children, a boy and a girl, said to
respectively 17 and 11, and who were
d as descendants of the ancient Aztecs.
of each was under 3 feet. Their figure
and not ill-proportioned; that which was
markable being their features. While the
and chin receded, the nose was so singu-
minent as to suggest the idea of the face
d. Yet, with dark lively eyes, an olive
on, and glossy long black hair, and a great
good-nature, they were far from unpleasing.
ke no intelligible language, but understood
rds of English, and seemed to have a taste
Shewn to the public as curiosities, they
ually exhibited on a large table, on which
about amusing themselves. Their exhibitor
ery incredible story of how they had been
from the ancient city of Ixmaga, where
re reverenced as gods. A certain Señor
Velasquez, in company with a Canadian and American, penetrated into this ancient city of Central America, where they made the acquaintance of one of the guardian priests of these undersized deities, who was so charmed with the accounts of the outer world, that he resolved to steal the gods of his people, and escape with the strangers. One after the other—the Canadian, the American, and the priest—were overtaken by disaster, and Velasquez alone was left to tell the wondrous tale, with no attestation but such as the children themselves furnished. Professor Owen considered them mere dwarfs, and other authorities held a similar opinion. Belonging probably to some Indian tribe, they were doubtless monstrosities; and this becoming apparent, interest in them ceased.

AZTECS. The name of the dominant tribe in Mexico at the time of the arrival of the Spaniards. See MEXICO, ANTIQUITIES OF.

AZU'NI, DOMENICO ALBERTO, a distinguished jurist, born at Sassari, in the island of Sardinia, August 3, 1749. He early applied himself to the study of law, devoting himself particularly to the maritime relationships of nations. He became judge of the Tribunal of Commerce at Nizza or Nice; and in 1795, after that city had been taken by the French, he published a work in which he endeavoured to reduce maritime laws to fixed principles, and which, being recast, was published at Paris in 1805 under the title of *Droit Maritime de l'Europe*. The work was sufficiently anti-British in tone to secure its author the favourable consideration of Napoleon's ministry, by whom he was appointed one of the commissioners for compiling the new commercial code, the maritime portion being allotted to him. Genoa having been annexed to France, A., in 1807, was appointed president of the Court of Appeal there, where he remained until the fall of Napoleon. Among other things, A. published an *Essai sur l'Histoire Géographique Politique et Morale de la Sardaigne*, and a *Dictionary of Mercantile Jurisprudence*, and some controversial brochures. For some time after he had withdrawn from Genoa, he resided at Nice, and afterwards in his native island, where he was appointed, by King Charles Felix, judge of the consulate of Cagliari, and librarian to the university of that city. He died in January 1827.

A'ZURE, a French word technically used in Heraldry to signify blue. In engraving arms, it is always represented by horizontal lines.

A'ZURINE (*Leuciscus cærulens*), a fish of the same genus with the roach, chub, &c., and most nearly resembling the Red-eye (q. v.) or Rudd (*L. erythrophthalmus*), from which, however, it is readily distinguished by the slate-blue colour of the back, and the whiteness of the abdomen and fins. It is a fresh-water fish, and was first described by Yarrell from specimens received from Lancashire, where it is called the Blue Roach, but it is also an inhabitant of some of the lakes of Switzerland.

A'ZURITE, a name which has been given to the mineral more commonly called Lazulite (q. v.), and to which, along with Lapis Lazuli (q. v.) or *Azure-stone*, mineral turquoise (see TURQUOISE), &c., the generic name, *Azure Spar*, is sometimes given. —The name A. is also given by mineralogists to an ore of copper, generally known as *Blue Copper* (see COPPER), nearly allied to Malachite (q. v.), and remarkable for its beautiful azure colour.

B

THE second letter in the Hebrew or Phœnician alphabet, and in all alphabets derived from it, belongs to the order of labials, and is of the kind called medial or flat. See LETTERS, ALPHABET. Its name in Hebrew is *beth*, signifying 'house,' probably because its original hieroglyphic or picture form was an outline of a house or tent. In the corresponding words of sister-languages, we find *b* very generally replaced by some one of the other labial letters [*p*, *f* (*ph*), *v*]; these substitutions, however, take place not by chance or caprice, but according to ascertained laws. See PHILOLOGY, COMPARATIVE, and GRIMM'S LAW. The following are some examples of the interchange of *b* with other letters: Corresponding to Eng. *bear* are Sansc. *bhri*, Lat. *ferre*, Gr. *pherein*: Eng. *be*, Sansc. *bhu*, Lat. *fio* and *fui*, Gr. *phuo*: Eng. *bore*, Lat. *forare*: Eng. *of* and *off*, Gr. *apo*, Lat. *ab*: Eng. *wife*, plural *wives*, Ger. *weib*, Old H. Ger. *wip*: Eng. *web*, *weave*, *weft*: Gr. *episcopos*, Eng. *bishop*, Fr. *evêque*. In several Latin words, *b* arose out of *u* (pronounced like *v* or *w*). Thus, the original form of *bellum*, war, was *duellum* or *dvellum*; of *bonus*, *dvonus*; and the *d* being dropped (as we drop the sound of *k* in *knee*), the *v* became hardened into *b*. Similarly, *bis*, twice, is for *duis*. A remarkable interchange sometimes takes place between *b* and *m*, as in Sansc. *mri*, to die; Lat. *mort-*, death; and Gr. *brotos*, mortal.

The Greeks pronounced their *b* (Β) like a *v*, for they spelled *Virgilius*, e.g., *Birgilios*; and this continues to be the case in modern Greek. In Latin, during the classical ages at least, the letter was pronounced as it is in English, French, &c. But in the time of the later emperors (beginning with the 3d c. of our era), *b* was softened down, in the popular language at least, to a slovenly sound like *v*; for in inscriptions of this period, such spellings as *verve* for *verba*, *miravili* for *mirabili*, are quite common. The distinction between the two sounds being once lost sight of, the letter *b* was frequently substituted for *v*—as *berba* for *verba*, *bivus* for *vivus*. This softening of *b* into *v* in the middle-age Latin, has left traces in the modern Italian and French; as Lat. *habere*, Ital. *avere*, Fr. *avoir*; Lat. *tabula*, Ital. *tavola*. A Spaniard, on the contrary, has a tendency to use *b* instead of *v*; thus he pronounces *vivere* like *bibere*, and *Jovis* as if written *Jobis*.

B, in Music, is the seventh degree of the diatonic scale of C, and the twelfth degree of the diatonic-chromatic scale. In harmony, it is called the major seventh. According to the tempered system of tuning, the ratio of B, to the fundamental note C, is $\frac{15}{8}$. In the ancient diatonic scale, B was never used as a key-note, as its fifth, F, was imperfect. In the German notation, B is called H, while B flat is called simply B. B flat is half a tone lower than B, and in harmony is called the flat seventh. As a harmonic arising from C, B flat, as produced by nature, is considerably flatter than in the tempered system of tuning.

BAAL, a Hebrew word signifying *lord*, *owner*, or *master*, and applied as a general title of h to many different gods. In Hosea ii. 16, it tioned as a name which had been given to himself; but when used with the definite artic it specially designated the principal male deity the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, as Baalim Astarte was the principal female deity. In conn tion with Babylon and Assyria, the name B is spoken of under the name of Bel or Originally, B. was the god of the sun, and vivifier of nature, and Astarte the the moon. In the later star-worship of the west Asiatic nations, B. was the name of Jupiter, t planet of fate, or, as some suppose, of Satur The proper Phœnician name of B., however, w Melkart, Melkrat, or Melchrat, which supposed to mean 'king of the city'—, but others consider it a contraction of two wo signifying 'king of the earth;' while the l

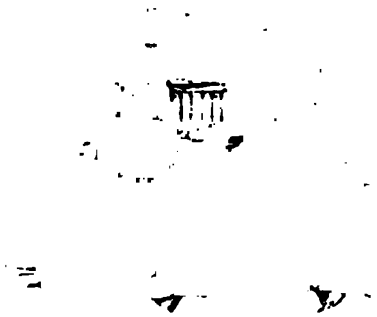
Fig. 1.—Baal, or Melkart.
From a copper coin of Cosyra in the British Museum. (Twice the size of the original.)

Selden is of opinion that it is equi king.' B. was perhaps the Phœnician Moloch. The Greeks Melkart with their own Hercules; and, pose of distinction, termed him the Tyrian From the earliest foundation of Tyre, he seems to have been the tutelar god of that city, and his worship apparently extended thence until it was prevalent in all the towns of the Phœnician confederation, and was established in their remotest colonies, such as Malta, Carthage, and Cadiz. It also overspread the neighbouring countries of Assyria and Egypt. Each country or locality had its B. or chief god. According to Scripture, the temples of this idol (at least in Phœnicia and Assyria) were built on the tops of hills, or still more frequently in solemn groves, and sometimes altars

Fig. 2.—Baal
In a warlike aspect four legs, the pers and rapid

erected to him on the roofs of houses. His
were numerous. Incense was the most fre-
offering presented to him, but we also read
crifices of bullocks, and even of children.
qa, chap. xviii., we read that the priests
ced about the altar during the sacrifice,
arously cut and mangled themselves, if
did not speedily answer their prayers.
rd B. enters into the composition of
hrew, Chaldee, Phœnician, and Cartha-
s, such as Jezebel, Hasdrubal ('Help
al'), Hannibal ('Grace of Baal'), Ethbaal
Baal'), Baal-bec ('City of Baal'). The
so also frequently found in conjunction
some epithet, and in such cases appears to
denote a different deity, though it is not
sible that it may have been the same person
ed in another aspect, and as exercising
a different function. Thus, we have Baal-
'the Covenant Lord,' who was specially
ed by the people of Shechem; Baal-Peor,
pus of the Moabites and Midianites; and
b. or Baalzebub (the Fly-god), the idol of
es at Ekron, where he had a temple.
deity Beal is usually identified with Baal.
s.

A'LBEK, the name of a ruined city in the
Cœle-Syria, signifies the 'City of Baal,'
gel, and was by the Greeks, during
cacide dynasty, converted into Heliopolis.
4' 1' 30" N., long. 36° 11' E. It is situated in
of Buká'a, 'at the northern extremity of a
of bleak hills, about one mile from the
tilebanon,' in a well-watered and delight
ality, rather more than 40 miles north-west of
cus. It was once the most magnificent of
cities, full of palaces, fountains, and beautiful



Ruins of Baalbek.

nts. It is now only famous for the splendour
ains, of which three deserve special notice.
most imposing is that of the great Temple of the
which was a rectangular enclosure, 280 feet by
aving its roof supported by a peristyle of
rinthian columns, 10 at each side and 10 at
end.' Of these, six are yet standing. The
ference of these columns is about 22 feet,
e length of the shaft 58; with pedestal, capi-
d entablature, they became about 89 feet in
. The approach to this temple was through
pacious courts, surrounded on all sides with
s and other buildings. Except the columns
ned, little of the great temple, or of the build-
front of it, is left standing, but the ground is
d with their ruins. The vast size of the stones
the substructions is remarkable, some of
being 60 feet long and 12 thick. South from
the great temple is a smaller one, known as the Temple of Jupiter. It is similar in form, having its peristyle and the walls of its cella still mostly standing. Its dimensions are 227 feet in length, by 117 feet in breadth, being thus larger than the Parthenon at Athens. Both temples, as well as the surrounding structures, are built of limestone, in a richly decorated somewhat fantastic Corinthian style. Besides these, there stands at the distance of 300 yards from the others a circular building, supported on 6 granite columns; style, mixed Ionic and Corinthian. It was once used as a Christian church.

The early history of B. is involved in darkness; but it is certain that, from the most distant times, it had been a chief seat of sun-worship, as its name implies. Julius Cæsar made it a Roman colony, and under Augustus it was occupied by a Roman garrison. B. had an oracle held in such high esteem that, in the 2d c. A.D., it was consulted by the Emperor Trajan prior to his entrance on his second Parthian campaign. To test the prescience of the oracle, Trajan sent to it a blank piece of paper, which was returned to him blank. This gave him a high opinion of its powers, and he consulted it in all seriousness a second time. The response was some dead twigs from a vine, wrapped up in cloth. Trajan's decease some two years afterwards, and the transmission of his bones to Rome, was deemed a sufficient interpretation of the symbolical utterance, and confirmed the celebrity of the oracle. Antoninus Pius (138—161 A.D.) built the great temple, which the legend current among the modern inhabitants counts a work of Solomon. This temple is said to have contained a golden statue of Apollo, or of Zeus, which on certain annual festivals the chief citizens of Heliopolis bore about on their shoulders. When Christianity, under Constantine, became the dominant religion, the temple became a Christian church. In the wars that followed the taking of the city by the Arabs, who sacked it in 748 A.D., the temple was turned into a fortress, the battlements of which are yet visible. The city was completely sacked by Timur Bey, or Beg, in 1400 A.D. Both city and temple continued to fall more and more into decay under the misery and misrule to which Syria has been subject ever since. Many of the magnificent pillars were overturned by the pashas of Damascus merely for the sake of the iron with which the stones were bound together. What the Arabs, Tatars, and Turks had spared, was destroyed by a terrible earthquake in 1759. It is now an insignificant village, with a population of some few hundreds. See Wood and Dawkins's *Ruins of Balbec* (Lond. 1757); Cassas, *Voyage Pittoresque de la Syrie* (1799); Murray's *Handbook for Travellers in Syria and Palestine* (1858).

BA'BA, a Turkish word signifying *father*, originating, like our word *papa*, in the first efforts of children to speak. In Persia and Turkey, it is prefixed as a title of honour to the names of ecclesiastics of distinction, especially of such as devote themselves to an ascetic life; it is often affixed in courtesy, also, to the names of other persons, as Ali-Baba.

BA'BA, CAPE, a bold rocky headland near the western extremity of Anatolia—the Lectum of the Greeks—in lat. 39° 20' N., long. 26° 4' E., about 12 miles from the northern extremity of Mitylene, the ancient Lesbos. On a shelving point of the cape stands the town of Baba, with a population of about 4000, who do some trade in cutlery of a superior quality. The once large and prosperous, but now utterly ruined city of Assos, mentioned by St Paul, is in the vicinity.

BABATAG, or BA'BA DAG, a city with 10,000

inhabitants, in the sandjak of Silistria, in the north-eastern part of European Turkey. It is situated in a marshy district; has a high school and five mosques, of which that built by Bajazet I. is the finest. It was Bajazet that founded the city, which he peopled with Tatars, and named after a saint, whose monument, on a hill near by, is resorted to as a place of pilgrimage. Through the port of Kara-Kerman, lying a short way to the south, the inhabitants of B. carry on a considerable commerce with the Black Sea.

BA'BBAGE, CHARLES, born in 1790, entered early at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his degree of B.A. in 1814. In 1828, he was elected Professor of Mathematics in his own university, an office which he filled for eleven years. B. united, in the most happy combination, powers of invention and observation with thorough scientific culture. Among his writings, we notice first his extremely correct and well-arranged *Tables of Logarithms* (Lond. 1834). He was the first to make the method of constructing such tables the object of earnest study. The difficulty of securing accuracy in getting up tables on a large scale, led him to the idea of committing the execution of the work to a machine. Being commissioned by the government to superintend the construction of such a machine, before beginning the work, he visited a great many manufactories and machine establishments, both in Britain and on the continent, in order to become acquainted with all the resources of mechanical art, and thus be in a position to make a combined use of them in his great undertaking. This survey afforded him the necessary information for his able work, *On the Economy of Manufactures and Machinery* (Lond. 1832) - a book which has run through several editions, and been translated into several languages—in which all mechanical processes are classified from the most scientific point of view, and the most interesting examples of the more important kinds of manufacture are described. Besides his *Comparative View of the Different Life-assurance Societies*, his *Differential and Integral Calculus*, his *Decline of Science* (1830), *A Ninth Bridgewater Treatise*, and *The Exposition of* 1851 (1851), B. contributed a number of very interesting papers to the Transactions of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh.—With regard to B.'s calculating machine, which, from some cause not well explained, was never completed, see CALCULATING MACHINES. He died October 18, 1871.

BA'BEL, TOWER OF. For an account of this building, and the confusion of tongues which it brought about, see the 11th chapter of Genesis. The distinction of being a remnant of the Tower of B. has been claimed for three different masses: 1st, for Nimrud's Tower at Akkerkuf; 2d, the Mujellibe, 950 yards east of the Euphrates, and five miles above the modern town of Hillah; 3d, the Birs Nimrud, to the west of that river, and about six miles to the south-west of Hillah—the whole situated in Babylonia (q. v.). The last of these has the majority of opinions in its favour. Every one, it is said, who has seen the Birs Nimrud, feels at once that, of the ruined mounds in this region, there is not one which so nearly corresponds with his previous notions of the Tower of Babel. According to Mr Rich, it is of an oblong form, the total circumference being 762 yards. At the eastern side it is cloven by a deep furrow, and is not more than 50 or 60 feet high; but on the western side it rises in a conical figure to the elevation of 198 feet; and on its summit is a solid pile of brick 37 feet high by 28 in breadth, diminishing in thickness to the top, which is broken and irregular, and rent by a large fissure extending through a third of its height. It is perforated by small square holes, disposed in rhomboids. The fire-burnt bricks of which it is built have inscriptions on them; and so excellent is the cement, which appears to be lime-mortar, that it is nearly impossible to extract a brick whole. The other parts of the summit of this hill are occupied by immense fragments of brickwork, of no determinate figure, tumbled together, and converted into solid vitrified masses, as if they had undergone the action of the fiercest fire, or had been blown up with gunpowder, the layers of brick being perfectly discernible. These ruins stand on a prodigious mound, the whole of which is itself in ruins, channelled by the weather, and strewed with fragments of black stone, sandstone, and marble. Sir R. K. Porter has shewn that the intense vitrifying heat to which the summit has been evidently subjected, must have been the result of fire operating from above, and was probably produced by lightning. This is a curious circumstance, taken in connection with the ancient tradition that the Tower of B. was rent and overthrown by fire from heaven. Porter thinks that the works of the Babylonish kings, especially the stupendous temple of Belus, which was erected on the site of the old Tower, concealed for a while the marks of the original devastation; and that now the destructions of time and of man have reduced it to nearly the same condition in which it appeared after the confusion.

BAB-EL-MA'NDEB (i.e., 'the Gate of Tears') is the name of the strait between Arabia and the continent of Africa, by which the Red Sea is connected with the Gulf of Aden and the Indian Ocean. The Arabian peninsula here throws out a cape, bearing the same name as the strait, rising to the height of 865 feet. About 20 miles distant from this cape stands the wall-like coast of Adan, rising in Ras Sejan to the height of eet. the straits, but nearer to Arabia, lies island of Perim (q. v.), now occupied by as a fort; the strait on the east side of is called the Little Strait, and that on the Great Strait. The depth of the former 8 to 12 fathoms; that of the latter fathoms. The first is usually chosen by account of its affording good anchorage. the African coast lie eight small islands, c Eight Brothers. The currents in these st generally very strong, and are extremely da for small vessels. The name B. is supposed originated in the frequent disasters occurring strait.

BA'BER, or BA'BUR (Zohir-Eddin Mo the first of the Great Moguls in India, a d of Timur, was born in 1483. He was bar of age when he succeeded his father, C Mirza, in the sovereignty of the co between Samarkand and the Indus. to the conquest of India, although consta tending with revolts in his own dominions, a himself master, by fraud and force, of the p of Kashgar, Kunduz, Kandahar, and Cabul. thus opened the way to India, he made tw rapid incursions into Hindustan; and t advantage of the feeble government Lodi, about the end of 1525, he crossed (the Cabul branch of the Indus), quick some bodies of troops that opposed h Punjab; and at last, in April 15 of Panipat, not far from Delhi, fought a decisive battle with his enemy, was far superior in numbers. The 100,00 1000 elephants of Sultan Ibrahim were d Ibrahim himself fled; and B. made his e

Delhi. In the following month, Agra, the second city of the empire, surrendered. B.'s enjoyment of empire in India was short; he died in 1530, having had to contend during the five years of his reign with numerous conspiracies and revolts. To the talents of a general and statesman, which he manifested in his conquests, his improvements of public roads, measuring of lands, adjustment of taxation, postal arrangements, &c., B. united a taste for science and art. He wrote, in the Tatar language, the history of his own life and conquests, which was translated into Persian by Abdul Rachim, and, more recently, from the Persian into English. B. was succeeded on the throne of Delhi by the eldest of his four sons, Humayun, and was the founder of the B. or Great Mogul dynasty.

BABEUF, FRANÇOIS NOEL, generally known by the name of 'Caius Gracchus,' which he affixed to his political articles, was born in 1764 at St Quentin, in the department of Aisne, France. On the breaking out of the Revolution in 1789, he became a fanatical advocate of the popular demands. During the Reign of Terror he took up a position of hostility to Robespierre and the Terrorists. In his journal, established at Paris in July 1794, and named *The Tribune of the People*, he preached the sovereignty of the masses, and defended the absurdest consequences flowing from that political doctrine. He was in favour of a new distribution of the land, of the abolition of every political order, and the equality of all individuals, wise and foolish. His violent language caused him to be imprisoned. On his release, he attached himself to the members of the extreme Jacobin party, which had just been overthrown. A secret conspiracy was formed, the aim of which was the destruction of the Directory, and the complete re-establishment of the democratic constitution of 1793, which had been suspended during the Reign of Terror. The plot was discovered through the treachery of one of the members. B. and other chiefs were seized, imprisoned, and ultimately brought to trial. B. defended himself with the courage of a fanatic, and overwhelmed his judges with abuse. He was of course condemned to death, and was guillotined on the following day, May 24, 1797. B. was a weak headed enthusiast, without talent or culture; but abler men in the conspiracy made use of his furiously resolute character to secure the ends they had in view.

BABINGTON, ANTONY, an English gentleman of the county of Derby, head of a conspiracy in favour of Mary Stuart of Scotland. The rivalry between Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth of England was at the same time a contest between Catholicism and Protestantism. Accordingly, the various plots for rescuing Mary from the power of her enemy wore the same character, and have been misrepresented and judged of according to the ecclesiastical prejudices of each historian. B., young, rich, a zealous Catholic, and on that account already an enthusiastic admirer of the unfortunate Mary, was induced, through the agents of a determined conspirator, Morgan, who had been arrested in France at the instance of the English court, to put himself at the head of a plot that had for its object the murder of Queen Elizabeth, and the rescue of Mary. The execution of the murder was undertaken by one Savage, in which he was to be assisted by a number of the Catholic nobility, as circumstances might require. The day of action was fixed for the 24th of August 1586. B. reserved the deliverance of Mary for his own share, entered into correspondence with her, and received letters purporting to be from her in return, approving of the assassination of Elizabeth. The secretary, Walsingham, not only had all the threads of the plot in his hand, but contributed, through his emissaries, to spur on the conspirators to the execution of their plans. When the right moment was come, B. and his accomplices were arrested, and condemned. B. made no denial, acknowledged the letters to Mary to be his, and, September 20, 1586, laid his head on the block. Savage, Barnwell, Bollard, Abington, Tichburne, and Tilnee, had a like fate. Mary Stuart herself had, four months later, to ascend the bloody scaffold; and her condemnation was justified chiefly on the ground of those letters received by Babington. Mary, however, denied to the last moment that the letters were written by her hand, or with her knowledge; and her friends constantly maintained that they were the work of Walsingham himself, in order that the unhappy queen might be got rid of with a show of justice. The rest of Walsingham's conduct in this affair, as well as the way in which he was in the habit of supporting Elizabeth's views in general, give at least a high degree of probability to the accusation.

BABOON (*Cynocephalus*), a genus of the Monkey family, or *Simiadæ* (see MONKEY), and distinguished from all the rest of that family by the very elongated muzzle, which terminates abruptly, and is pierced with nostrils at the end like that of a dog. The face has, indeed, a general resemblance to the face of a dog. The dentition agrees with that of the other ajas or monkeys of the Old World, to which the baboons are entirely confined, being only distinguished by the remarkable strength of the canine teeth. Baboons, like almost all the Monkey family in the Old World, have callosities upon the buttocks; and, like the greater part of them, they have cheek-pouches. The tail of some of the species is of considerable length, that of others is a mere tubercle, with an erect tuft of hairs. The physiognomy of all baboons is repulsive, and indicates the fierceness which strongly characterises them, and in which they differ from monkeys in general; some of the larger ones are dreaded by the inhabitants of the countries in which they are found; the danger to be apprehended from them being increased by the numbers in which they usually herd together. Their fore and hind legs are so proportioned, that they walk easily, and run swiftly on the ground; but, like all other quadrumanous animals, they climb trees and rocks with great agility. Their hair is long, forming a sort of mane on the upper parts. All of them are very susceptible of cold, and they seldom live long when removed from their native tropical countries. They feed chiefly on fruits and roots: some of them inhabit barren and stony places where scorpions abound, which they seize, adroitly deprive of the sting, and devour. They are very cunning, mischievous, and revengeful; troops of them sometimes enter a plantation, not merely to plunder, but apparently to amuse themselves by destroying whatever they can find; they seem, however, always to have some appointed to keep watch, and they make off with great rapidity on the first signal of alarm. When plundering, they cram their cheek-pouches before they begin to eat. These cheek-pouches are very capacious: a B., kept in confinement, has been seen to put eight eggs into them at once, and then to take out the eggs one by one, to break them at the end, and deliberately to suck their contents. The larger baboons are sometimes hunted by dogs where they have not trees to take refuge in; but a single dog, however powerful, cannot safely attack them; a baboon will seize a dog by the hind legs, and whirl him round and round till he is stupified. Baboons are not so easily domesticated as many kinds of monkey; however, they are not quite incapable of it when

taken young. 'Happy Jerry,' a mandrill or rib-nose B., which was long a great object of attraction at Exeter Change, used to sit with great gravity in an arm-chair, awaiting orders, which he obeyed with slowness and composure. He smoked tobacco, but did not seem much to relish it, and was rather induced to do it by a bribe of gin and water, for which his fondness was unquestionable.

As examples of baboons with tails of considerable length, may be mentioned the Chacma, or Pig-faced B., also called the Ursine B. (*C. porcarius*), a native of South Africa; and the Dog-faced B. (*C. Hamadryas*), a native of Arabia, Persia, and the mountains of Abyssinia. The latter species, perhaps the only one known to the ancients, is often sculptured on the ancient monuments of Egypt, and it is supposed to have been the species of monkey to which divine honours were paid. Its body was frequently embalmed, and B. mummies are still found.—The Chacma is one of the largest of the baboons, about the size of an English mastiff, and very much stronger: it is common on the mountains of the Cape Colony, and in troops would be very formidable, but that they usually scamper out of the way, instead of attacking travellers, unless they are provoked. It is of a dark-brown colour, with long shaggy hair. The tail is rather more than half the length of the body, and is terminated by a tuft of long black hair.

The short-tailed, or almost tail-less baboons, far exceed their longer-tailed congeners in ugliness. Only two species are certainly known—the Mandrill or Rib-nose B. (*C. Mormon*), and the Drill (*C. leucophæus*), both natives of Guinea. The mandrill is

Mandrill or Rib-nose Baboon.

the largest, fiercest, and most powerful of the whole genus. The colours of its fur are very fine, of a light olive brown above, and silvery gray beneath; but besides other things unpleasant to the sight, its face is peculiarly hideous; the cheek-bones in the adult males being enormously swollen, so that the cheeks are protuberant to the size of a man's fist upon each side, and ribbed with blue, scarlet, and purple. In their native forests, mandrills generally live in large troops, and are said to put to flight every other wild beast.

BA'BRIUS, a Greek fabulist, who lived about the close of the Alexandrian age, or the beginning of the succeeding Roman-sophistic period, made a considerable collection of Æsopian fables (see Æsop), which he turned into verse, in a natural and popular style. Several versions and transformations of these were made during the middle ages, and have come down to us under the name of *Æsop's Fables*. Bentley, who, in his *Dissertatio de Babrio*, was the first to recognise in these fables of Æsop the original work of B., endeavoured to restore portions of the verses, and pointed out other fra of the genuine B. in other quarters. A were added from manuscripts by Furia, K Schneider, and all that was known at the collected by Knoche (Halle, 1835). At last, a Greek of the name of Minoides Minas, employed by the French government to explore the convents of the East, discovered a manuscript with 123 hitherto unknown fables of B., a copy of which he made and brought to Paris, where they were published in 1844. The best edition is that by Lachmann (Berl. 1845).

BA'BYLON, BABYLO'NIA. Babylonia was the name given in ancient times to the flat country about the lower course of the Euphrates, called in modern times Irak-Arabi. In the Old Testament it is called Shinar, Babel, and also 'land of the Chaldees;' and by the later Greek and Roman writers, occasionally Chaldæa. Its proper boundaries were: on the N., towards Mesopotamia, the Euphrates and the Median Wall, which extended from the junction of the Chabur with the Euphrates to the Tigris; on the E., towards Assyria and Susiana, the Tigris; on the S., the Gulf of Persia; and on the W., the desert of Arabia. During the wider extension of the Babylonian dominion, the name comprehended also Assyria and Mesopotamia. The country forms a perfect plain which is a continuation of that of Assyria. two rivers, Euphrates and Tigris, here appro each other most nearly, until their blended into the Persian Gulf. The country protected from flooding by numerous ca embankments, and several artificial lakes, are now mostly in ruin. The most important was that now known as Nahr-el-Melik, wh undoubtedly the ancient royal canal that the two great rivers. It was kept in repair by Roman emperors, and was serviceable as late a 7th c., till the Mohammedans took poss of country. The soil, naturally fertile, more so by the garden-like way in cultivated, and yielded abundant crops, wheat, barley, and dates. The want o wood was more severely felt than in A only building material was brick, for w afforded abundance of clay. The bricks we dried in the sun or burnt, and were very resisting, in the ruins, the effects of the we this day. Mineral bitumen, springing up every in abundance, served as mortar. In this fa plain, the human race attained early a state of and political organisation, the oldest, indeed, antiquity gives us any account of.

The Babylonians belonged to the A of the Semitic stock, as Sir Henry discoveries among the cuneifo now made clear; and to th their origin. The Mosaic accounts give, founder of the kingdom, Nimrod, the which, from the construction of the whole alogy, seems to point to an immigration the south. Later Greek writers make Baal or Bel the founder. Althou regular astronomical observations, annals extending back to 1903 years under the Great, and long lists of dy Berosus, the national sacred historian the old chroniclers, have been handed whole history of B. is doubtful and an ancient native dynasty of 86 kings, Median dynasties of 8 and 11 kings, wh lowed by a Chaldaic dynasty of 49 kings, Arabian of 9; and lastly, by Queen Semiram much is evident, that the kingdom of As was at first an offshoot from B., gradu

supremacy, and reduced the mother-state to
tion.

the history of B. we find frequent mention
of the Chaldæans. This term is used in
n senses: as denoting the inhabitants of
ea Proper, which formed the southern portion
as synonymous with Babylonians or subjects
ir e re; and, lastly, as the name of a
. With respect to their origin, various
held by modern writers. Some main-
t they may be identified with the Kurds
duchian mountaineers, who are supposed
ve left the mountainous region between
ia and the Euxine, and to have invaded
onquered the plain country. By this theory,
onnection with the Persian Magi is readily
ned. Others, again, as Rawlinson, think
the tide of immigration set in the opposite
ion, and that the Phœnicians and Chaldæans
originally came from Elam or Susiana. A
opinion is, that they were a considerable tribe
ally settled in B., which gradually became the
race.

legends have yet been found among the
orm inscriptions by which we may ascer-
the date of the commencement of the early
an empire, which preceded the Assyrian, but
bly the traditional date (2234 B. C.) is historic.
perfect list of 26 kings has been deciphered
various legends; but as the interval to fill up
re than seven centuries, we must wait for
r discoveries before a successful attempt can
de at arranging the chronology of this remote
L. Bricks have been found bearing the inscrip-
f *Kedur-mapula*, who is conjectured to be the
-laomer of Scripture, and to have lived in
arly part of the 20th c. B. C. This king's
ition seems to have been one of the migratory
ments, in which, as stated above, the Phœnicians
Chaldæans bore a part, for the distance from
to Syria is too great to allow us to believe that
ncursion was merely for the sake of plunder.
ese ancient Chaldæan legends Assyria is not
mentioned; and the only notice we have that
ia was subject to B., is found on the cylinder
glath-pileser I., where it is recorded that an
ian temple had been originally built by a son
si-dagon, the fifth king of the early Chaldæan
ty, whose date is about 1861 B. C.

the close of the Chaldæan period (1273 B. C.), the
- was transferred from the mother country to
noot Assyria; and from this date till 747, the
on of the former state is very subordinate.
history of the period between 747 and 625 is
y points uncertain. One point, however,
en clearly ascertained from the inscriptions
B. was by no means a submissive vassal, but
on one occasion at least, a Babylonian monarch
ed Assyria, defeated the opposing forces, and
ed the capital. The name of *Mer-i-k-Bildadan*
s both in Scripture and in the Assyrian inscrip-

From the former, we know that this king sent
ssage to Hezekiah, king of Judah, ostensibly to
re about his recovery, probably with a view to
liance against Assyria; and from the latter, that
dach was expelled by Sargon, king of Assyria,
he made a fresh attempt to recover his throne,
was finally dethroned by Sennacherib. An
ption of this last-named monarch, which de-
s the punishment inflicted on the revolted pro-
, also records that he had recovered certain gods
had been taken from Nineveh 418 years before
Babylonian monarch. The complete subjection
to Assyria at this time (680 B. C.) is proved
from the Scripture account, which states that
addon, son of Sennacherib, reigned in Babylon.

About fifty years afterwards, Nabopolassar, governor
of B. for the Assyrian king, proved faithless to his
trust, and entered into an alliance with the Median
king, Cyaxares, for the overthrow of the ruling state.
See ASSYRIA. This undertaking was successful, and
B. now (625 B. C.) became, though it was but for a
short time, an independent and conquering power.
The son of Nabopolassar, Nebuchadnezzar II. (or,
as he is called in the Persian cuneiform inscriptions,
Nabuchudratshara), next defeated the Egyptian
king, Necho, at Circesium (Karchemish), on the
Euphrates (604 B. C.), and thus annihilated the
Egyptian dominion in Asia. He then subdued
Jehoiakim, king of Judah; and in consequence of
repeated revolts, destroyed Jerusalem, and put an
end to the kingdom of Judah under Zedekiah (588
B. C.), carrying the inhabitants captive to Babylon.
The Phœnicians submitted to him voluntarily, with
the exception of Tyre, which underwent an obstinate
siege without yielding. After a fortunate expedition
against Egypt, Nebuchadnezzar turned his attention
to the adornment of his capital; and we may believe
that a considerable part of those buildings, usually
ascribed to a very early period, and especially to
Semiramis, belong to him. The great embankment
at Bagdad, usually ascribed to the califs, has been
proved by Rawlinson to date from this monarch.
After his death (562 B. C.), the Neo-Babylonian empire
fell to pieces as suddenly as it had sprung up, and
under Nabonidus (Nabunita, in the cuneiform
inscriptions, and in Herodotus, Labynetos), who had
entered into an alliance with Cresus of Lydia,
against Persia, it came under the dominion of Cyrus
(539 B. C.). The Belshazzar of Scripture is thought
to be the son of Labynetos, to whom was confided
the defence of B., while the elder prince held
Borsippa. After the fall of B., Labynetos submitted
to Cyrus, and was treated with kindness. As a
Persian province, however, B. made many attempts
to assert its freedom. Thus, in the great inscription
of Behistun (q. v.), Darius I. relates, that after his
accession to the throne at B., a certain Nidintabira
gave himself out for Nabuchudratshara, the son of
Nabunita, and gained over the whole people; that
he (Darius) had defeated him in battle, but that it
had been necessary to besiege the rebellious city, in
the course of which siege the rebel had met his
death. From this time B. appears on the Persian
monuments as a Persian satrapy, under the name of
Babirus.

With the overthrow of the Persian monarchy,
B. came under the short-lived dominion of Alex-
ander the Great, who died in that city (323 B. C.).
Seleucus I., to whom it had been promised at the
conference of Triparadisus, contested and won the
possession of it from Antigonus (312 B. C.). About
140 B. C., it was taken from the Syrian monarchs by
the Parthians. It came into the hands of the
Romans only temporarily, first under Trajan (114
A. D.), under Septimius Severus (199 A. D.), and again,
under Julian (363 A. D.). When, in 650, the suc-
cessors of Mohammed put an end to the new
Persian monarchy of the Sassanides, the province of
B., where Bagdad was built (762–766), became the
seat of the califs till 1258. Since 1638, when the
Turks, for the second time, took it from the Persians,
it has been under the dominion of Turkey, divided
into the pachalics of Bagdad and Basra.

The civilisation of the ancient Babylonians was
of a rather high stamp, much like that of the
Assyrians. The government was despotic, of a
kind to suit a crowded, luxurious, and effeminate
population. In the accounts of Herodotus, we see
traces of administration by satraps. Justice is said
to have been dispensed by three great courts of
law. Arts and commerce were highly flourishing;

the last was carried on by caravans with Bactria, Persia, and Media, perhaps as far as India, and by shipping on the Persian Gulf with Arabia. The commerce has indeed remained much in the same position down to the most recent times. In the 16th c., the English carried on traffic with this country; in modern times, Bagdad holds the place of the ancient B. and Ctesiphon. B. was famous for its dyes, its cloths, and embroideries, especially for the manufacture of rich carpets with inwoven figures of strange animals and arabesques, such as we yet see on the Nineveh sculptures. Commerce gave rise to the invention of measures and weights; and the general prosperity was such, that B. and Assyria together were able to pay to Persia, in the time of Darius Hystaspes, a yearly tribute of 1000 talents (upwards of £280,000)—a sum considerably greater than that contributed by any other province. This, however, reveals also the national character of the Babylonians, who were notorious for their effeminacy, luxury, and licentiousness. Their religion was nearly allied to that of the Phœnicians. The essential part of it was the worship of the powers of nature, as they are manifested in the larger heavenly bodies and in the fertility of the earth. At the head of their system of belief stood Baal (see BAAL), reverenced through the whole of Mesopotamia and Canaan, who represented, in a general way, the power of nature, without having any moral significance, and was specially identified with the sun. Along with him stood, as feminine complement, the goddess Baaltis, the receptive Earth, with whose worship all manner of licentious rites were associated. She makes her appearance principally as Melyta or Mylitta—i. e., 'the causer of generation.' How nearly she is related to Ashtaroth (among the Greeks, Astarte), whose functions are so similar, it is not easy to determine. Education and religion were in the hands of the caste of the Chaldees, which was not, however, hereditary, but was drawn from the body of the people, since even the foreign prophet Daniel was taken into the number. They occupied themselves at the same time with astronomy and astrology, and kept records, from the earliest times, of their astronomical observations, associating with them the chronicles of their kings. All this they did in a strictly collegiate capacity, for we always find the collective name, 'the Chaldees,' and never the name of an individual. Their scientific acquirements must have been considerable. See Ideler *On the Astronomy of the Chaldæans* (in the Transactions of the Berlin Academy, Historico-philological class, 1814—1815). Beyond engraved cylinders and stones, we have no considerable monuments of the state of the representative arts among them, and cannot, therefore, satisfactorily judge of it. Their architecture, on the contrary, according to the testimony of the ancients, and the ruins still remaining, deserves to be ranked high.

Apart from canals, bridges, embankments, and sluices, the interest on the subject of Babylonian architecture is concentrated in the ruins of the capital, BABYLON. The accounts that we find in the ancients of the origin, the greatness, and the structure of the city, are exceedingly confused. The god Belus is named as its founder, and also Queen Semiramis; how we are to understand the two statements is not explained. Semiramis, according to the account of Diodorus, employed on it two millions of workmen, collected from all parts of her dominions. With the capital of the older kingdom, the accounts of the ancients known to us have, for the most part, nothing to do; they are all to be referred to the resuscitated and adorned residence of Nebuchadnezzar. Herodotus gives a description of the city, apparently from his own observation. It stood on both sides of the river, in the form of a square, the length of whose sides is variously given; by Herodotus it is stated at 120 stadia, making the whole circumference 60 miles. It must be remembered, however, that the walls, like those of most oriental towns, enclosed rather populous districts than cities, so that the whole mass of the population might easily find shelter within the space enclosed. It was surrounded by a wall 200 cubits high, and 50 cubits thick, and furnished with 100 brazen gates—the last number is raised by Diodorus to 250. The city was built with extreme regularity, with broad straight streets crossing one another at right angles; and the two parts were connected by a roofed bridge built of hewn stones, fastened together with iron clamps. Of this bridge, not a trace has yet been discovered. The western part of the city is undoubtedly the older, belonging to the early and properly Babylonish dynasty. Here stood, in the middle of the city, as it is described, the famous temple of Belus or Baal, called by the Arabs, Birs Nimrud. See BABEL, TOWER OF. The next important point on the west side is the mass of ruins called Mujellibe, which was probably the royal citadel of the old Babylonian monarchy. On the east side of the river stood the buildings of the Neo-Babylonian period, among which the 'Hanging Gardens' of Semiramis are to be singled out as one of the wonders of the world. Of these gardens, Diodorus has left us a detailed description. Their ruins may be recognised in the mound called El-Kasr. The city suffered greatly from the Persian conquest. When it revolted under Darius I., and, after a siege of two years, was recaptured through the ingenuity of Zopyrus, the outer walls were demolished. Xerxes plundered the temple of Belus, which had been hitherto spared, and Herodotus found it empty. Although the Persian kings made B. their residence, nothing was done for the restoration of the city; and Alexander the Great, who, on his entrance, in 331 B.C., had promised the inhabitants to rebuild the ruined temple, was unable even to clear away the rubbish, although he employed 10,000 workmen for two months. After his death in the palace of Nebuchadnezzar, and the foundation of Seleucia on the Tigris by Seleucus Nicator, B. went rapidly to decay. This was partly owing to the new city's being built of the materials of the old, and partly to the want of durable materials for monumental buildings. Stones of any size had to be brought from the mountains of Armenia; their place was mostly supplied by burned brick. As early as the time of Pausanias, there was little to be seen but the ruins of the walls. The older Arabian geographers know, indeed, of a village, Bâbil, but speak more of the great masses of ruins. Since the time of Della Valle, who erroneously looked upon the ruin Mujellibe as the tower of Belus (in which he is followed by Rennel), the site of B. has been the object of many travels and researches. The greater number of the explorers, among whom Rich is the most distinguished, consider the town of Hillah, with 7000 inhabitants, as the representative of the ancient Babylon. The great masses of ruins, from which we must not, with Rennel, exclude the Birs Nimrûd, embrace, indeed, an enormous extent, but agree perfectly with the accounts of the ancients in being arranged in the form of a square. Some time ago, Rawlinson transferred the site of B. to Niffer; but before anything can be determined, researches must be made on the spot, which could hardly fail to lead

e same time to valuable results, like those otta and Layard in Assyria, and increase ollection of cuneiform inscriptions, which are aly fragmentary. See Rich's *Memoirs on the of Babylon* (3d ed., Lond. 1818), and his *nal Narrative of a Journey to England by rah, Bagdad, the Ruins of Babylon* (Lond. : man's *Travels in Chaldæa* (Lond. 1829); *Travels in Koordistan, Mesopotamia* (Lond. ; Wellsted's *Travels to the City of the* (Lond. 1840); Vaux's *Nineveh and Persepolis* . 1850); Rawlinson's *Herodotus* (Lond. 1858).

BYLONISH CAPTIVITY. In the despotic of the East in ancient times, it was a rule to e the rich and leading inhabitants of a con- l province to a distant part of the empire, they were separated by nationality, language, s, and religion from the great body of the tion, and thus rendered politically harmless; the people that remained behind were by this deprived of influential leaders. The inhabit- f Judea underwent oftener than once a depor- of this kind, after they came into conflict he powerful kingdom of Assyria. Thus, the m of Israel was put an end to under King (722 B.C.), by the Assyrian monarch Salmanas- . after taking the capital, Samaria, carried ipal inhabitants into captivity in Assyria, ught stranger tribes into the land of Israel in ; these, with the Israelites that remained, erwards the mixed nation of the Samari- The most remarkable exile, however, befell of Judah under Nebuchadnezzar. Zedekiah, Judah, warned in vain by the prophet Jere- allied himself with the king of Egypt against vereiguty of Babylon. Nebuchadnezzar soon ed with a powerful army before Jerusalem, he took (588 B.C.). King Zedekiah had his eyes t, and he and the principal part of the inha- were carried captive to Babylon. It is this ity, the duration of which is usually reckoned vears, although, strictly speaking, it lasted years, that is called, by way of distinction, abylonish Captivity.' The situation of the was in other respects tolerable. Most of them down, and acquired property, and even riches; were called to court, and even raised to high in the state. They were allowed to retain rganisation by families, and lived by them- essentially according to the Mosaic law. had also their own chief, and were allowed e exercise of their religion. Nor did they consolation and encouragement; for Ezekiel among them his powerful prophetic voice, idea of the Messiah became more clearly ped. When Cyrus overthrew the Babylonian (538 B.C.), he allowed the Jews to return ir own country. Only the tribes of Judah, min, and Levi, availed themselves of this sion, the other ten tribes disappear from after the Captivity. It is probable that ad become so mingled with the Babylonians, le of kindred origin, that they had ceased to er the country of their race. Vain attempts recent times, been made to discover the ten es. Some learned men have sought for China and India, while others have declared as to be their descendants, and even the merican Indians. A more probable con- , perhaps, is, that they were the ancestors Nestorians in the mountains of Kurdistan.

BYROU'SSA (*Sus Babyroussa*), a species of q. v.) inhabiting the forests of Java and lucca Islands, remarkable for the extraordi- sks of the upper jaw, which rise like horns through the bone and integuments, are long, somewhat slender, and curved backwards; their use being

Babyroussa (*Babirussa alfurus*).

probably similar to that of horns. The animal is sometimes called the Horned Hog. Its limbs are much more slender than those of the common hog.

BACCHIGLIONE, a river of Northern Italy, having its source in the Alps, and its outlet in the Adriatic. It passes through the town of Vicenza, where it is crossed by a fine bridge of nine arches; flows through the plain of Padua, and enters the Adriatic about 3 miles south of Chioggia. Its whole course is about 90 miles, and it is navigable by large boats from Vicenza to the sea.

BACCHUS, the god of wine (called in Greek Bakchos, Dionysos, and also, especially in the Mysteries, Iakchos), was the son of Zeus and Semele, the daughter of Cadmus. Before his birth, Semele fell a victim to the insidious counsels of the jealous Here, who induced her to petition Zeus to visit her in his proper form and majesty—i. e., attended with thunder and lightning. The mother was of course consumed, but the six-months-old B. was saved by being enclosed for some time in the thigh of Zeus. He was first consigned to the care of Ino, the sister of Semele, and her husband Athamas; but when Ino and Athamas were driven mad by Here, Zeus caused him to be carried to Nysa, in Thrace, and given in charge to the Nymphs. It

Bacchus.

was here that B. taught the cultivation of the vine, and prepared intoxicating drink from the grapes. In order to impart his discovery to mankind, or, as some say, because Here smote him with madness, he wandered through many countries attended by the Nymphs, who were crowned with ivy and vine-leaves, and bore in their hands the *thyrsus*, a pole bound round with leaves and fruit. This expedition, according to a later form of the myth, extended to Bactria and Media, to Egypt and India, where B. is said to have erected pillars as the eastern boundary of the world. Wherever he came in his wide progress, there is a Nysa to be found. The worship of the god, which

came originally from the East, and was introduced into Greece by Melampus, was thus spread over nearly the whole of the then known earth, and at the same time the myth of B. was variously modified among the different peoples, so that it has become one of the most perplexed and difficult. B. was, besides, the protector of fruit-trees, and of fruits in general. His worship being thus extensively spread, and his festivals being held with music and song, he naturally received a great many surnames; for example, he was called Lenæos, from the wine-vat (*lenos*); Bromius, from shouting (*bromos*); Euios (in Latin, Evius), from the exclamation *Euoi*, &c. The mythical march or expedition above spoken of, was suggested to the fancy by the Bacchanalian festivals, at which Bacchantes roved about in feigned madness, and made midnight processions to the mountains by torch-light. B. met with much opposition on his expeditions, many refusing to acknowledge his divinity. Thus, Lycurgus, king of the Edones, opposed him, and also Pentheus of Thebes, who was on that account torn to pieces by his own mother and her sisters. The daughters of Mynias (q. v.), who refused to celebrate his festivals, were punished by him with madness and metamorphosis. As he was crossing to Naxos, the Tyrrhenian sailors wished to carry him off to Italy, and, with this view, bound him; but the chains fell off, vines and ivy entwined the ship, and held it fast in the middle of the sea. B. changed himself into a lion, and the sailors from terror leaped into the sea, where they were transformed into dolphins. Those, on the contrary, who received him with hospitality and reverence, were rewarded; such as Midas (q. v). In general, the character of B. is mild. In works of art, his type is that of a youth inclining to effeminacy. His peculiar ornament is the fillet. The long blond hair is bound up in a knot behind, and only a few locks fall down on both sides over the shoulders; the hair is surrounded by a twig of vine or of ivy. His figure is neither stout nor slim. He is usually represented quite naked; sometimes with a wide robe negligently thrown over, which either covers a part of the shoulders and thighs, or, though more rarely, enwraps the greater part of the body. Frequently, a deer-skin hangs across the breast; at times, he wears shoes, more rarely, buskins. From this, the properly Grecian B., the bearded or Indian B. is completely distinct. This last appears in a more dignified, lofty, regal form; he is clad in a tunic reaching to the feet, over which he wears a wide and splendid mantle. As a warrior, he wears a short tunic girded round the waist, with buskins on the feet; a panther's skin serves him for a shield. In addition, he is to be seen at times with horns. After the institution of the Eleusinian Mysteries, the service of B. was conjoined with these; accordingly, Pindar makes him the companion of Demeter. As the followers of Orpheus held him to be also Apollo, he is associated with the Delphic oracle.

The worship of B. consisted in noisy rites. Thebes, in Bœotia, held to be the birthplace of the god, was considered the chief seat of those rites in Greece. In Athens, the worship of the Lenæan B. was the most ancient, and may be traced back to ante-historic times. The chief offerings made to him were goats and oxen; the last, because he himself was conceived and represented under the form of an ox. The Bacchic festivals deserving special notice are — 1. The Attic Dionysia, of which the minor, or country Dionysia, were celebrated in the country in the month Poseideon, at the time of the grape-gathering. Among the characteristic amusements of the occasion were the Askolia, which consisted in smearing full wine-skins (*askoi*) with oil, on which the young peasants attempted to leap with one foot, and by their frequent falls produced merriment. were also dramatic entertainments. This was probably held at the approach of harvest, and that of the Halœa at its close were followed, in the month Gamelion, festival of the Lenæa, which was peculiar city of Athens. The festivities on the besides theatrical representations, consisted banquet, for which the state provided the in a procession through the city, attended jesting and raillery usual at Bacchic After the Lenæa came the Anthesteria 12th, and 13th of the month Anthester new wine was first drunk. On the this festival, the chief solemnity consisted in public dinner, at which the guests, crown flowers, and to the music of trumpets, ente regular contests in drinking, and in a priva fice for the prosperity of the state offered 'king archon's' wife, who was at the symbolically married to the god. On a sacrifice was offered to the Chthonian to the souls of the dead. Last c Dionysia, which were celebrated Elaphebolion, and at which new c tragedies were represented. 2. The nysia, which were celebrated every third the middle of winter. The performers were and girls (called in Greek, *Manades;* in *Bacchæ* or *Bacchantes*), and the orgies were night, on the mountains, with blazing torc the wildest enthusiasm. This mystic s from Thrace, and its institution is Orpheus. When it was adopted in Greece be exactly determined. It is earliest met Bœotia, particularly at Thebes, where the was the scene of celebration. An importan connection with it is also Parnassus, on the summit of which the women of Attica and celebrated nocturnal orgies in honour of Apollo. The Mænades or Bacchantes were cla

Bacchant.

occasion in fawn-skins, swung about made a great noise with clapping of hand wildly with streaming hair. In nity, the god himself was repre sacred to him, the ox, which fury tore in pieces. In the m human sacrifices were not unc of these wild and terrible rites in the poets. 3. The Bacchanalia foundation of which was laid in

panesian war, by the introduction of foreign
From Greece they were carried to Italy. As
as 496 B.C., the Greek worship of B. was
ieed at Rome along with that of Ceres;
'eres, Liber, and Libera were worshipped in a
on temple. In honour of these deities, the
alia were celebrated on the 17th of March, and
of a yet simpler and ruder kind than the great
sia of Athens. Afterwards, however, these
legenerated, and came to be celebrated with a
ousness that threatened the destruction of
ity and of society itself. They were made the
on of the most unnatural excesses. At first,
women took part in these mysterious Bacchic
but latterly men also were admitted. When
vil had reached its greatest height, the
ament (186 B.C.) instituted an inquiry into it,
votsel out the Bacchanalia with the greatest
ty. This was the occasion of the well-known
is *Consultum de Bacchanalibus*. Mention of
however, still occurs at a later period under
iperors.—Wild, excessive revels are still called
analia.

CCIO DELLA PORTA, better known by
ame of Fra Bartolomeo di San Marco, one of
ost distinguished masters of the Florentine
of painting, was born at Savignano, in
ny, in 1469. His first teacher was Cosimo
i; but he owed his higher cultivation to the
of the works of Leonardo da Vinci. His
ts are mostly religious, and by far the greater
of his pieces belong to the later years of
e. He was a warm adherent of that bold
er of church and state, Savonarola (q.v.),
whose tragical end he, 1590, took the habit of
nister, and for a considerable time renounced
The visit of the young Raphael to Florence
M seems to have been instrumental in stimu-
him to return to it. He imparted to Raphael
owledge of colouring, and acquired from him
e perfect knowledge of perspective. The two
ned constant friends B., on one occasion,
ng certain of Raphael's unfinished works,
uel performing a like kindness for him at
er time. B. died at Florence, 1517. The
r number of his works are to be seen at
ence, in the gallery of the Pitti Palace.

CH, BARON ALEXANDER, an Austrian statesman, was born January 4, 1813, at Lemberg, in Lower
ia, where his father held a post under the
Prussian Government. At the age of
was presented to the Faculty of Doctor of Laws,
hen entered the imperial service, in which he
ned about nine years. During this period also
avelled over the greater part of Europe and
of the countries of Asia. He was on terms of
ship with the members of the opposition of
Austria, and belonged to that circle of young
who well understood the failings of the old
n, and the inevitability of a change in the
sation of Austria. He took an active part in
ing the Juridico-political Reading Club, and
gously defended it against the police. On the
nce of the events of March 1848, B. took
nguished place as a mediator. He formed part
Provisional Committee of the Commons, and
also chosen in April, by the state of Lower
ia, one of their representatives in the Central
mission of the Provincial States of Austria.
this, the outset of his political career, B.
y showed a leaning to those views which he
ards manifested as minister. He advocated
ntralisation of the Austrian monarchy, and
ed himself against the intelligence of Hun-
as well as against the entry of the German
provinces of Austria into the German confederation. But he also desired an extension of the basis of the states, and of their parliamentary influence in the direction of public affairs. During the occurrences of the 15th of May 1848, B. kept away from Vienna. When, after these occurrences, the old liberal opposition came to the helm, B. undertook the ministry of justice. He now entered with talent and energy into the remodelling of the whole system of Austrian law. On the other hand, the part he took in the assembly brought upon him the hatred of the 'left,' and of the democratic party generally. The opposition was particularly bitter on the question of removing the burdens from peasant proprietors, on which B. maintained the principle of compensation, and wished a part of that compensation to be made good by those who had hitherto borne the burdens in question. His policy, also, with regard to Hungarian affairs met with violent opposition from the 'left.' In the events of the 6th of October 1848, B. would have fallen a victim to popular fury, like the war-minister Latour, had he not found an opportunity of withdrawing from pursuit. On the formation of the Schwartzenberg-Stadion ministry, he again took the portfolio of justice, and participated in the measures regarding Hungary and all the other important steps taken by that ministry. On the withdrawal of Stadion in May 1849, B. took his place at the head of the ministry of the interior, from which he was sent, in 1859, as plenipotentiary to Rome a mission which terminated in 1855. Among his most important labours as minister of the interior are the constitutions for the different crown lands, as well as the organisation of their political administration.

BACH, JOHANN SEBASTIAN, a celebrated musician, born at Eisenach, Upper Saxony, in March 1685. When he was ten years old, his father, who was a musician at Eisenach, died, and B. sought the protection of an elder brother, who, dying soon after, he was again left destitute, and, to earn a livelihood, entered the choir of St Michael's, Lunéburg, as a soprano singer. In 1703 he became court musician at Weimar, and, the following year, organist to a new church at Arnstadt. His reputation in this capacity soon spread, and in 1708 he was appointed court organist at Weimar, by the reigning duke. While holding this office, he laboured assiduously to make himself master of every branch of music. In 1717, he was made director of concerts, and six years afterwards, director of music, and cantor to St Thomas's School, Leipsic, an appointment which he held to his death. About ten years later, the honorary distinctions of Kapellmeister to the Duke of Weissenfels, and court composer to the king of Poland, were conferred upon him. B., who had a son in the service of Frederick the Great, received a pressing request to visit Potsdam on the occasion of a concert there. He went, and acquitted himself greatly to the satisfaction of that monarch, some of whose music he played at first sight. B.'s close studies affected his eyes, and an operation designed to benefit them, left him totally blind, and hastened his death, which took place in July 1750. With the exception of Handel, B. had no rival as an organist; and his compositions for the organ have a deservedly high reputation. They are too elaborate, however, ever to become very popular, though his fame as a composer is sure to advance with the progress of scientific musical culture. The highly educated musician will best appreciate the grandeur of some of his works. In 1850, a Bach Society for the study and practice of his compositions was formed in London, and since that time some of them have been publicly performed in this country. Three of his sons were also musicians of some note. One of

them, Johann Christian, held the appointment of music-preceptor to Queen Charlotte.

BA'CHARACH, a small town of Rhenish Prussia, romantically situated on the left bank of the Rhine, 22½ miles above Coblenz. It has a population of 1900, with a brisk trade, and a good deal of commerce by river-craft. It is said to have derived its name from Bacchus (*Bacchi ara*), and the vine is still largely cultivated in the neighbourhood—the wine produced being of a superior quality. B. is noteworthy also as the place where Blucher crossed the Rhine, on January 1, 1814.

BA'CHELOR (Fr. *bachelier*, Lat. *baccalaureus*, or, as it is variously written in old documents, *baccalareus*, *bacularius*, and *bacillarius*). This word, which first makes its appearance in middle-age Latin, is of very uncertain etymology, and its primary meaning is consequently involved in obscurity. The usual derivation, from *bacca laurea*, a laurel berry, gives us little help; but the Spanish *bachillir*, which means at once *a babbler* and a master of arts, taken in conjunction with the Portuguese *bacharel* and *bacillo*, a shoot or twig of the vine (from the Latin *baculus* or *baculum*, a stick or shoot), and the French *bachelette*, a damsel, seem to point to its original and generic meaning, which probably was *a person shooting, or protruding from one stage of his career into another more advanced.* With this general signification, all the special meanings of the word given by Ducange seem to have some analogy. 1. It was used, he says, to indicate a person who cultivated certain portions of church-lands called *baccalaria*—which he supposes to have been a corruption of *vassaleria*—a feu belonging to an inferior vassal, or to one who had not attained to a full feudal recognition. 2. It indicated ecclesiastics of a lower dignity than the other members of a religious brotherhood—i. e., monks who were still in the first stages of monkhood. 3. It was used by later writers to indicate persons in the first or probationary stage of knighthood; i. e., not esquires simply, but knights who, from poverty and the insufficient number of their retainers—from their possessing, perhaps, only the *baccalaria* above referred to—or, from nonage, had not yet raised their banner in the field (*levé bannière*). 4. It was adopted to indicate the first grade or step in the career of university life. As an academical title, it was first introduced by Pope Gregory IX. in the 13th c., into the university of Paris, to denote a candidate who had undergone his first academical trials, and was authorised to give lectures, but was not yet admitted to the rank of an independent master or doctor. At a later period, it was introduced into the other faculties as the lowest academical honour, and adopted by the other universities of Europe. See DEGREES, UNIVERSITY. 5. It came to be used in its popular meaning of an unmarried man, who was thus regarded as a candidate or probationer for matrimony.

The legislation of almost every country, at some period of its history, has imposed penalties on male celibates or bachelors, on the principle that every citizen is bound to rear up legitimate children to the state. By the Jews, the command, 'Be fruitful and multiply,' was interpreted strictly, and every Hebrew regarded marriage as a duty. In Sparta, where the interests of the individual were entirely sunk in those of the state, criminal proceedings were authorised by the laws of Lycurgus not only against those who neglected to marry, but against those who, from marrying late in life, or any other cause, formed such alliances as rendered the procreation of healthy children unlikely. By the laws of Solon, celibacy was also treated as a crime, though the practice of interfering with the feelings of the individual in this respect early fell into desuetude at Athens. At Rome, penalties and disabilities were imposed on unmarried men from an early period, and latterly on unmarried women also. In the allotment of the Campanus lands, Julius Cæsar gave portions only to those who had three or more children; and in later times we have the *jus trium* (*quatuor et quinque*) *liberorum*. The most important provisions on this subject are contained in the law (or rather the laws, for it consisted of an act and an amended act) called Lex Julia et Papia Poppæa, the first portion of which belongs probably to 18 B.C., and the second portion to 9 A.D. In addition to various other provisions regarding marriage, this law imposed penalties on those who lived in a state of celibacy after a certain age. No unmarried person could take a legacy, whether of a portion or of the whole possessions of a deceased person, unless he complied with the law—i. e., got married within a hundred days from the testator's death. Widows were at first allowed a year from their husbands' death, and divorced women six months from the time of the divorce, before they came within the penalties of the law; and these periods were afterwards extended to two years, and a year and six months, respectively. The original provisions of the law did not apply to men beyond sixty, or women above fifty, but they were extended to them by subsequent enactments, and made perpetual even in case of their marrying. The *Senatûs consultum* passed in the time of Claudius, however, again exempted men above sixty who married wives under fifty, as from their unions it was supposed there was a fair prospect of issue. Childless married persons, moreover, from the ages of twenty-five to sixty in males, and twenty to fifty in females, were subject to the penalties of the *lex*, to the extent of losing one-half of any inheritance or legacy which might be bequeathed to them. The Lex Papia also contained a provision by which a candidate who had several children was preferred to one who had fewer; and various other premiums on fruitfulness were held out both at Rome and in the provinces.

In Britain, there are numerous instances of additional or higher taxes being imposed on bachelors and widowers, but apparently more with a view to the revenue than with any other object. Of this, 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 6, which was passed in 1695, and which granted to his majesty certain rates and duties upon marriages, births, and burials, and upon bachelors and widowers for five years, 'for carrying on the war against France with vigour,' is an instance; and another, probably, may be found in the higher charge for the servants of bachelors, first imposed by Mr Pitt in 1785, and continued for a considerable time. By 52 Geo. III. c. 93, unmarried daughters of persons alive were exempted from the tax upon hair-powder; and in the income-tax of 1798, deductions were made on account of children, 5 per cent. being allowed to a person who had a family, and whose income was above £60, and under £400 a year, corresponding deductions being made in other cases. Much might be said in favour of such distinctions, on the ground of expediency, as they enable the government to impose a higher taxation, by lessening the burden on those members of the community who are most likely to complain; but their recognition in practice would, no doubt, be regarded as impossible by the financiers of our day, who have hitherto failed to distinguish between income derived from realised property and from personal labour.

BA'CHELOR, KNIGHT (qu. *bas chevalier*), the lowest grade of knighthood, now only conferred in the United Kingdom. Originally, like all knight-

ary distinction, knighthood of this
to be often bestowed on civilians,
mes it has frequently been conferred
r service than carrying a congratu-
to court. It is generally conferred
gn by a verbal declaration accom-
a due imposition of the sword, and without
or instrument. The person who is to
honour kneels down before the sover-
ouches him on the shoulder with a naked
ing, in French: '*Sois chevalier au nom*
Be a knight in God's name), and then
e, Sir A. B.' In exceptional cases, persons
made Knights Bachelor by patent. The
ant of Ireland occasionally exercises a
ferring knighthood. See KNIGHT.

CCHI, MARIE-ANNE-ELISA BONAPARTE, sister of Napoleon Bonaparte, was born , Corsica, in 1777. When that island ed by the English, she, with her family, to Marseille. Here she married, at the , a countryman of her own, Captain The elevation of Napoleon raised her k and power; and in 1806, the princi- ss and Carrara was intrusted to her son, which was, on the whole, a bene- for the people. In 1809, she was made chess of Tuscany, and appointed as or over that country in Napoleon's the arbitrary measures of her brother, and to carry out, and her own self- harshness, rendered her anything but Her husband took no part in the govern- en the allies entered Tuscany in 1814, e had to leave Florence. She died, at nervous fever, in 1820.

in maritime language, has many techni- tions. To *back an anchor*, is to support anchor by a smaller one, in order to from loosening and coming home in bad o *back and fill*, is a mode of tacking when with a vessel, but the wind against her. *sails*, is so to arrange them as to make move astern or backwards; it is done ide or current is with the ship, and light nst her; and the manœuvre is useful to sions in narrow channels, to bring the particular position during naval engage- o keep ships well asunder when crowded To *back the main-topsail*, and analo- tions to other sails, is so to arrange a he speed of the ship's progress may be

SIR GEORGE, a well-known traveller in regions, was born at Stockport in 1796. early on a naval career, and accompa- lin and Richardson in their expedition h coast of America. He volunteered to ment to go in search of Captain Ross, apposed to have been lost in his attempt the North-west Passage; and his offer n accepted, he left London, February 17, on the 28th of June, started from se, a station of the Hudson Bay Com- is journey to the north. After passing winter with his companions at Slave iscovered, in 1834, Artillery Lake, and Fish River, or Back's River, which he o the Frozen Ocean. Being hindered from proceeding along the coast as far rn-again, he returned by the river; but e had received news of the return of ess, he continued his explorations in Sea, and did not return to England , when he was raised to the rank of post-captain for his services. In 1836 and 1837, he further explored the arctic shores in the interests of geography—the Geographical Society, in the latter year, bestowing its gold medal upon him. Two years afterwards, he was knighted, and he has since had a lucrative Treasury appointment. He attained flag rank in 1857, and that of admiral in 1867.

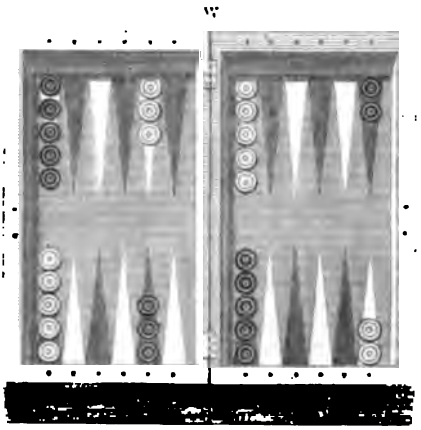
BACKERGU'NGE, a town of Bengal, situated on Backergunge Creek, an offset from the Ganges, in lat. 22° 33' N., and long. 90° 22' E.—125 miles to the east of Calcutta. Till supplanted by Burrisol, which is 12 miles to the north, it was the capital of the district of the same name.

BACKERGU'NGE, the district named from the foregoing town. It extends in N. lat. from 22° 2' to 23° 13', and in E. long. from 89° 49' to 91°, containing 5000 square miles, and 2,377,000 inhabitants, or about 480 inhabitants to a square mile. Like the rest of the great delta of Bengal, B. is of alluvial formation and level surface, being watered at once by the lower streams of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, and also by the various branches or offsets which interlace together those mighty rivers. In consequence of the great number of water-courses, which at once cool the atmosphere and drain the soil, the country is fertile, and the temperature is said never to rise above 88° in the shade. From the same cause, the district is independent of regular roads for intercourse and communication. In the season of high-water, as may be expected, inundations are common. To guard against them, the houses are built on mounds; while the corresponding excavations, like the natural 'water-holes' of Australia, serve as tanks against the effects of the dry season. As is often the case in alluvial regions, land-slips are frequent, and also the opening of new channels for the streams. The productions are rice, sugar, cotton, pulse, mustard, cocoa nut, betel-nut, mango, guava, plantains, limes, pine-apples, ginger, and turmeric. Buffaloes are said to be generally used instead of oxen, of which the domestic breed is small and poor.

BACKGA'MMON is the modern name of a game of considerable antiquity in England, where it was formerly known by the appellation of 'the tables.' The words *back-gammon* have been ascribed to the Welsh tongue, in which they are said to signify *little battle*; but Strutt, with greater plausibility, traces the term to the Saxon '*bac* and *gamen*—that is, back game—so denominated because the performance consists in the two players bringing their men back from their antagonist's tables into their own; or because the pieces are sometimes taken up and obliged to go back—that is, re-enter at the table they came from.' Whatever be the etymology of the term, the game has been long established in the country; and as a fireside amusement of a decorous nature, is a favourite among clergymen, squires, farmers, and retired professional persons.

B. is played with an apparatus consisting of a board or tables, men or pieces, dice, and dice-boxes. The introduction of dice into the game, and their constant use in determining moves, makes B. essentially a game of chance, and therefore brings two players of unequal talents nearer a level than other diversions in which skill is the sole or predominant element. The B. board consists of two parts or tables, generally united by a hinge in the middle, by which they can be shut up as a box. Each table possesses twelve points, six at each end. These points are coloured white and black alternately; but this variation of colour has no reference to the game, and is only done to make the points more easily counted. The game

is played by two parties, and with 30 pieces or men; each party has 15 men, one set of 15 being black, and the other white. In beginning the game, the men are placed on certain points on the tables, as shewn in the following figure. The game is played with two dice and two dice-boxes. The dice are common to both; but each party uses his own dice-box, and the throws are alternate. Each die is a perfect cube, marked on its sides with dots from 1 to 6. The 1 is called *ace;* the 2, *deuce;* the 3, *tre* or *trois;* the 4, *quatre;* the 5, *cinque;* and the 6, *size*. At every throw, the two dice are employed; consequently, a person may throw from 2 up to 12—that is, two *aces* up to two *sizes*. If a player throw *doublets*, or both dice of one number, double the number of dots is reckoned; thus, by a throw of two aces, the player does not count 2, but 4. These numbers thrown or accidentally turned up by the dice, bear a reference to the points on the tables. In order to understand this connection between the dice and the men, the learner must observe how the men are placed on the points, and the rules by which their shifting from one to another is governed.



The Backgammon Table.

The tables are here spread out as if two partners were seated, and about to begin to play. The party owning the white men is seated at W, and the party owning the black men at B. We shall call one party White, and another Black. White counts round from the ace-point of Black, and Black counts round from the ace-point of White. These ace-points are respectively seen to have two men upon them in opposite corners of the same table. The grand object of the game is for each party to get all his men played round into the table containing the aces, removing them from point to point agreeable to the throws of the dice. In throwing, the number upon each die turned up may be reckoned by it, or collectively, with the number on the other die. Thus, if quatre be thrown by one die, and size by the other, a man can be advanced 4 points, and another 6 points; or one man can be advanced 10 points, always providing that a point is open to suit this movement to it. No point can be moved to if covered by two men belonging to the adversary. If covered by only one man, which is called a *blot*, then that man can be hit, and be removed from the point, and placed on the bar between the tables, his place being taken by the man who has won it. The removal of a man to the bars throws a player considerably behind in the game, because the man must remain of the play till the dice turn up a number co sponding to one open point on the adversary's ta Being fortunate to get an open point by this me the man must be entered and wrought round fr thence, as in the case of others in the set to wh he belongs. The frequent occurrence of this hitt of a blot gives an adversary a great advantage, a allows him to win the gammon. There are t kinds of victory—winning the hit, and winn the gammon. The party who has played all men round into his own table, and by fortun throws of the dice has borne or played the m off the points first, wins the *hit*. The m be explained as follows: When you your men round to your own table, c point, and your adversary has a man o are enabled to *bear* or lift your men away, can bear all away, so as to clear your table be the adversary gets his man placed by a throw your table, you win the gammon. If the adversa has been able to bear one before you have bo all your men, it reduces the victory to a hit. hits are reckoned equal to one gammon in play matches. To win two games out of three is call winning the *rub*, as at whist.

BA'CKHUYSEN, Ludolph, one of the mo famous painters of the Dutch school, a mast in marine painting, was born at Emden in 163 His parents intended him for a commercial caree but he had not been long in a mercan in Amsterdam, to which he had been as u age of 18, before he resolved to devote painting, and with that object received from Evendingen, and attained, in a extraordinary skill and readiness in exec was a close student of nature; so much so the approach of a storm he often put to sea boat, in order to watch and sketch its effects, wh he transferred to canvas immediately on his ret home. His most famous picture is the sea-pie in the gallery at Paris, which he was c to paint by the magistrates of Amste which was, in 1665, sent as a presen XIV. In all his pictures, the utmost t prevails, at the same time that they emb poetry of the sea. His colouring is also After he was 71 years old, he began et copper. He also made attempts in poetry, gave lessons in writing, an art which he di to promote. He died, after long illness, in 17

BACK-STAYS are long ropes which extend the topmast-heads down to the sides of s where they are fastened in such a way as to the shrouds in supporting the masts. kinds are distinguished as *after-B., breast-s., travelling-stays.* One rope generally forms a pair B.; being looped in the middle to pass over t ast-head.

BACON (from a root in the Teutonic la which seems to be allied to the Lat. vacca Lat. *bacu*], a cow, and to have sig ed in general; *backe*, in Ger., signifies a wild sow; *bake*, in Dutch, a swine is the cured sides of a pig; while ba are the hind-legs cured. The mode of be described under Hams; and their as articles of food, under Pork.

BACON BEETLE. See Dermestes.

BACON, Sir Nicholas, the father of Bacon, was born in 1510, at Chiselhur He received an excellent education; gifted by nature with sound and practica he quickly prospered in the legal pro which he attached himself. At the

appointed solicitor to the Court of Aug-
ions; two years later, on the dissolution of
nasteries by Henry VIII., he had the courage
ent to that irascible monarch a reasonable
for applying the wealth which had been
d' from the church. It was this: that
al I employ a portion of it in founding
... the study of politics and diplomacy.
—stely, the king had already squandered it
n presents, and was unable to comply with
e suggestion of the young lawyer; but pro-
se remembered his good sense, for, in 1546,
advanced him to the office of Attorney of
urt of Wards, which he retained during the
f Edward VI.; but his Protestantism neces-
caused him to be deprived of all public
s and emoluments after the subsequent
e succession. On the death of Mary, how-
e was made a member of the Protestant part
Privy Council, by Queen Elizabeth; and
received at her hands the Great Seal. In
anning of 1559, he opened parliament with
ious speech on the difficult subject of a
d religion. He was also president of that
ly of ecclesiastical disputants which met in
minster two months later, to discuss the
of controversy between Protestants and
ics. In 1561, he suffered a temporary eclipse
favour, on account of the too patriotic
of his religion; but through the persever-
... of his old and constant friend, Sir William
e was at length restored to the sunshine in
he had been accustomed to bask. Elizabeth
ent the length of paying him a visit in 1577,
magnificent mansion of Gorhambury, in
rdshire. He died on the 20th of February
Sir Nicholas was one of those solid and
Englishmen to whose sagacity, high principle,
m demeanour his country owed its safety in
ritical period when Elizabeth mounted the

CON, FRANCIS, LORD VERULAM, VISCOUNT
BANS, born in London, January 22, 1561,
e son of Sir Nicholas Bacon (q. v.). His
r was the learned Anne Cooke. In early
ood, he manifested superior powers, and an
love of knowledge; his intelligence was so
ious, and his sedateness so remarkable, that
een took pleasure in calling him her 'young
Keeper.' At the age of thirteen, he was sent
university of Cambridge, which he quitted,
residence of three years, with a low opinion
course of study pursued there, and as well of
istotelian philosophy. On leaving the univer-
e went to Paris, in the suite of Sir Amias
, the English ambassador, and there occupied
f chiefly with statistics and diplomacy, the
of his studies and observation being a work,
ards published, *Of the State of Europe*. The
death of his father, about the end of 1579,
d him in 1580 to England, where, after fruit-
ure from the government a provision which
enable him to devote himself to science and
ure, he betook himself for several years to the
of law. His professional progress was at first
ow, and, contrary to what might have been
ed, it was long before he could turn promo-
the public service. This want of success,
ly owing to the hostility of his uncle, the
first minister, Lord Burleigh, who early
ed him as a dangerous rival to his own son,
d Burleigh and his son, R., in the hope of ad-
ment, had paid court till it was clear no favour
be expected from them, when he took him-
their rival, the Earl of Essex, whose friendship
edily won. But the earl's influence could not
counteract the continued opposition of the Cecils,
through whom he was defeated, in 1594, in an
attempt to obtain for B. the then vacant office of
attorney-general. What he could do for his friend,
however, he did, for shortly after this disappoint-
ment he presented him with an estate at Twickenham
worth £2000 a year. It is painful to relate that B.
repaid the generous friendship of his patron with
flagrant ingratitude. When Essex was subsequently
brought to trial for a conspiracy against the queen,
B. came forward as his accuser with tongue and pen;
he unnecessarily appeared as counsel against the
friend who had so largely obliged and confided in
him, and used all his great talents and ingenuity as
a pleader to magnify his crimes and secure their
punishment. B. was straitened at the time in his
circumstances, through his extravagant mode of life,
and, moreover, was anxious to conciliate the court,
whose anger he had provoked by having espoused the
popular cause on his first entering parliament as mem-
ber for Middlesex in 1593. But whatever the temp-
tation was, it cannot affect our opinion of conduct so
mean and immoral. It remains to be stated, that,
after the earl's execution, he wrote, at the request
of the queen, *A Declaration of the Practices and
Treasons Attempted and Committed by Robert Earl of
Essex*, which was printed by authority.

In 1550, B. obtained the post of Queen's Extra-
ordinary to the Queen, and a few years afterwards,
he entered parliament as member for Middle-
sex. It was not, however, till the reign of James I.
that he made rapid progress. He was knighted in
1603, and in the following year was appointed
salaried counsel to the crown; by 1613, he had
advanced to the office of Attorney-general, in which
he unconditionally subserved the purposes of the
court. His conduct as attorney, in attempting to
extort by the rack a confession of treason from an
old clergyman of the name of Peacham, has met with
universal and deserved condemnation. He did not,
however, cringe to the king and the royal favourite,
Villiers, except to good purpose. In 1617, he was
appointed Keeper of the Great Seal, and in 1619
attained the dignity of the Lord Chancellorship,
with the title of Lord Verulam. In the year follow-
ing, he was created Viscount St Albans.

Having attained the highest honours of the
state by truckling to the king and his favourite,
B. proceeded to abuse his judicial functions to
increase his revenues, which, great as they were,
were unequal to his extravagance. Though his
official income was great, and his marriage had been
enlarged by a marriage with the daughter of a
wealthy alderman, he could only support his style
of life by contracting debt and accepting bribes from
suitors. Nor was it only his only motive to false
judgments; he more than once pulled the stream
of justice, to maintain the favour of Buckingham.
By 1621, the state of the court had become so in-
dulgent as to call for a parliamentary inquiry, which
resulted in his making complete, from his own written
confession, of twenty-three acts of corruption. In
consequence, he was condemned to pay a fine of
£40,000, and to be confined in the Tower during
the king's pleasure; he was banished for life from
the court, and declared unfit to hold any office of
state, or to sit in parliament. The fine, however,
was remitted; the imprisonment lasted only two
days; he was allowed again to appear at court, and,
indeed, was summoned to sit in the very next par-
liament. Age, however, failing health, and perhaps
shame, prevented him from appearing. Banished
from public life, he henceforth devoted himself to
literature and science, enjoying from the government
a pension of £1200, and an annual income, in all, of
£2500. His mode of life still, however, continued

to be so prodigal and ostentatious that, at his death, in 1626, his debts amounted to upwards of £22,000. The immediate occasion of his death (as related by Aubrey, who probably got it from Hobbes, who was B.'s intimate friend) was cold caught in making an experiment to test the power of snow to preserve flesh. He died in the house of the Earl of Arundel, to which he had been removed with the fatal chill upon him which he had caught in the course of the experiment.

While, on the whole, the public life of Lord B. is marked by meanness and dishonour, his literary and scientific works are everywhere irradiated by the powerful light of an intellect which towered over those of other men. The first edition of his *Essays* appeared in 1597; his two books of the *Advancement of Learning* in 1605; his *Wisdom of the Ancients*—in Latin—in 1610; a third edition of his *Essays*, greatly extended, in 1612; his two books of the *Norum Organum*, or second part of the *Instauratio Magna*, designed to consist of six parts—also in Latin—in 1620; his *History of the Reign of Henry VII.*, in 1622; his nine books, *De Augmentis Scientiarum*—a Latin translation and extension of his *Advancement of Learning*—in 1623. Besides these, he wrote several minor works, which need not here be specially mentioned. It is enough to say that his writings embrace almost all subjects, from jurisprudence—which he treated not as a mere lawyer, but as a legislator and philosopher—to morality and medicine. The *Sermones Fideles* is a treasury of the deepest knowledge of human relations, conveyed in a gorgeous and energetic style. Almost the only science with which he was unacquainted was that of mathematics. Thus singularly gifted and accomplished, he appeared at a time when science, from a variety of causes, started on that progress which has never since been arrested. If it is now a question how far he contributed by his genius to that progress at its commencement, it is a fact that he was long vulgarly regarded by his countrymen as the father of Inductive Philosophy—as having been the inventor and first teacher of the method of interrogating nature by observation and experiment and inductive reasoning. Nor are his writings wanting in materials qualified *ex facie* to support his title to that eminence. His claim to the distinction, however, has of late been the subject of much controversy, the result of which is that it has been generally disallowed. But if it be true that he had a somewhat vague and imperfect apprehension of the philosophy of induction, overestimated the province of observation, and undervalued the use of deduction and hypothesis, and that even his classification of the sciences in the *De Augmentis*, on which his reputation long turned, has been properly superseded by the superior and better-reasoned classification of M. Comte; still it must be borne in mind that he was one of the first that was aware of the true character of the positive philosophy, and who understood its conditions, and foresaw its final supremacy; and as for his classification, that it was a marvellous effort of reason at a time when the sciences were in their infancy, and many of them were yet unborn. Also, it must be said, that if B. cannot be claimed by the physicists as the father of their science, and they must look rather to Galileo, yet he may fairly be claimed in that character by the students of man and society; for he was the first to aim at the extension of the methods of positive philosophy to moral and social conceptions. If recent criticisms have dethroned him from the position which for centuries he occupied in relation to the physical sciences, by shewing that neither his doctrines, experiments, nor writings have materially affected their course, it is only to leave him free to be placed in a position no less dignified in relation to human and social philosophy.

As a writer, B. presents us in combination an intellect at once one of the most capacious and profound that ever appeared among men—one of the most penetrating, one of the most far-reaching—and an imagination almost equally remarkable. In no other writer is so much profound thought to be found expressed in such splendid eloquence. 'If,' says Hallam (*Literature of Europe*, iii. 218), 'we compare what may be found in the sixth, seventh, and eighth books *De Augmentis*, in the *Essays*, the *History of Henry VII.*, and the various short treatises contained in his works on moral and political wisdom and on human nature, from experience of which all such wisdom is drawn, with the Rhetoric, Ethics, and Politics of Aristotle, or with the historians most celebrated for their deep insight into civil society and human character—with Thucydides, Tacitus, Philip de Comines, Machiavel, Davila, Hume—we shall, I think, find that one man may almost be compared with all of these together.'

The collected works and life of Lord B. were published by Mallet in 5 vols. (Lond. 1765); a good edition is that of Montague (16 vols., Lond. 1825–1834); but the best, it is generally admitted, is the last (5 vols., edited by Messrs Spedding, Ellis, and Heath, Lond. 1858). Montague's edition gave occasion to an able review of B.'s character by Lord Macaulay, to be found among his *Essays*. The *Encyclopædias Britannica* and *Metropolitana* contain valuable papers on his writings, on which also Sir John Herschel's *Preliminary Discourse* in *Lardner's Encyclopædia* may be consulted.

BA'CON, Roger, an English monk, who, through the force of his intellect, raised himself far above his age, made wonderful discoveries in several sciences, and contributed much to extend the then scanty knowledge of nature. He was descended of a respectable family, and born at Ilchester, in the county of Somerset, 1214. He studied at Oxford, and then at Paris, where he received the degree of Doctor in theology; and soon after his return home, he entered the order of the Franciscans, and settled at Oxford. Physics seems to have been at that time the chief object of his labours; and liberal friends of science supplied him with the means of pursuing his researches. In exploring the secrets of nature, he made discoveries and invented applications which were looked upon by the ignorant as the work of hellish magic. This prejudice was encouraged by the jealousy and hate with which his brother monks regarded his superiority. Besides, he loudly denounced the ignorance and immorality of the clergy, especially of the monks, and even wrote a letter to the pope, in which he represented to him the necessity of clerical reform. Out of revenge, an accusation was brought against him at the papal court, and the pope interdicted him from teaching in the university. He was shortly after imprisoned, forbidden all human intercourse, and hardly allowed sufficient food. Among the few clear-sighted men who admired Bacon's genius, and pitied his misfortunes, was the cardinal-bishop of Sabina, at that time papal legate in England. He desired to see Bacon's writings, but the interdiction of the Franciscans prevented a compliance with his wish. On his ascent to the papal throne as Clement IV., B. wrote to him, expressing his readiness to furnish him with whatever he desired, and Clement in reply repeated his request to see B.'s works, in defiance of the Franciscan prohibition. B. accordingly drew up his *Opus Majus* (edited by Jebb, 1733), which he sent, along with two other works, it is said, to the

pope, by his favourite pupil, John of London, and in which he represented the necessity of a reformation in the sciences through a diligent study of the languages and of nature. How Clement received them is not very well known; but they could only have reached him about the time he was seized with his last illness. For ten years after Clement's death, B. was free from open persecution at least. But in 1278, under Nicolas III., the general of the Franciscan order, Jerome of Esculo, declared himself against B., forbade the reading of his books, and issued an order for his imprisonment, which was sanctioned by the pope. This new imprisonment lasted ten years. When Jerome of Esculo became pope, under the name of Nicolas IV., B. sent him a *Treatise on the Means of warding off the Infirmities of Old Age* (Lat. Oxf. 1590; Eng., by Brown, 1683), with a view to convince him of the harmlessness and utility of his labours, but in vain. What the pope refused to the representations of the old philosopher, was yielded to the intercession of several influential English noblemen, and B. at last recovered his freedom. He returned to Oxford, wrote a compendium of theology, and shortly after died—according to some, in 1292, to others, in 1294.

B., although an extraordinary genius, could not rid himself of all the prejudices of his times. He believed in the philosopher's stone and in astrology. His chief invention is the magnifying-glass. There are also in his writings other new and ingenious views on optics; for example, on refraction, on the apparent magnitude of objects, on the great increase in the size of the sun and moon in the horizon. On other subjects, again, he fell into the greatest errors. He made several chemical discoveries which were wonders at that time. He knew, for instance, that with sulphur, saltpetre, and charcoal, we may imitate lightning, and produce explosions. Mathematics, applied to observation, he considered to be the only means of arriving at a knowledge of nature. He studied several languages, and wrote Latin with great elegance and clearness. Deserving of honourable mention are his discoveries of the errors that prevailed in the calendar, and his proposals and data for remedying them, in which he came very near the truth. He prepared a rectified calendar, of which a copy is preserved in the Oxford library. On account of his extensive knowledge, he received the name of 'Doctor mirabilis.' Several of his works have never been printed, and are preserved among the Cottonian manuscripts in the British Museum; some are to be found in French libraries.

BA'CON, JOHN, a distinguished statuary, was born in London, 1740, and died there August 7, 1799. He was at first a painter on porcelain, and only began to work in marble at the age of 23; yet in 1769 he received the first prize from the Royal Academy, of which he was soon after made a member. His statue of Mars first established his fame. Among his principal works are, two busts of George III., one in Christ Church College at Oxford, the other in the university library at Göttingen; the monuments of Lord Chatham in Westminster Abbey and in Guildhall; the statues of Howard and of Samuel Johnson in St Paul's, and that of Chatham at Oxford. B. was deficient in imagination, and had no refined perception of beauty.

BA'CSÁNYI, JANOS (pronounced Bat-shan-yi), a Hungarian writer and poet, was born May 11, 1763, at Nagy-Ida, in the circle of Szalader. After studying at Veszprim, Oedenburg, and Pesth, he became tutor to the son of General Orczy, and while thus employed published his first work, *The Valour of Women* (Pesth, 1785). He received the same year appointment in the finance department at Kaschau, and there, in conjunction with Baroti and Pazinczy, he began the *Magyar Museum* (Kaschau and Pesth, 1788–1792). In 1793, in consequence of a liberal poem, he was deprived of his office, and in 1794, having taken part in the conspiracy of Bishop Martinovich, he was carried to Spielberg, where he was confined till 1796. After recovering his freedom, he assisted in editing the *Magyar Minerva*, then came to Vienna, where he held an office in the bank, and married (1805) the German poetess, Gabrielle Baumgarten—an unhappy match. When the French entered Vienna in 1809, B. translated Napoleon's proclamation to the Hungarians, on which account he found himself afterwards obliged to take refuge in Paris. After the peace of Paris, he was given up, and had Linz assigned him as a compulsory residence, but was allowed to receive his French pension till his death. He died at Linz, May 12, 1845: the Hungarian Academy had in 1843 again elected the octogenarian a corresponding member. In the latter part of his life, B., besides other works, published his *Collected Poems* (Pesth, 1827; Ofen, 1835). We are also indebted to him for the collected edition of the poetical works of Anyos (Vienna, 1798) and of Faludi (Pesth, 1824).

BA'CTRIA, the ancient name of the imperfectly known land lying between the western part of the Hindu Kush mountains, and the river Oxus (Amu, or Gihon), which separated it from Sogdiana on the north and north-east. Its boundaries in early times cannot be precisely ascertained, but it is generally considered to have been identical with the modern Balkh (q. v.). B. is supposed to have been the seat of the parent-people from which the Aryan (q. v.) or Indo-European family of nations branched off. The ancient Bactrians of historic times were akin to the Medes and Persians, and used the Zend language. B. was originally the centre of a powerful kingdom, which extended itself over the east of Persia, but we have almost no record of its early greatness; we only know that Ninus, the Assyrian king, in spite of his vast army, found much difficulty in conquering it, and that when Arbaces besieged the last Assyrian king, Sardanapalus, in his metropolis, he was assisted by a large force of Bactrians. It is believed that the ancient Persian religion was first developed in Bactra or Zariaspa, the capital of B., which was the head-quarters of the Magi till the land was overrun by the Arabs, and a centre-point of the inland trade of Asia. The modern town of Balkh (q. v.) is built upon its site. Alexander, on his return from Persia, left in B. a colony of 14,000 Greeks, who here extended civilisation. After the death of Alexander, B. was annexed to the kingdom of Syria; but was raised to independence by its governor, Diodotus I., who founded the Greek kingdom of New B. about 256 B.C. The history of this kingdom was formerly little known, but has been recently elucidated by numerous Graeco-Bactrian coins found in the *topes* or burial-places of Afghanistan. These coins give the names of a series of kings, and bear indications of the political circumstances of the Greek kingdom of B. On those of Eucratides, a monarch who flourished in the age of Mithridates, there are found, beside the Greek characters, others which have been proved to belong to a dialect of the Sanscrit, and have been very happily deciphered by Mr Prinsep.

BA'CTRIS, a genus of Palms, of which nearly fifty species are known, all American. The leaves of some are pinnate, those of others entire. They are generally small palms, some of them very small, and with slender stems; that of *B. tenuis* is not thicker than a goose-quill. Some are spiny, and form thickets not easily traversed. *B. acanthocarpa*

is called TUCUM, near Bahia, and from it an extremely tough thread is obtained, which is used for making nets. *B. Maroja*, the MARAJA' palm, produces large clusters of fruit, resembling small grapes, with a thin pulp of an agreeable subacid flavour.

BACTRI'TES, a genus of fossil *Ammonitidæ*, with a straight shell, and indented but not ramified septa. Five species have been described, all from Devonian strata.

BA'CULITES, a genus of the family of *Ammonitidæ*, differing from the true *Ammonites* (q. v.) in the perfectly straight form of the shell, which tapers to a point, and is either round or compressed. The species, like the other Ammonitidæ, are all fossil. B. are characteristic of the upper chalk, and appear to have existed only towards the expiry of the period over which the existence of the Ammonitidæ extended.

Baculite.

BADA'GRY, a seaport town on the Gold Coast of Upper Guinea. Pop. 10,000. At one time it carried on a large trade in slaves with the Portuguese, who here established several factories. B. has a monarch, who is subject to the king of Katunga. It was from this place that Lander and Clapperton started on their expeditions to explore the African interior.

BADAJO'Z, called by the Romans Pax Augusta, and by the Moors Beledaix, i.e. 'Land of Health,' is the capital of the Spanish province of Estremadura. It is situated about five miles from the borders of Portugal, in a fruitful district on the left bank of the Guadiana, which is here crossed by a stone-bridge of 28 arches. It has 22,195 inhabitants, is a fortress of the first rank, the residence of a captain-general, and the see of a bishop, and has an old cathedral with a splendid organ, and paintings by Mateo Cerezo and Morales, who was born at B.; a brisk traffic, chiefly contraband, is carried on with Portugal. Its chief articles of manufacture are soap, coarse woollens, leather, and delft-ware. As one of the keys of Portugal, B. has often been a place of importance in war. It was besieged in vain by the Portuguese in 1660, and again by the allies, in the Spanish War of Succession, in 1705. During the French war, B. was besieged by the French in 1808 and in 1809, and again in 1811, when it surrendered, March 11, to Soult. It was thrice besieged by the English under Wellington: first on April 17, 1811, after the conquest of Olivenza, on which occasion, the approach of Soult to its relief caused the siege to be raised on the 14th of May; the second time, after the battles of Fuentes d'Onor and Albuera, the city was invested from May 27 to June 10, 1811, but still in vain. The third investment, March 17, 1812, ended in the taking of the city by storm, on the night of April 6, after a murderous contest, and a loss during the twenty days' siege, of 72 officers and 963 men killed, and 306 officers and 3483 men wounded. The garrison and their commander, General Philippon, became prisoners of war.

BADAKHSHA'N, or BUDUKHSHA'N, a territory of Central Asia, lying between 36° and 38° N. lat., and 69° and 73° E. long. B. lies between the chain of the Hindu Kush and the Oxus. It is drained by the Kokcha, a tributary of that river, and is famous throughout the East as a picturesque hill-country covered with woods, rich pasture, and fertile and well-cultivated valleys. Eastern travellers speak with rapture of its rich orchards, its fruits, flowers, and nightingales. In recent times no European traveller has visited it except Captain John Wood, who only saw it in the winter of 1838. The inhabitants are Tajiks, or an Aryan race speaking Persian and Turkee. They are Mohammedans—Sheas in the mountains, and Sunnas in the plains. Their number is estimated at 350,000. One of their chief occupations is man-stealing—their captives being chiefly Kafirs and Chitralis from the Indian side of the Hindu Kush. The people of B. seem to have been always under the immediate rule of their own chiefs, at the head of whom was 'the Mir.' They have generally, however, formed part of some great Asiatic empire. In the last century, B. formed part of the empire of Nadir Shah, after whose death it became subject to the Afghans. In 1823, however, the Uzbecks, under Murad Beg, taking advantage of the disturbed state of Afghanistan, defeated the tribes of B. in a pitched battle; and two years after, their subjection was completed. Their conquerors treated them most harshly, demolishing their towns, and either selling them as slaves, or carrying them off to people the unhealthy swamps of Kunduz. On the death of Murad in 1845, B. seems to have become for a time independent. The Afghans, however, soon reasserted their claims. In 1859, they conquered Kunduz, and were about to annex B., when the Mir agreed to pay an annual tribute. In 1863, Jehander Shah, the Mir of B., was superseded by Mir Mamud Shah, another of the royal family of B., supported by the Afghans. This gave rise to a struggle which had not terminated in December 1873.—B. is sometimes made to include Wakan, on the Upper Oxus, between B. Proper, and the Pamir Steppe (see BOLOR). It is a mountainous country, barren on the south and east. It is thinly peopled, and subject to B. Proper.—See Yule's *Marco Polo*; articles on Central Asia and Afghanistan in *Quarterly Review*, April 1873; and *Edinburgh Review*, July 1873.

BA'DDERLOCKS, or HEN'WARE (*Alaria esculenta*), a sea-weed (see ALOÆ, where a figure of it is given), of the sub-order *Fucaceæ*, growing on rocks in deep water on the shores of Britain, Iceland, and the northern parts of Europe. It has a stem 4—8 inches long, pinnated with a few short leaflets, which contain the seeds, and a membranous olive-green frond of 2—12 feet long, with a stout mid-rib. The frond being stripped off, the mid-rib forms an article of food to the inhabitants of the sea-coasts of Iceland, Denmark, Scotland, Ireland, &c. The thinner part of the frond is also sometimes eaten.

BA'DEN, THE GRAND DUCHY OF, is situated at the south-western extremity of the German Empire. With an area of 5900 square miles, it runs in the direction of the valley of the Upper Rhine and of the Black Forest, from the southern bend of the Main at Wertheim to the Bodensee or Lake of Constance, and is bounded on the N. by Bavaria and Hesse-Darmstadt; on the E. by Hohenzollern, Würtemberg, Bavaria; and on the W. and S. by the Rhine, which separates it from Rhenish Bavaria, Alsace, and Switzerland. It is divided politically into four circles—the circle of the 'Lake,' at the south, and the circles of the 'Upper Rhine,' of the 'Central Rhine,' and of the 'Lower Rhine;' these are again divided into 70 districts.

Surface and Hydrography.—Physically, B. falls into two divisions—the western plain, lying along the right bank of the Rhine, and the eastern highlands; the plain occupying about a fifth of the whole duchy, and the hilly part, four-fifths. Of the mountain-ranges, the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest, is the most prominent. See BLACK FOREST. For a distance of 96 miles, it belongs almost exclusively to

. It terminates in abrupt declivities towards
st, and on the east descends by degrees into
lateau of the Neckar in Wurtemberg. It
es in height from south to north, its mean
n being from about 4000 to 2700 feet,
cut up into sections by numerous deep and
romantic valleys. The most remarkable
its are Feldberg and Belchen in the south.
e elevated part of the mountainous division
which lies to the north of the Murg,
s the general name of the Neckar highlands,
as to its intersection by the Neckar valley,
north side of which the Odenwald begins.
d, in the circle of the 'Lake,' rise the
plateaus of the German Jura. This table-
known by the local name of the Randen.
plain of the 'Upper Rhine' between Alt-
h and Endingen, stands the small isolated
group of the Kaiserstuhl, or Emperor's
ising to the height of 1100 feet, and overlook-
Rhine.

e drained by the Rhine and the Danube,
to the basins of two opposite seas;
ent of the Danube, however, drain only
6 square miles in the northern part of the
of the Lake.' Beginning with the Bodensee,
projects three arms or bays on the north-
ato B., the Rhine, in its tumultuous course,
the south boundary, interrupted, however,
eral encroachments of the Swiss territories
north bank. From Basel to below Man-
stream is the only and natural boundary.
tributaries of the Rhine, on the B. side,
Neckar, the Kinzig, the Murg, the Elz, the
n, and the Pfinz. On the north-east the
territories are bounded by the Main, which
receives the Tauber. Except a part of the
ee, B. has no lake of importance. In the
rzwald, however, there are the following
of water which go by the name of lakes:
lsee, Wildsee, Feldsee, Titisee, and the
nnattweiher, with a floating island.

ate.—As the difference between the highest
west points of B. Feldberg, which rises to a
of 4892 feet, and Manheim amounts to some-
like 4500 feet, there is naturally a great
of climate, especially in respect of tempera-
The mean temperature of the plains may be
at 50°, and that of the highlands at 44
so that the Rhine valley of B. is one of the
st and most fruitful districts, not only of
ny, but of Europe; the land yielding often,
case of maize, a return of more than three
dfold. Walnuts, cherries, apples, and pears
n abundance, while the western terraces of
hwarzwald are decked with vines. On these
declivities, the walnut thrives at a height
feet, the grape at 1450 feet; other kinds
are cultivated in the higher regions to
vation of more than 2000 feet. The wild
is found even as high as 2600 feet; the
being profitably cultivated to at least an
eight. Oats rise as high even as 3600 feet,
which lie the exclusively pastoral districts.
it two-thirds of the population are engaged
cultivation of the land, which, as may be
d from the description, yields rich returns.
a of about 3280 square miles is occupied
and gardens, growing wheat, oats, rye,
ize, potatoes, pulse, and vegetables of
Tobacco, hemp, rape, opium, &c., yield a
evenue. Meadow land and pasturage occupy
fifth of the surface. An important branch of
tion is also the production of chestnuts, wal-
lmonds, &c. The quantity of wine produced
is, on an average, 14 million gallons. About
1790 square miles are under wood. The Schwarz-
wald is one of the most remarkable pine-forests of
Germany. There whole tracts may be seen of pines
of the height of from 160 to 180 feet, which are
exported to the Netherlands for ship-building. The
rearing of cattle is carried on to a large extent.
The several kinds of stock may amount to the
following numbers: horses, 73,200; asses, 700;
cattle, 481,000; sheep, 189,000; goats, 22,100;
swine, 480,000; making a total of 1,246,000 head of
animals, and representing a large amount of wealth.
Honey is also an important product, more than
74,000 bee-hives being kept in the duchy. Various
societies exist for improving the breed of horses and
perfecting agriculture.

Minerals.—The mineral wealth of the country
does not seem to be valued yet as it deserves, if we
may judge from the extent of mining operations
carried on; but the activity of the Mining Society at
Carlsruhe is yearly bringing this department of the
national industry more and more into a fitting
condition. Iron, lead, silver, copper, and salt are
among the chief productions; gold is extracted from
the sands of the Rhine, near Wittenweier, and
cobalt, sulphur, marble, and several kinds of precious
stones are found. B. is rich in mineral springs;
as many as 60 are enumerated, some sulphureous,
some chalybeate, and some acidulous. Hence there
are a great number of much frequented watering-
places, as Baden-Baden, Badenweiler, Griesbach,
Petersthal, &c.

Manufactures, &c.—The increasing activity in the
various branches of industrial art is testified by
the existence of over 400 large manufactories, with
from 50,000 to 60,000 hands, and a yearly produce
of from 18 to 20 million florins. The industrial
activity extends chiefly to the following articles:
ribbons and cotton fabrics, mostly at St Blasia;
toys and trinkets, and tobacco, which occupies the
first place; chicory, paper, cloth, leather, beer,
wooden clocks, and articles of straw; the last two
are characteristic of the Schwarzwald districts, and
known all over the world. The chief articles of
export are wine and timber, which last is sent almost
exclusively to the Netherlands, and brings in a sum
of at least 3 million florins (£250,000). The prin-
cipal imports are colonial goods, fruits, drugs, horses,
wool, cotton, silk-goods, iron, steel, and articles of
luxury. Money is reckoned in guldens or florins of
24 to the mark of silver, a florin being equal to 20*d.*
sterling. Weights and measures are divided accord-
ing to the decimal system.

Population, Religion, Education.—The population
of B., in 1871, amounted to 1,461,562, being an in-
crease of above 20,000 as compared with 1867.
With the exception of Jews, the inhabitants are
exclusively German. The dominant church is the
Roman Catholic, whose adherents, in 1871, num-
bered 942,560, or about two-thirds of the whole
population. Protestants numbered 491,008; Dis-
senters and Mennonites, 2265; and Jews, 12,475.
The school-system of B. is excellent; it offers the
means of instruction to every individual; and a
multitude of libraries, museums, and collections of
all sorts, are significant indications of the higher
elements of culture.

Government.—The sovereignty of the grand duchy,
which is strictly indivisible and inalienable, is here-
ditary in the eldest of the male line, and, failing
that, of the female. The heir-apparent is styled
Hereditary Grand Duke, and the other sons and
daughters are called Margraves and Margravines.
The sovereign is bound down by a parliamentary
constitution. The parliament, which meets regularly
every two years, consists of two chambers. The
first chamber consists of the princes of the grand-

ducal house, the heads of the seignorial families (seven princes and three counts), and of the nobility —on whom, when they possess hereditary property, under feudal tenure, to the value of 300,000 florins, the king confers the rank of the high nobility—the Catholic archbishop and the Protestant prelate, two representatives of the universities, and eight members chosen by the grand duke, without regard to rank or birth. The second chamber consists of 63 representatives chosen for eight years, 22 for the cities, and 41 for the country districts, giving one representative for about 21,540 inhabitants. As to the franchise, less regard has been paid in B. than elsewhere to the property qualification; every settled citizen and all state officials may take part in the nomination of electors, and may become electors; only representatives must either pay tax on a capital of 10,000 florins, or be in possession of an ecclesiastical or secular office bringing in at least 1500 florins. The highest deliberative and executive body in the country is the council of state. The grand-duke is its president, and it is divided, since 1870, into the ministries—(1) of the Grand Ducal House, of Justice, and of Foreign Affairs; (2) of the Interior; (3) of Commerce. The expenditure, according to the ordinary estimates for the united years 1872—1873, was 37,529,349 florins; the estimated net receipts for the same years just balancing the expenditure. In the receipts are comprised 2,926,950 florins, and 2,265,191 florins for 1872 and 1873 respectively, derived by the exchequer of B. from the French indemnity. There is a particular budget dealing with the finances of the railways, and the steamers on the Lake of Constance. 26½ millions of florins were added to the public debt of the country by the events of 1848 and 1849. The general debt of B. in 1873 amounted to 29,304,294 florins; that on the railways to 134,838,423 florins. The military affairs of B. are now exclusively regulated by the imperial power; the troops of B. form the major part of the fourteenth corps d'armée of the empire. The effective war-strength of the army in 1868 was 43,705; peace, 14,263. There exist three orders of knighthood, besides a medal for military service, and other decorations of merit. The capital and residence of the sovereign is Carlsruhe; the capitals of the four 'circles' are Constanz, Freiburg, Carlsruhe (formerly Rastadt), and Mannheim.

History.—The original inhabitants of B. were Alemanni. These fell under the dominion of the Franks, the conquerors of Gaul, and submitted at the same time to the Christian religion. Under their duke, Gottfried, they made repeated attempts to regain their independence, but in vain; and the dukedom of the Alemanni was abolished in 748 by Pepin the Little. In the 11th c., a Duke Berthold, said to have been a descendant of the Alemannian Gottfried, built the castle of Zähringen in Breisgau, and with him begins the unbroken line of the princes of the House of Zähringen. A descendant of his second son took the title of Margrave of B., and became the ancestor of the still flourishing House of Baden. He died in 1130. The history of this House presents, for long, little else but a succession of partitions of the territories among brothers, to be again and again reunited by one or other of the collateral branches becoming extinct. The prosperity of the country was thus greatly retarded. The present capital, Carlsruhe, was built in 1715 by the reigning count, Charles III. It is to his grandson, Charles Frederic, who succeeded in 1746, that B. owes considerable accessions of territory and political importance. By favouring the policy of Napoleon, and joining the Confederation of the Rhine, he doubled his possessions in extent and population, and acquired successively the dignity of elector and the title of grand duke. In 1811 he was succeeded by his grandson, Charles Ludwig Frederic, who, five years before, had married Stephanie Louise Adrienne Napoleone, an adopted daughter of Napoleon. After the battle of Leipsic, Charles Ludwig seceded from the Confederation of the Rhine, and (1815) joined the German Confederation, in which B. holds the seventh rank.

The original constitutions or 'states' of the separate territories composing the grand duchy having mostly become extinct, the Grand Duke Charles granted (1818) the charter which forms the basis of the present constitution. Charles was succeeded in the same year by his uncle Ludwig, who was inclined to absolutism, and had to contend at first with a powerful opposition, which led him frequently to dissolve the Chambers. He succeeded, in 1825, in carrying through an alteration of the constitution, extending the duration of the parliaments; after which the government and the Chambers acted more harmoniously. Ludwig dying childless (1830), was succeeded by his brother Leopold. The known liberal tendencies of this prince promised at first a new life to constitutional government; but the tide of reaction, become strong since the fall of Warsaw, soon seized the government, and the act establishing the freedom of the press, which in 1831 had been hailed with delight by B. and the whole of Germany, was, in 1832, declared impracticable and abrogated. A fluctuating contest between a reactionary government and a growing opposition was carried on till 1846, when the constitutional Bekk was made minister of the interior, and liberalism thus placed at the helm. The first effect was to calm the public mind, and to cause a split between the liberals and the radicals. The ninth parliament met (December 1847) under the most friendly and promising auspices; when the French revolution (February 1848), the vibrations of which were first felt by B., suddenly called the radical party into the most violent activity. Not satisfied with a multitude of liberal measures passed by the legislature, the revolutionary leaders, Hecker and Struve, aimed at establishing a republic, and stirred up an insurrection. The troops having sided with the insurgents, the grand duke fled, and a Constituent Assembly was called (May 1849). The duke had recourse to Prussian aid, and after several battles, was reinstated on his throne (July 1849). The restoration was followed by some thirty executions, consisting chiefly of soldiers that had borne arms against the government, and of a few political leaders. Upon the whole, the reactionary tendency has been less marked in B. than in most other German states, and many valuable reforms effected in 1848 have been retained. See GERMANY, in SUPPLEMENT.

BA'DEN, a town and fashionable watering-place in the canton of Aargau, Switzerland, is situated on the left bank of the Limmat. It has a population of 3412. It is of ancient date, being known to the Romans as *Thermæ Helveticæ*. The temperature of the baths is as high as 117° Fahrenheit. B., from the 15th to the beginning of the 18th c., was the seat of the Swiss diet.

BA'DEN-BADEN, a town in the grand duchy of Baden, situated in a pleasant valley at the base of the Black Forest. It contains (1871) 10,083 inhabitants; but its visitors during the season, which is at its height in July and August, are often double the number of the settled population. It is chiefly celebrated for its medicinal springs, which were known in the time of the Romans. B. having been a fashionable place of resort so early as the days of Antoninus and Aurelius, numerous Roman

have been found in the neighbourhood, and ed in a museum here. There are several a saline character, varying in tempera- 117° to 154° F. These springs are impreg- iron, magnesia, and lime, with sulphuric ic acid, and are especially recommended cutaneous diseases, gout, rheumatism, &c. spring discharges in 24 hours about 4200 of water. The gaming-tables of B., the wned in Europe, were closed with the licensed German gaming-houses in 1872.

BEI WIEN (i.e., 'Baden near Vienna'), quented watering-place of Lower Austria, en miles S.S.W. of Vienna. It was the *nonia* or *Cetiæ* of the Romans, and is s for its warm mineral springs, which nted during the season by from 12,000 persons chiefly from the Austrian capital. rature varies from 90° to about 99° F. are frequented by persons of both sexes, e bath, promenade arm in arm. Many strian nobility have palaces here. The valk in the neighbourhood is along the alley, the Helenenthal. Pop. 5847.

BOCH, a Highland district in the south- of Inverness-shire, 30 miles long by 15 nded by Lochaber, Athole, Braemar, and nd traversed by the Spey. It is much ith forest, and is chiefly composed of , with a little granite. It was a lordship, g the 13th c. by the eldest branch of the se of Cumyn, on whose forfeiture Bruce it on his nephew Randolph. In 1371, ert II. gave it to his son, 'the Wolf of ' on the failure of whose descendants it the crown, which, about 1456, granted it l of Huntly.

**, the term by which, in general, all decorations and special cognizances are badges are either conferred by the state n, or assumed by the individual for pur- istinction, the former class having very had their origin in the latter. Of badges by public authority, for the purpose of exertion, and gratifying honourable ambi- rous instances are to be met with in every world. The garter of the English knight, fleece of the Spanish grandee, and the the Chinese mandarin, will occur as fami- les. To the same class belong not only nd crosses with which princes and other rank are adorned in this country, and to er extent on the continent, but the medal ivate soldier, and even those not less decorations which are now frequently by private societies for acts of voluntary h as the medal given by the Humane saving from drowning. Amongst the e of the most usual emblems of authority l ring, which was worn generally on the ger. A ring of this description was the senatorial and magisterial dignity, and knighthood at Rome; iron rings, during period, at all events, having been used by izens. The right of wearing a gold ring *i aurei*) was gradually extended, till at tinian conferred it on all the citizens of e. In the early times of the republic, assadors were sent to foreign states, they ished with gold rings, which they wore ir mission as badges of authority. From eriod, every freeman in Greece appears to a ring, though the custom, not being men- Homer, can scarcely have belonged to the riod of the history of that people, and is commonly supposed to have been of Asiatic origin. Rings are often mentioned in Scripture as badges of authority both amongst the Jews and other oriental nations. We read of Pharaoh taking off his ring and putting it on Joseph's hand, as a token of the power which he committed to him (Gen. xli. 42); and still earlier (Gen. xxxviii. 18), Judah left his signet with Tamar as a pledge. In the New Testament, rings are spoken of rather as marks of wealth and luxury than as badges of official rank; e.g., James ii. 2, and Luke xv. 22, where, on the return of the prodigal son, the father ordered that a ring should be put on his finger. As to the workmanship and materials of ancient rings, see RING, SIGNET, &c. Of badges assumed for the purpose of distinction, none are more famous than the white and red roses of York and Lancaster. Henry VII. combined these two emblems, first carrying a rose per pale, white and red, and afterwards placing the white rose within the red one. One of Queen Elizabeth's badges was a golden falcon perched on the stump of a tree between two growing branches of white and red roses, a B. which is said to have been given to her mother, Anne Boleyn, by Henry VIII. The *bear and ragged staff*, which still exists as a sign in London, was the B. of the great Earl of Warwick. The *white hart* and *silver swan*, which are frequently met with as signs to inns, have a similar origin, the first having been the B. of Richard II., and the second having belonged to the House of Lancaster. The *garb and sickle*, the B. of the

Garb and Sickle.

Hungerfords, is another very beautiful and less common example of the same class of badges. Different countries have also distinctive badges, generally connected with the history either of the actual ruling or of some former dynasty. Of these, the *fleur de lis* of France (represented in the accompanying engraving of the seal of Louis VII.), and the other badges, for which it from time to time makes way—viz., the cap of liberty and other emblems of republicanism, the eagles of the Empire, borrowed from Rome, and the bees and other insignia which the Bonaparte family have assumed, may all be taken as examples.

Fleur de lis of Louis VII.

B. of England.—The present B. of England is a rose white and red, ensigned with the royal crown. The initials V. R., ensigned with a crown, which are used on military accoutrements, is also a species of national badge.

B. of Scotland is a thistle ensigned with a royal crown.

B. of Ireland.—Ireland has two national badges—the golden harp and the trefoil, both of which are carried ensigned with the royal crown.

The three badges of England, Scotland, and Ireland, carried conjoined, may be seen under any representation of the royal arms.

B. of Wales is a dragon passant, wings elevated, gules, on a mount vert.

B. of Ulster is on a shield or canton, *or*, a sinister hand erect and apaumée, *gu.* This B., which is popularly known as 'the bloody hand,' is borne in the paternal coats of English baronets.

B. of Nova Scotia, which is borne by the Nova Scotia baronets, is, *or*, a saltire *azure*, thereon an escutcheon of the arms of Scotland, and ensigned with an imperial crown, the motto being, *Fax mentis honestæ gloria.*

One of the oldest and most celebrated badges in existence is the so-called jewel of King Alfred. For

Alfred's Jewel.

An ornament of gold, apparently intended to hang round the neck, found in Athelney, and now in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford. The inscription on the side here represented, around the female figure holding flowers, is 'Aelfred me haet gewercan' (Alfred had me wrought). On the other side is a flower. The workmanship is in a good style.

the badges of the different orders of knighthood, see their respective titles.

BA'DGER (*Meles*), a genus of quadrupeds of the Bear family or *Ursidæ* (see BEAR), and included by Linnæus in the genus *Ursus* or Bear, but forming a sort of connecting-link between this family and the *Mustelidæ* or Weasel and Otter family. To the Skunks (q. v.), which are ranked in that family, the badgers have a particularly strong resemblance, and their dentition and habits are almost the same. The dentition of badgers differs from that of bears chiefly in the large size of the tuberculous molar teeth at the bottom of each jaw, shewing a still greater adaptation to vegetable food. Badgers, like the rest of the family to which they belong, are plantigrade, i. e., they walk on the whole sole of the foot, and not merely on the fore part of it. The body is thus brought nearer to the ground than it otherwise would be from their length of limb. The head is long, with a pointed muzzle, the tail short, the skin very thick and tough, the hair long. The gait is slow, the habits nocturnal and solitary. There are five toes on each, both of the fore and hind feet, and the feet are peculiarly adapted for digging and burrowing. A peculiar characteristic of the badgers, not found in any other quadrupeds of the same family, is the possession of a bag, beneath the tail, for the secretion of a peculiar substance, of a disagreeable odour, which is supposed to be of use in directing the sexes to each other in their solitary wanderings.—The common B. (*M. Taxus* or *M. vulgaris*) is the only quadruped of the Bear family now found in the British islands. It is widely diffused over Europe and the middle parts

Badger.

of Asia. It is grayish brown above, and black beneath; the head white, with a longitudinal black band on each side; the body long but robust, in size about equal to that of a small fox, the hair coarse and reaching to the ground as the animal walks. The average length is 2 feet 6 inches, and the height at the shoulder 11 inches. It haunts the gloomy recesses of woods, or thick coppices on the sides of hills, and digs for itself 'a deep and well-formed domicile, consisting of more than one apartment, the single entrance to which is by a deep, oblique, and even tortuous excavation.' The innermost chamber is circular, and lined with grass and hay. The B. makes use of its nose in digging, scrapes with the fore-paws, flinging the earth as far back by them as possible, and when the accumulation is considerable, pushes it away by means of the hind-feet. The B. is extremely cleanly in its habits. It is one of the most perfectly omnivorous of animals, in a wild state as well as in confinement; fruits, roots, beech-mast, eggs, young birds, small quadrupeds, frogs, snails, worms, and insects, equally constitute its natural food. It has been known to visit a garden for strawberries. It is also fond of honey, and of the larvæ of wasps and wild bees, for the sake of which it digs up their nests, its hide being impervious to their stings. It is often caught by placing a sack in the mouth of its hole, when it is out at night; dogs are then sent into the wood to alarm it, upon which it flees to its hole. Dogs sent into the hole are often foiled by earth which the B. throws back upon them, to block up their way, nor is it easy for a dog to contend with it, owing to its great strength, and particularly the strength of its jaws. A barbarous sport was formerly, and to some extent still is practised, called B.-baiting, or *drawing the badger.* A badger kept in a barrel was assailed by dogs, and at last, yielding to superior numbers, was dragged out, upon which it was released, and allowed to go back to its den, to recover itself, and be baited again, which happened several times daily, when the B. was kept as an attraction to a public-house of the lowest sort. The verb to *badger*, expressive of persevering annoyance by numerous assailants,

riginally employed with reference to the
e of B.-baiting. The flesh of the B. is said
very agreeable, particularly when cured in
m of hams. It is much used in China. The
easily domesticated when taken young, and
es very familiar. In Scotland and the north
gland, a B. is still called a *Brock*, its Anglo-
name; and in some parts of England it is
l a *Grey*, from which some derive greyhound.

Balysaur of India, also called the Sand
and Indian B. (*M. collaris*), very much
les the common B., but is taller, and has a
og-like muzzle, and a longer tail. Its habits
d food are similar to those of the common
l when attacked, it defends itself with great
. It is chiefly found in hilly districts.—The
can B. (*M. Labradorica*) was at first supposed
a mere variety of the European B., but has
l to be very distinct, so that it has been
ed by some naturalists as worthy of a separate
(*Taxidea*), and is sometimes called *Tarel*.
ith are more adapted than those of the B.
on subsistence, and it chiefly preys on
, such as marmots, which it pursues
ous modes in the sandy plains near the Missouri
e Rocky Mountains. It is in that region that
unds, over a considerable range of latitude,
is not known to exist in Labrador, so that
cific name is perhaps the perpetuation of an
In its pursuit of the smaller quadrupeds
which it preys, it enlarges their burrows, and
s some parts of the plains dangerous to
s on horseback. Its prevailing colour is
gray in winter, yellowish brown in summer,
der parts generally yellowish white; a white
runs from the nose over the forehead to the
The hair becomes not only very long but
in winter.—The burrowing powers of this
are extraordinary. It sometimes makes
rs six or seven feet deep, running under
l to a length of 30 feet.

DI'A-Y-LEBLICH, Domingo, known also by
Ali-Bei-el-Abbassi, one of the most enter-
, as modern travellers, was born at Barcelona,
1, 1767. He studied the Arabic language,
lso physical science and mathematics at
ia. Possessed of a lively and restless spirit,
med the project of visiting Africa and Asia,
the disguise of a Mussulman, both for the pur-
f avoiding the suspicions of the natives when
g those places forbidden to Christians, and
or giving greater *éclat* to his adventures. In
nce of this scheme, therefore, he resigned an
under government in the year 1797, and went
drid, to make proposals of a scientific and
atile tour of exploration in Africa. Having
promises of support from Don Godoi, the
of Peace, he betook himself for a short time
ndon, to study commerce and politics. He
pared no labour to make himself familiar
the manners and customs of the people
about to visit; and in his anxiety to
detection, he even ventured to undergo
vere ordeal of circumcision. In 1803, he
for Africa, where he represented himself,
the name Ali-Bei, as a descendant from the
ides. His tact and talents gained for him
steem that he was invited to the court of
mperor of Fez and Morocco. After a two
residence in Morocco, he set out on a pilgrim-
o Mecca in 1805, and after sojourning some
Tripoli, Cyprus, and Egypt, arrived at the
ce in 1807, being the first Christian that had
it since the institution of Islam. Subse-
y, he visited Jerusalem and the chief places in
ine and Syria, and in the autumn of 1807
arrived at Constantinople, whence he had soon to
flee, the reality of his Mohammedanism being sus-
pected. After his return to Spain, he was made
Intendant of Segovia and Prefect of Cordova; but
the easy way in which he shelved his patriotism, and
submitted to the French conquerors, was fatal to
his prospects, for, on the expulsion of the latter, he
was compelled to leave the country. He went to
Paris, where, in 1814, he published an account of
his travels under the title *Voyages d'Ali-Bei en
Afrique et en Asie pendant les Années* 1803 *à* 1807.
His work was translated into most of the European
languages. Four years after the publication, B. set
off on another journey to the East, but died sud-
denly at Aleppo on the 30th of August 1818. The
Pacha of Damascus seized his papers, so that his
second enterprise has been without results for
Europe.

BAEL or BHEL. See Aegle.

BAENA, a town in the province of Cordova, Spain,
of about 12,000 inhabitants. It is situated about 24
miles south-south-east from Cordova, on the river
Marbella, and carries on a considerable export and
inland trade, chiefly in grain and oil. B. was a
Roman town; and a Roman sepulchre was dis-
covered here in 1833.

BAER, Karl Ernst Von, a distinguished Rus-
sian naturalist, was born February 17, 1792, in
Esthonia. During 1810–1814, he studied medicine
at the university of Dorpat, but convinced that
Russia as it then was presented very few advan-
tages for the acquisition of scientific knowledge,
he went to Germany in 1814, where he studied com-
parative anatomy under Dollinger in Würzburg.
He also made the acquaintance of Professor Nees of
Esenbeck, who exercised a considerable influence
over him. In 1817, he went to Konigsberg, where,
two years after, he was appointed professor of
zoology, and charged with the organisation of the
zoological museum. In 1834, he was called to St
Petersburg, where he continues to be one of the
most important members of the Academy, and
has obtained several honorary distinctions. As a
naturalist, he has specially occupied himself with
the difficult subject of embryology; and to his
laborious investigations we owe several most valu-
able discoveries in regard to the development of
organic bodies. Beginning with his *Epistola de
Ovi Mammalium et Hominis Genesi* (Leip. 1827),
he still further elucidated this subject in his
History of Animal Development (Königsberg, 1828
1837) and *History of the Development of Fishes*
(Leip. 1835). After his return to St Petersburg,
he made the polar regions the objects of his
study. Setting out (1837), by order of the czar,
from St Petersburg on his voyage of exploration,
he examined carefully the northern shores of Russia,
and published a minute description of these and of
their peculiar animals and plants. In 1856 appeared
his *Reflections on the Russian Empire and the Neigh-
bouring Countries of Asia*. In 1864, the fiftieth year
of his doctorate was celebrated by the Esthonian
nobility, at whose expense a splendid volume was
published, containing B.'s autobiography.

BAEZA, a handsome old town of Spain, in the
province of Jaen, from the capital city of which it
is about 22 miles distant in a north-east direction.
Pop. about 12,000. It was here that the younger
Scipio routed Asdrubal with immense loss, taking
10,000 Spaniards prisoners. It was a flourishing city
under the Moors, several of whose caliphs and
kings resided here, but it never fairly recovered its
sack by St Ferdinand in the 13th c. Gaspar
Becerra, the celebrated sculptor, was born here in
1720; but B. is chiefly proud of being the birthplace

of the 11,000 virgins, usually named of Cologne. Its principal buildings are the university, the old monastery of St Philip de Neri, the cathedral, and the Jesuits' college. B. has manufactures of leather.

BA'FFA, the *Paphos* of ancient times, a seaport town on the south-west coast of the island of Cyprus. It has now fallen much into decay, and has but a small population, who trade in cotton, silk, and grain; but under the Venetian rule, it was a place of considerable importance. The present town occupies the site of New Paphos, which, under the Romans, was a beautiful city, full of fine temples and other public buildings. The Old Paphos, famous as the place where Venus landed immediately after her birth from the foam, and as her favourite residence, stood a little to the south-east. A hundred altars were here erected to her name, to which numerous worshippers, male and female, from New Paphos, trooped annually to pay their devotions. An earthquake in the time of Augustus destroyed the Roman Paphos, but it was rebuilt soon afterwards. The Roman deputy-governor, Sergius Paulus, was here converted by St Paul.

BA'FFIN'S BAY, a gulf, or rather sea, on the north-east coast of North America, extending between that continent and Greenland. Lat. 68° to 78° N., and long. 51° to 80° E. It is about 800 miles long, with an average breadth of 280. Its greatest depth is 6890 feet. The tides do not rise more than 10 feet. The currents are generally towards the south, though recent investigations would seem to shew that on the east side of Davis' Strait and B. B. a current from Spitzbergen flows northwards round Cape Farewell. The shores are for the most part lofty and precipitous, backed by ranges of snow-clad mountains. The prevailing rocks are granite and gneiss; the principal animals inhabiting the coasts are, on land, bears, black foxes, and hares; in the sea, the black whale, walrus, and seal, gulls, ducks, and other sea-fowls. The south shore of Whale Sound on the east coast in lat. 77° 20′ N. was found by Captain Inglefield in 1852 to be inhabited. There are Danish settlements on Disco and Whale Islands. B. B. communicates with the Atlantic Ocean by Davis' Strait; and with the Arctic Ocean by Smith Sound on the north, and Lancaster Sound on the west. Wellington Strait, which forms the north-west outlet of Lancaster Sound, was entered in 1852 by Sir E. Belcher. B. B. was first explored in 1616 by William Baffin, after whom it was called, and who was pilot of the expedition, which was commanded by Bylot. Baffin's title to this honour seems to have been most faithfully earned; and the accuracy of his observations and descriptions has been confirmed by subsequent navigators. Whale and seal fishing are prosecuted to a large extent in B. B., which, on account of ice, is only navigable for some two months in summer.

BAGASSE, CA'NE-STRAW, or **CA'NE-TRASH**, is the refuse matter obtained during the expression of the saccharine juice from the sugar-cane. In the manufacture of sugar (q. v.), the sugar-canes, in lengths of 3 to 4 feet, are passed between heavy rollers, which only partly squeeze out the juice, and yield the bruised canes, or B., still retaining a large percentage (usually about 18) of sugar.—The only use to which the B. is put is as fuel in the heating of the boilers and pans in the sugar-manufactory. The improved apparatus introduced of late years has done much to save the large amount of sugar wasted in the B. and in other parts of the process, which at one time amounted to not less than one-half of the entire quantity of sugar in the sugar-cane.

BAGATE'LLE (Fr. signifying primarily any trifle), the name of a game somewhat resembling billiards. A bagatelle-table is usually about 7 feet long and 21 inches broad; it is lined with cloth, and a game is performed on it with balls and a cue or mace. The balls are small ivory spheres, and the sport consists in striking one or more into holes at one end of the board. To perform this and other feats, some skill and experience are required, and the sport is far from unamusing in a cheerful parlour circle. Of late years, bagatelle-tables have become very common in the houses of the middle classes of society; they possess the recommendation of being purchasable at a small expense.

BAGDA'D, the name of a town and pachalic in the south-east of Asiatic Turkey. The pachalic extends from lat. 30° to 38° N., and from long. 40° to 48° E.; and is bounded on the N. by the pachalics of Diarbekir and Van; on the W. and S., by Syria and Arabia; and on the E., by Persia; while at its south-east extremity lies the Persian Gulf. Extreme length, 550 miles; breadth, 350. Pop. 2,000,000. It is watered by the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, which unite their streams at the town of Kurna, in lat. 31° N., and long. 47° E. The pachalic of B. is usually divided into three parts. 1. That east of the Tigris, comprehending the districts of *Khuzistan* (anciently, *Susiana*) and *Kurdistan* (part of ancient Assyria), the former of which is rich in grain and fruit. 2. That west of the Euphrates, a sterile waste, losing itself at last in the great Syro-Arabian desert. 3. That between the two rivers, the northern portion of which is known under the name of *Algezirah*, or 'the Island' (anciently, *Mesopotamia*), and the southern under that of *Irak-Arabi* (anciently, *Babylonia* and *Chaldea*). The last of these divisions, though now a barren wilderness, was in ancient times luxuriantly fertile, the seat of mighty empires, and inhabited by industrious populations. The barbarous misgovernment and wretched incapacity of the Turks have reduced it to its present condition. The pachalic produces, in the better-cultivated districts, crops of rice, wheat, maize, barley, with some hemp, flax, tobacco, &c., while dates are brought to great perfection. The chief wild animals are lions — not numerous — hyænas, jackals, wolves, gazelles, ostriches; the chief domestic ones are horses, asses, mules, buffaloes, camels, and dromedaries. The inhabitants are composed of Turkomans, Armenians, Turks, Jews, Arabs, and Kurds; the last two of which races are notorious for their open and audacious depredations, their mutual wars, and their utter contempt for the authority attempted to be exercised over them. Principal cities—Bagdad, Bassora, and Mosul. For a description of the cities which in ancient times adorned this region, see ASSYRIA, BABYLON, NINEVEH, CTESIPHON, SELEUCIA, &c.

BAGDA'D, the capital of the pachalic of the same name, is situated on both banks of the Tigris, in lat. 33° 20′ N., and long. 44° 23′ E. Pop. estimated at 40,000. The city is surrounded by a brick-wall, 5 miles in circumference; the two parts are connected by a bridge of boats, and the communication is guarded by a citadel. It has an extremely picturesque appearance from the outside, being encircled and interspersed with groves of date-trees, through which one may catch the gleam of domes and minarets; but it does not improve on closer inspection. The streets are narrow, crooked, unpaved, and dirty, full of ruts, and strewed with dead carcasses, which, however, are for the most part removed by dogs, the only public scavengers in the east. The exterior of the

dual houses corresponds with the repulsive
of the streets. They have, in general, no
ws towards the front, and are built of old
; but their interior is often very gorgeously
ted. The vaulted ceilings, rich mouldings,
mirrors, and massive gilding, bring back to
collection of the traveller 'the golden time
d Harun Al-Raschid.' B. contains upwards
ques. These, together with the khans,
, and the palace of the governor, are the
oticeable buildings in the city. The domes
narets are said to be finer than those of
antinople, and are beautifully painted. The
s exhibit the produce of both Turkish and
can markets; but commerce has greatly
sed since Persia began to trade with Europe
y of Trebizonde on the north, and by the
n Gulf on the south. Nevertheless, though no
the chief emporium of merchandise between
and West Asia, as in the middle ages of
can history, and though Kurds and Arabs lurk
the roads that lead from the city to waylay
b travellers and caravans, B. still carries on a
erable traffic with Aleppo and Damascus, and
anufactures of red and yellow leather, silks,
otton-stuffs. Of the 40,000 inhabitants, the
r part are Turks and Arabs; the remainder
ws, Armenians, Hindus, Afghans, and Persians.
mmer, the heat is oppressive; rain does not
more than twenty or thirty days throughout
hole year; but when the snows melt on the
sian hills, the Tigris becomes a majestic, and
a destructive river. In 1831, an inundation
ved one half of the town, and several thou-
lives. The plague visits it periodically once
ten years. In 1831, 4000 people perished
for several days from its ravages! B. is
ntly chosen by Mohammedans of the Shiah
as a permanent place of residence. Several
ers now ply on the Tigris to and from B.; and
is one of the chief stations of the Anglo-
telegraph.

ras founded by the Abbaside calif Almansur,
766 A.D. It was built out of the ruins of
hon and Seleucia. In the 9th c., it was
y enlarged by Harun Al-Raschid, who erected
ous edifices on the east side of the Tigris, and
cted its two banks by a bridge of boats. The
, built for himself, and the tomb of his
ite wife, Zobeide, are said to have been of
rdinary splendour. A hundred years later,
s ravaged by the Turks. In 1253, the grand-
f Genghis Khan, Hulaku, put an end to the
alifate; but the descendants of this Tatar
eror were expelled by Timur, who took the
1393. After several vicissitudes, it remained
e possession of a Turkoman chief, whose
ty governed until 1470. In the beginning of
6th c., Shah Ismael, the founder of the Suffide
ty in Persia, made himself master of it; since
period it has repeatedly been a bone of
ntion between Turks and Persians. After a
rably obstinate siege, it was conquered by
ltan, Murad IV., in 1638. Nadir Shah vainly
ed to retake it in the 18th c., and ever since
been under the sway of the Porte.

'GGAGE, in the marching arrangements of
British army, is placed under strict rules, in
that the accumulation of weight may not
e the movement of the troops; and rules
analogous kind are enforced in troop-ships,
soldiers are on a voyage. The term itself is
to apply chiefly to articles of clothing, and to
personal effects. A private soldier is allowed
rry nothing except that which his knapsack
ther accoutrements can hold; but those who
are married with their officers' consent—a small
number in every regiment—are allowed one small
chest each of definite size, which may be carried on
a march, but at the men's own expense. Staff-
sergeants and pay-sergeants have similar permis-
sion. The B.-wagons are not expected to receive
packages weighing more than 400 lbs. each, or as
much as four men can lift. Officers' B. is, of course,
much more considerable in amount than that of
the non-commissioned officers and privates. On
board troop-ships, the weight to be carried for each
person is strictly defined—from 18 cwt. for a field-
officer, down to 1 cwt. for a married private soldier,
with his wife and children. In encampments,
whether permanent or temporary, and in armies on
field-service, the utmost care is taken to preserve
the B. from the enemy, by surrounding it as much
as possible with defensive troops.

BA'GGESEN, JENS, a well-known Danish poet,
but who also has a place in German literature, was
born at Korsör, in the island of Zealand, February
15, 1764. He first obtained a reputation by his
Comic Tales (1785), the opera *Holger Danske* (1790),
as well as by his odes and songs. Through the kind
assistance of the Prince of Augustenburg, he was
enabled, in 1789, to make a tour through Germany,
Switzerland, and France. In 1811, he was appointed
professor of Danish language and literature at Kiel;
in 1814, he removed to Copenhagen, where he
became involved in an unseemly strife with Ohlen-
schläger, and in 1820 he left his native country
altogether. Some years later, a home-sickness
seized him, and he set out on his return, but died
at Hamburg, October 3, 1826. B.'s nature was a
curious compound of pride and humility, love and
hate, sensitiveness and reflective power, free-think-
ing and faith; and these conflicting qualities also
appear in his poems, which possess an unfinished
and inharmonious character. In 1803 appeared at
Hamburg a collection of his German poems; in
1806, he published an idyllic epic, entitled *Par-
thenais oder Alpenreise*, in twelve cantos, and
written in hexameters, which greatly increased his
reputation. It contains single passages of great
beauty. B. possessed no lyrical talent, in spite of
his warm-hearted and enthusiastic character. Only
a very few of his songs exhibit that simplicity and
tenderness which are the essential requisites of song-
writing; and, besides, they are almost all destitute
of originality. Klopstock was the model whom
he had in view in the composition of his odes; but
he was far from reaching the level of his master.
The sphere in which he shone most conspicuously
was the semi-comic. His 'humorous epic' (as he
called it) of *Adam und Eve*, published shortly after
his death, is a singular mixture of humour, pathos,
levity, and earnestness. He left in manuscript a
poem of a similar character on the subject of
Faust. His *Poetical Works in the German Lan-
guage* (Leip. 1836, 5 vols) have been published by
his son, who has prefixed to them an excellent
biography.

BAGLIVI, GEORGE, a celebrated Italian physi-
cian, born at Ragusa in September 1669. The inci-
dents of his life are almost entirely confined to his
professional career. Originally descended from an
Armenian family, he took the name of his adoptive
father, who was a wealthy physician of Lucca, and
who bestowed on him an excellent education. He
studied at Salerno, Padua, and Bologna, and after-
wards visited the principal hospitals of Italy. In
1692 he went to Rome, where he enjoyed the ana-
tomical prelections of his friend Malpighi. Shortly
after, he was appointed professor of anatomy at the
college of La Sapienza, Rome, where he died in

to be so prodigal and ostentatious that, at his death, in 1626, his debts amounted to upwards of £22,000. The immediate occasion of his death (as related by Aubrey, who probably got it from Hobbes, who was B.'s intimate friend) was cold caught in making an experiment to test the power of snow to preserve flesh. He died in the house of the Earl of Arundel, to which he had been removed with the fatal chill upon him which he had caught in the course of the experiment.

While, on the whole, the public life of Lord B. is marked by meanness and dishonour, his literary and scientific works are everywhere irradiated by the powerful light of an intellect which towered over those of other men. The first edition of his *Essays* appeared in 1597; his two books of the *Advancement of Learning* in 1605; his *Wisdom of the Ancients*—in Latin—in 1610; a third edition of his *Essays*, greatly extended, in 1612; his two books of the *Norum Organum*, or second part of the *Instauratio Magna*, designed to consist of six parts—also in Latin—in 1620; his *History of the Reign of Henry VII.*, in 1622; his nine books, *De Augmentis Scientiarum*—a Latin translation and extension of his *Advancement of Learning*—in 1623. Besides these, he wrote several minor works, which need not here be specially mentioned. It is enough to say that his writings embrace almost all subjects, from jurisprudence—which he treated not as a mere lawyer, but as a legislator and philosopher—to morality and medicine. The *Sermones Fideles* is a treasury of the deepest knowledge of human relations, conveyed in a gorgeous and energetic style. Almost the only science with which he was unacquainted was that of mathematics. Thus singularly gifted and accomplished, he appeared at a time when science, from a variety of causes, started on that progress which has never since been arrested. If it is now a question how far he contributed by his genius to that progress at its commencement, it is a fact that he was long vulgarly regarded by his countrymen as the father of Inductive Philosophy—as having been the inventor and first teacher of the method of interrogating nature by observation and experiment and inductive reasoning. Nor are his writings wanting in materials qualified *ex facie* to support his title to that eminence. His claim to the distinction, however, has of late been the subject of much controversy, the result of which is that it has been generally disallowed. But if it be true that he had a somewhat vague and imperfect apprehension of the philosophy of induction, overestimated the province of observation, and undervalued the use of deduction and hypothesis, and that even his classification of the sciences in the *De Augmentis*, on which his reputation long turned, has been properly superseded by the superior and better-reasoned classification of M. Comte; still it must be borne in mind that he was one of the first that was aware of the true character of the positive philosophy, and who understood its conditions, and foresaw its final supremacy; and as for his classification, that it was a marvellous effort of reason at a time when the sciences were in their infancy, and many of them were yet unborn. Also, it must be said, that if B. cannot be claimed by the physicists as the father of their science, and they must look rather to Galileo, yet he may fairly be claimed in that character by the students of man and society; for he was the first to aim at the extension of the methods of positive philosophy to moral and social conceptions. If recent criticisms have dethroned him from the position which for centuries he occupied in relation to the physical sciences, by showing that neither his doctrines, experiments, nor writings have materially affected their course, it is only to leave him free to be placed in a position no less dignified in relation to human and social philosophy.

As a writer, B. presents us in combination an intellect at once one of the most capacious and profound that ever appeared among men—one of the most penetrating, one of the most far-reaching—and an imagination almost equally remarkable. In no other writer is so much profound thought to be found expressed in such splendid eloquence. 'If,' says Hallam (*Literature of Europe*, iii. 218), 'we compare what may be found in the sixth, seventh, and eighth books *De Augmentis*, in the *Essays*, the *History of Henry VII.*, and the various short treatises contained in his works on moral and political wisdom and on human nature, from experience of which all such wisdom is drawn, with the Rhetoric, Ethics, and Politics of Aristotle, or with the historians most celebrated for their deep insight into civil society and human character—with Thucydides, Tacitus, Philip de Comines, Machiavel, Davila, Hume—we shall, I think, find that one man may almost be compared with all of these together.'

The collected works and life of Lord B. were published by Mallet in 5 vols. (Lond. 1765); a good edition is that of Montague (16 vols., Lond. 1825–1834); but the best, it is generally admitted, is the last (5 vols., edited by Messrs Spedding, Ellis, and Heath, Lond. 1858). Montague's edition gave occasion to an able review of B.'s character by Lord Macaulay, to be found among his *Essays*. The *Encyclopædias Britannica* and *Metropolitana* contain valuable papers on his writings, on which also Sir John Herschel's *Preliminary Discourse* to *Lardner's Encyclopædia* may be consulted.

BA'CON, Roger, an English monk, who, through the force of his intellect, raised himself far above his age, made wonderful discoveries in several sciences, and contributed much to extend the then scanty knowledge of nature. He was descended of a respectable family, and born at Ilchester, in the county of Somerset, 1214. He studied at Oxford, and then at Paris, where he received the degree of Doctor in theology; and soon after his return home, he entered the order of the Franciscans, and settled at Oxford. Physics seems to have been at that time the chief object of his labours; and liberal friends of science supplied him with the means of pursuing his researches. In exploring the secrets of nature, he made discoveries and invented applications which were looked upon by the ignorant as the work of he[illegible]. This prejudice was encouraged by [illegible] and hate with which his brother [illegible] his superiority. Besides, he loudly [illegible] ignorance and immorality of the clergy, of the monks, and even wrote a letter pope, in which he represented to him the [illegible] of clerical reform. Out of revenge, an [illegible] was brought against him at the papal co[illegible] the pope interdicted him from [illegible] university. He was shortly [illegible] forbidden all human intercourse, sufficient food. Among the few who admired Bacon's genius, [illegible] times, was the cardinal-bishop, [illegible] time papal legate in E[illegible]nd. [illegible] Bacon's writings, but th[illegible] ciscans prevented a co[illegible] his ascent to the papa[illegible] wrote to him, expressing [illegible] with whatever he d[illegible] repeated his request to [illegible] the Franciscan prohibition[illegible] up his *Opus Majus* (edited by [illegible] sent, along with two other w[illegible]

pope, by his favourite pupil, John of London, and in which he represented the necessity of a reformation in the sciences through a diligent study of the languages and of nature. How Clement received them is not very well known; but they could only have reached him about the time he was seized with his last illness. For ten years after Clement's death, B. was free from open persecution at least. But in 1278, under Nicolas III., the general of the Franciscan order, Jerome of Esculo, declared himself against B., forbade the reading of his books, and issued an order for his imprisonment, which was sanctioned by the pope. This new imprisonment lasted ten years. When Jerome of Esculo became pope, under the name of Nicolas IV., B. sent him a *Treatise on the Means of warding off the Infirmities of Old Age* (Lat. Oxf. 1590; Eng., by Brown, 1683), with a view to convince him of the harmlessness and utility of his labours, but in vain. What the pope refused to the representations of the old philosopher, was yielded to the intercession of several influential English noblemen, and B. at last recovered his freedom. He returned to Oxford, wrote a compendium of theology, and shortly after died—according to some, in 1292, to others, in 1294.

B., although an extraordinary genius, could not rid himself of all the prejudices of his times. He believed in the philosopher's stone and in astrology. His chief invention is the magnifying-glass. There are also in his writings other new and ingenious views on optics; for example, on refraction, on the apparent magnitude of objects, on the great increase in the size of the sun and moon in the horizon. On other subjects, again, he fell into the greatest errors. He made several chemical discoveries which were wonders at that time. He knew, for instance, that with sulphur, saltpetre, and charcoal, we may imitate lightning, and produce explosions. Mathematics, applied to observation, he considered to be the only means of arriving at a knowledge of nature. He studied several languages, and wrote Latin with great elegance and clearness. Deserving of honourable mention are his discoveries of the errors that prevailed in the calendar, and his proposals and data for remedying them, in which he came very near the truth. He prepared a rectified calendar, of which a copy is preserved in the Oxford library. On account of his extensive knowledge, he received the name of 'Doctor mirabilis.' Several of his works have never been printed, and are preserved among the Cottonian manuscripts in the British Museum; some are to be found in French libraries.

BA'CON, John, a distinguished statuary, was born in London, 1740, and died there August 7, 1799. He was at first a painter on porcelain, and only began to work in marble at the age of 23; yet in 1769 he received the first prize from the Royal Academy, of which he was soon after made a member. His statue of Mars first established his fame. Among his principal works are, two busts of George III., one in Christ Church College at Oxford, the other in the university library at Göttingen; the monuments of Lord Chatham in Westminster Abbey and in Guildhall; the statues of Howard and of Samuel Johnson in St Paul's, and that of Blackstone at Oxford. B. was deficient in imagination, and had no refined perception of beauty.

BACSA'NYI, Janos (pronounced Bat-shan-yi), a Hungarian writer and poet, was born May 11, 1763, at Tapolcan, in the circle of Szalader. After studying at Vesprim, Oedenburg, and Pesth, he became tutor to the son of General Orczy, and while thus employed, published his first work, *The Valour of the Magyars* (Pesth, 1785). He received the same year an appointment in the finance department at Kaschau, and there, in conjunction with Baroti and Pazinczy, he began the *Magyar Museum* (Kaschau and Pesth, 1788–1792). In 1793, in consequence of a liberal poem, he was deprived of his office, and in 1794, having taken part in the conspiracy of Bishop Martinovich, he was carried to Spielberg, where he was confined till 1796. After recovering his freedom, he assisted in editing the *Magyar Minerva*, then came to Vienna, where he held an office in the bank, and married (1805) the German poetess, Gabrielle Baumgarten—an unhappy match. When the French entered Vienna in 1809, B. translated Napoleon's proclamation to the Hungarians, on which account he found himself afterwards obliged to take refuge in Paris. After the peace of Paris, he was given up, and had Linz assigned him as a compulsory residence, but was allowed to receive his French pension till his death. He died at Linz, May 12, 1845: the Hungarian Academy had in 1843 again elected the octogenarian a corresponding member. In the latter part of his life, B., besides other works, published his *Collected Poems* (Pesth, 1827; Ofen, 1835). We are also indebted to him for the collected edition of the poetical works of Anyos (Vienna, 1798) and of Faludi (Pesth, 1824).

BA'CTRIA, the ancient name of the imperfectly known land lying between the western part of the Hindu Kush mountains, and the river Oxus (Amu, or Gihon), which separated it from Sogdiana on the north and north-east. Its boundaries in early times cannot be precisely ascertained, but it is generally considered to have been identical with the modern Balkh (q. v.). B. is supposed to have been the seat of the parent-people from which the Aryan (q. v.) or Indo-European family of nations branched off. The ancient Bactrians of historic times were akin to the Medes and Persians, and used the Zend language. B. was originally the centre of a powerful kingdom, which extended itself over the east of Persia, but we have almost no record of its early greatness; we only know that Ninus, the Assyrian king, in spite of his vast army, found much difficulty in conquering it, and that when Arbaces besieged the last Assyrian king, Sardanapalus, in his metropolis, he was assisted by a large force of Bactrians. It is believed that the ancient Persian religion was first developed in Bactra or Zariaspa, the capital of B., which was the head-quarters of the Magi till the land was overrun by the Arabs, and a centre-point of the inland trade of Asia. The modern town of Balkh (q. v.) is built upon its site. Alexander, on his return from Persia, left in B. a colony of 14,000 Greeks, who here extended civilisation. After the death of Alexander, B. was annexed to the kingdom of Syria; but was raised to independence by its governor, Diodotus I., who founded the Greek kingdom of New B. about 256 B.C. The history of this kingdom was formerly little known, but has been recently elucidated by numerous Graeco-Bactrian coins found in the *topes* or burial-places of Afghanistan. These coins give the names of a series of kings, and bear indications of the political circumstances of the Greek kingdom of B. On those of Eucratides, a monarch who flourished in the age of Mithridates, there are found, beside the Greek characters, others which have been proved to belong to a dialect of the Sanscrit, and have been very happily deciphered by Mr Prinsep.

BA'CTRIS, a genus of Palms, of which nearly fifty species are known, all American. The leaves of some are pinnate, those of others entire. They are generally small palms, some of them very small, and with slender stems; that of *B. tenuis* is not thicker than a goose-quill. Some are spiny, and form thickets not easily traversed. *B. acanthocarpa*

turnips, &c., have been introduced from Europe, and succeed well. Of indigenous productions, the most considerable are rice, pulse, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco. The district is largely engaged in the manufacturing of muslins, silks, carpets, blankets, tents, tapes, threads, ropes, paper, glass, cutlery, jewellery, leather, ink, soap, and pottery. Ardent spirits, too, are extensively distilled from the flowers of the *Bassia latifolia* (q. v.). Before the days even of Moslem domination, B. appears to have been the centre of a Hindu empire, which native accounts describe as of matchless splendour, and of fabulous duration.

BAHI'A, capital of the Brazilian province of the same name. It is otherwise called San Salvador—the more usual term being taken from *Bahia de Todos-os-Santos*, or *Bay of All Saints*, on which it is situated, in lat. 13° 1′ S., and long. 38° 32′ W. B. contains over 200,000 inhabitants, pretty equally divided between whites, blacks, and mulattoes. The number of vessels entering the port of B. in 1871 was 878, with a tonnage of 430,354, while the number clearing out was 868, with a tonnage of 442,308. The shipping trade for the last two or three years has been on the decline. The value of imports of foreign goods into B., in 1871, was £1,941,727; and the value of exports in the same year, £2,081,248. The chief exports of B. are sugar, cotton, coffee, tobacco, rice, rum, dye-stuffs, fancy woods, cocoa-nuts, horns, hides, and bullion; and it imports manufactured goods, provisions, flour, salt, iron, glass, and wines. B. is the oldest city in Brazil, having been founded by the first captain-general of the country, and was for a long time the capital of the whole colony. As a port, B. is unrivalled.

BAHI'A, a province of Brazil, about the middle of the coast, taking its name from its chief city. It extends in S. lat. from 10° to 16°, and in W. long. from 37° to 44°. Pop. in 1867 was 1,500,000. The wealth of B., consisting in valuable timber, in rich mines of gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, in deposits of potash, alum, &c., is in great measure lost for want of good roads. The interior contains lofty sierras; but the maritime districts are fertile, being well watered by the Itapicuru, Contas, and other rivers. Besides the streams that flow through B., the San Francisco, a vastly larger river, forms about half of the inland boundary, dividing this province from that of Pernambuco.

BAHI'A HO'NDA, a harbour on the north coast of Cuba, 60 miles west-south-west of Havana, protected by a fort, and much resorted to by privateers and slavers.

BAHNA'SA, or BEHNE'SEH, a town of Central Egypt, on the Bahr Yousef (Joseph's Canal). It is noteworthy as the site of the ancient *Oxyrynchus*, celebrated for its numerous monasteries, the ruins of which are still to be seen.

BAHR, an Arabic word signifying a large body of water, is applied both to lakes and rivers.—BAHR-EL-ABIAD (the White River), and BAHR-EL-AZRAK (the Blue River), are the chief branches of the Nile (q. v.).—BAHR-ASSAL is Lake Assal (q. v.).—BAHR-BELA-MA (the Sea without Water), a long, deep valley in the desert, west from Cairo. It is completely barren, but has the appearance of having been once a water-course.

BAHR, JOH. CHRISTIAN FELIX, an eminent German philologer and critic, was born, 1798, at Darmstadt. He was educated at the Heidelberg gymnasium and university, where he gained the favour and friendship of Creuzer, whose symbolic system of interpretation in mythological matters he himself pursued at a later period. He was elected a professor in 1826. Previous to this, he had occupied himself chiefly with the elucidation and criticism of Plutarch, the result of which was an annotated edition of *Alcibiades* (Heid. 1822), and of *Philopoemen*, *Flaminius*, *Pyrrhus* (Leip. 1826). At the same time, he collected and published the fragments of Ctesias. But a greater interest was excited by his *History of Roman Literature* (1828), which is noted for its clearness and comprehensiveness. Three supplements to this work also appeared: *The Christian Poets and Historians of Rome* (1836), *The Christian-Roman Theology* (1837), and the *History of Roman Literature in the Carlovingian Period* (1840). One of his most important works is his version of Herodotus (1832—1835). In 1835, he published his *De Universitate Constantinopoli Quinto Sæculo Conditâ*. He likewise contributed numerous articles to Jahn's *Jahrbücher für Philologie*, and other works. He died 27th November 1872.

BAHRDT, KARL FRIEDRICH, a German theologian of the extreme sceptical school, was born, 1741, at Bischofswerda, in Saxony, and studied at Leipsic, where he soon displayed extraordinary talents, and some restlessness of disposition. His early theological writings betrayed the sceptical tendencies which were afterwards more fully developed. On account of his immoral conduct, however, he was, in 1768, compelled to leave Leipsic, where he had been a popular preacher. In Erfurt, his next residence, he was appointed professor of Philosophy and Hebrew Antiquities, and wrote *Letters on a Systematic Theology*, and *Aspirations of a Mute Patriot*, two works whose heterodoxy involved him in controversies, and made his position untenable. In 1771, he went to Giessen, where he delivered theological lectures, and preached with approbation. His translation of the New Testament was regarded as so dangerous, that the author was deprived of the privilege of teaching. His creed, in fact, was simple Deism, and one of the chief points in his theology was his rejection of miracles. Even the immortality of the soul was not positively maintained in his works. Ultimately, after attempting to establish various institutions, he was reduced to the position of a tavern-keeper; and as he still persevered in his attacks on orthodoxy, he was imprisoned for one year at Magdeburg, where he wrote an autobiography. Among his others works are—*The Religious Edict* (a satire on the Prussian religious edict of 1788), and *The German Union*. He died at Halle, April 23, 1792.

BAHREI'N ISLANDS, or AVÂL ISLANDS, a group of islands lying in the Persian Gulf. The most important of these is Bahrein, or Avál, about 27 miles long, and 10 broad. It is hilly in the centre, but the soil generally is fertile, and produces dates, figs, and other eastern fruit, besides wheat and barley. Bahrein is badly cultivated. Spring-water is plentiful in the interior, but on the coast it can only be procured from the bottom of the sea, where it springs up quite fresh, and is brought up by divers in skins. Manama, the capital, in lat. 26° 12′ N., and long. 50° 39′ E., has a good harbour on the north, but a safer though smaller one on the south. The B. I. are chiefly remarkable for their pearl-fisheries, which were known in ancient times, and which employ, during the season, from 2000 to 3000 boats, each manned with from 8 to 20 men. The annual value of the pearls is estimated at from £200,000 to £300,000. Tortoise-shell, shark-fins, and dates are also articles of export. The islands, which have been subject to a good many political changes, are now inhabited by Arabs. Pop. 60,000.

BAI'Æ, a small town of antiquity, on the coast of Campania, 10 miles west of Naples, where the

present castle of Baja stands. When the Roman empire was in its greatest splendour, the beauty of its situation, the fineness of the surrounding scenery, and the excellence of its mineral springs, made B. such a favourite resort of the Roman nobles, that for want of space for their baths and villas they encroached on the sea. Julius Cæsar, Piso, Pompey, Marius, Julia Mammæa, and others, had country-houses at Baiæ. Horace preferred B. to all other places in the world. Seneca warned every one who desired to maintain dominion over his passions, to avoid this watering-place. Cicero thought it necessary to excuse himself for undertaking the defence of Marcus Cœlius, a man who had often visited B., for B. was considered by the stricter moralists of those times as the abode of voluptuousness and luxury, and a den of vice. The ruins, still standing on the desolate coast, or rising from the sea, are now the only evidence of the former magnificence of B., whose population, dwelling in mean hovels, only amounts to 800. The ruins of three supposed temples—one of Venus, one of Mercury, and one of Diana Lucifera—as well as the remains of a few *thermæ*, or warm baths, still attract the attention of archæologists. The harbour, one of the largest belonging to the Romans, is now much destroyed. The surrounding country is covered with the ruins of Roman villas, sepulchral monuments, and other buildings.

BAIKAL (in Turkish, Bei-kul, i.e., Rich Lake) is, after the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral, the largest lake of Asia. It is a fresh-water lake, and is situated in the south of Siberia, in the gov. of Irkutsk, near the great military road between Moscow, Kiachta, and the mines of Nertschinsk. Lat. 51° 20′ to 55° 30′ N., long. 103° to 110° E. It somewhat resembles a sickle in shape, and varies considerably in breadth. Between the mouths of the Selenga and the Buguldeicha, it is only 19 miles across. Its length is 370 miles, and its breadth 20 to 70 miles; height above the sea, 1363 feet; depth in centre very great. The Baikal Mountains, a spur of the Altai, enclose the lake, which is fed by numerous streams, the chief of which are the Selenga and Barguzin. Its outlet is by the Lower Angara, a chief tributary of the Yenisei; but the river is inconsiderable in size compared with those which flow into the lake. It has several islands, the largest of which, Olkon, has a length of 30 miles. B., which forms an important link in the chain of communication between Russia and China, has two commercial ports, and of recent years, steam-boats have given a considerable impetus to its trade. Its sturgeon and seal fisheries are valuable, and large quantities of a fish resembling a herring are also caught in it. A peculiar fish, called the golomynka (*Callionymus Baicalensis*), which is almost one mass of fat, yielding beautiful train-oil, was at one time caught in immense numbers, but it is now much scarcer. The surface of the lake is frozen from November to April, but the traffic is carried on over the ice. Besides the Russians settled on the banks of the Selenga and Angara, the shores of Lake B. are also inhabited by tribes of the Burates and Tunguses.

BAIL is a technical term in the practice of the law both in England and Scotland, with this difference, that, in England, it is used both in civil and criminal procedure, whereas in Scotland it is applied exclusively to the latter. By B. is understood the security given by sufficient sureties for the appearance in court on a day, and at a place certain, of a person arrested or imprisoned, and who, in consequence of such security or B., is in the meantime set at liberty. Such security, however, involves the assumption of the custody of the arrested or imprisoned party by his B., the meaning of the rule being that the party arrested or imprisoned is delivered into the hands of those who bind themselves for his forthcoming, in order that he may be protected from prison until he has to make his personal appearance; and, in this sense, it differed from the old term, *mainprize*, now obsolete, and which signified a mere security without any other or corresponding guarantee, as in the case of bail. A technical and necessary distinction is taken in law-books between what is called *common B.*, or *B. to render to prison*, and *special B.*, or *B. to the action*; but for general information, the following statement of the law may suffice.

In civil process, the sureties give their bail-bond to the sheriff himself for the appearance of the defendant, according to the exigency of the case, and for nothing else. It does not appear that any particular or limited number of sureties is to be taken; but it would seem that the sheriff may insist on more than two, provided they have only sufficient property within the county to answer the penalty; but if more than two be tendered, it is not necessary that each should be worth the full amount. On the other hand, the bail-bond will be good though there be only one surety; but in accepting such security it would seem that the sheriff does so at his own risk. If there is reasonable ground for believing the sureties to be sufficient, the sheriff has no discretion, but is bound to accept the B.; and if he refuses to do so, he is liable to an action.

The necessity of B., however, may be avoided by the defendant availing himself of the provisions of statutes which are re-enactments of older laws, by which it is enacted that the arrested or imprisoned party may obtain his immediate discharge by depositing with the sheriff the sum demanded by the plaintiff, together with £10 towards the cost, the same to remain in court to abide the event of the suit. The enactment, however, contains a proviso that it shall be lawful for a defendant who has made such deposit in payment, at any time in the progress of the cause, before issue joined, or final or interlocutory judgment, to receive out of court the sum so deposited and paid, upon putting in and perfecting special B., and paying such costs as the court shall direct; and, by another enactment of the same statute, provision is made for the case where a defendant who has put in B., afterwards elects to deposit the plaintiff's demand, and to pay the costs to abide the event of the action.

As to those who may or may not be B., it would appear, from the nature of the security undertaken, that persons privileged from arrest cannot be B., because the engagement on the part of the B. being, in default of the principal party, to pay the debt or damages and costs, the plaintiff is entitled to require the security of persons who are amenable to the ordinary process of the courts. Therefore, peers, members of parliament, ambassadors, and other privileged persons, cannot become bail; nor, generally, can attorneys or those employed in executing the process. But persons who are not in such a position, but who are either housekeepers or freeholders, may be taken as bail. The possession of *leasehold* property is not enough, unless the party is also a housekeeper; but the real owner of a *freehold* estate, however small it may be, situated within the jurisdiction of the court, and provided he can otherwise make up the amount required, is qualified, though he be only a lodger, or merely an occupant by sufferance in the house of another. Again, to constitute a 'housekeeper,' within the meaning of

the rule, the house must be within the jurisdiction of the court, and such a party must be the *bond-fide* tenant of the house in his own right, enjoying its benefits, and bearing its burdens. A person, therefore, in lodgings in England, but with a house in Scotland, is not admissible as B.; and such B. must strictly in this sense be a *housekeeper*. Bail has ceased to be usual since imprisonment for debt was abolished.

Besides these arrangements of the common law with regard to B., we may mention two other forms of it—namely, B. *in Error*, and B. *in Attachment*. The former is regulated by the Common Law Procedure Act (1852), 15 and 16 Vict. c. 76, by section 151 of which it is provided that proceedings in error shall not stay or delay execution on a judgment, unless the person alleging or pleading such error shall be bound, along with two sufficient sureties, in double the sum recovered by the judgment, in order to prosecute the proceedings in error with effect, and make payment of the costs, in the event of the judgment being affirmed, or the proceedings in error being discontinued. B. in attachment, again, signifies the sureties required for a party arrested upon a writ of attachment, and brought up before a judge in order to obtain his discharge from custody, the sureties undertaking that he shall appear and answer such interrogatories as may be required of him. This, however, only applies to attachment in the case of *contempt* of court; for it would appear that an attachment for the non-payment of money, or the non-performance of an award, is not bailable. In the Court of Chancery, also, there are rules for accepting B.; as, for instance, for a defendant against whom attachment has issued for his contempt in not making appearance to the plaintiff's suit; but an attachment for non-performance of a decree in Chancery is not a bailable process.

In criminal procedure, the subject of B. is at present regulated by the 11 and 12 Vict. c. 42, which provides that if the justice or justices, before whom a prisoner is brought, shall be of opinion that the evidence against the prisoner be sufficient, or even if it raise a strong or probable presumption of his guilt, they shall either commit him to prison, or admit him to B.—that is, allow him to be discharged on entering into a recognizance—with some sufficient surety or sureties—to appear and surrender himself to custody, to take his trial on such indictment as may be found against him, in respect of the charge in question, at the next assizes or sessions of the peace. The crime of treason, however, is not a bailable offence, except by order of a Secretary of State, or by the Court of Queen's Bench, or by a Judge thereof in vacation. But Justices are bound to admit to B. in all cases of misdemeanour, excepting in the case of a misdemeanour in receiving property stolen or obtained by false pretences, &c., or the case of any misdemeanour for the prosecution of which the costs may be allowed out of the county rate, as to all which misdemeanours, as well as in all felonies—treason excepted—justices and magistrates have a discretionary power either to admit to B. or to commit to prison. The Court of Queen's Bench exercises a paramount jurisdiction, and can bail in all cases whatsoever; but it is not usual for that court or for justices or magistrates to admit to B. in any case of felony, except under circumstances of a special and favourable kind.

In Scotland, the term B., as we have mentioned, is only used in the proceedings in the criminal courts; and there the general distinction is taken between offences that are capital and not capital, the former not being bailable except by order of the High Court of Justiciary, who exercise a power in this respect analogous to the jurisdiction of the Court of Queen's Bench; offences that are not capital being bailable by magistrates, sheriffs, or other competent judges. In the *civil* process of the Scotch courts, the term corresponding to B. is CAUTION (q. v.).

BAIL COURT is the name given to a new and supplementary tribunal at Westminster, called into existence by the 11 Geo. IV. and 1 Will. IV. c. 70, by which, after providing for the appointment of an additional puisne judge in each of the three courts of common law, it is made lawful for any one of the judges of either of these courts, when occasion shall so require, where the other judges of the same court are sitting in banc (see BANC), to sit apart from them for the business of adding and justifying special bail, discharging insolvent debtors, administering oaths, receiving declarations required by statute, hearing and deciding upon matters in motion, and making rules and orders in causes and business depending in the court to which such judge shall belong, in the same manner and with the same force and validity as may be done by the court sitting in banc.

This statute has been hitherto acted on only by the Court of Queen's Bench, wherein one of the judges sits from time to time in the B. C. for the purposes above specified. It may be remarked that a rule of the B. C. cannot be reopened in the full court after the term in which it is made, even though the judge who pronounced it sanctions the application; and a judge sitting apart, under the authority of the statute, has equal authority with the full court to reverse the decision of a judge sitting at chambers. See Lush's *Practice* by Stephen.

BAILEE'. See BAILMENT, in SUPP.

BAI'LEY, derived through the F
the middle age Latin BALLIUM, w
of the Lat. *vallum*, a rampart.
whole space enclosed within the ex
castle, with the exception of that co
keep. This space was variously disp
of course, differed greatly in extent
consisted of several courts, which
each other by embattled walls, so a
of fortifications. When these c
number, they were known as
bailey. The entrance to the
drawbridge over the ditch, and
machicolated and embattled gate.
of great extent, containing the
soldiers, lodgings for workmen and artificers
zines, wells, chapels, and sometimes e
tery. In towns, the B. had even a
tion, and was often retained after
had long disappeared, as in the
in London, and the B. in Oxford.

BAI'LEY, PHILIP JAMES, a
poet, was born at Basford, in
tingham, in the year 1816. I
was conducted in his native to
he became a student at the
He was called to the E
never practised. The firs
poem by which he is best
1839, and has in subseq
amount of new
notice in England, and was in
a perfect tornado of applause.
lasted, Mr B. was in certain
the same breath with S
Goethe. This injudici
certain to cool down, a
to the real interests o

censure itself; consequently, in literary journals, *Festus* is frequently mentioned with a contempt which it is far from deserving. It is a wonderful work, when the age of the author at the period of its production is taken into account. It was commenced before the author had reached his 20th year, and completed in three years. *Festus* errs from excess of boldness. Mr B. speaks of universes as other poets speak of butter-cups. He has the *entrée* to the highest heaven and to the regions of penal fire. He is on terms of perfect familiarity with Eternity. He lays his scenes in the 'Centre,' 'Elsewhere,' 'Everywhere,' 'Nowhere.' Despite its extravagance, *Festus* is full of poetical thought and felicitous expression, and has occasional dashes of grim humour in it, not unworthy of Goethe's mocking fiend himself. The faults of the poem are as great as the beauties; there is no congruity or proportion in it, and you lay it down with a sense of admiration qualified with disgust. In 1850, Mr B. published the *Angel World*, which possesses all the faults and all the beauties of the former work on a reduced scale. If the reader's admiration is less, his disgust is less. The *Angel World* is now incorporated with the larger work. Mr B.'s subsequent writings have been the *Mystic*, and the *Age*, a colloquial satire. The first production is in the writer's early style, with all the beauties deleted. But whatever measure of success may attend Mr B. in 'Elsewhere' and 'Nowhere,' complete failure awaits him when he deals with mankind and the ordinary affairs and follies of earth. The *Universal Hymn* was published in 1867.

BAI'LIE, a Scotch term, with several legal applications. It chiefly, however, and popularly, signifies a superior officer or magistrate of a municipal corporation in Scotland, with judicial authority within the city or burgh. In royal burghs, the office is in some respects analogous to that of Alderman in England. The chief magistrate of a Scotch corporation, called the *Provost* (q. v.), and often one or more of the bailies, are, in virtue of their office, in the commission of the peace; and by the 6 Geo. IV. c. 22, bailies are exempted from serving on juries. There are also *Bailies of Regality* and *Barony*, who are appointed by the *Superior* or over-lord of the manor (q. v.), with limited powers fixed by the 20 Geo. II. c. 43. There is a B. for the Sanctuary or Abbey of Holyrood, appointed by the Duke of Hamilton as hereditary keeper, and having jurisdiction within the precincts. See ABBEY, SANCTUARY. The word B. was also formerly a term in the practice of Scotch conveyancing, and signified an officer who represented the seller, and who, as such, gave *seisin* or sasine (q. v.), or delivery of the lands sold to the buyer or his attorney; but by the changes and simplifications effected by recent legislation, the office of B. in this sense may be said to be virtually abolished; indeed, by the 21 and 22 Vict. c. 76, s. 1, called *The Titles to Land Act*, seisin itself, as a separate and independent documentary title, is declared to be unnecessary, and registration of the conveyance of the estate held to be sufficient.

BAI'LIFF in English, BAILIE in Scotch, BAILLI in French, and BALIO in Ital., are terms having a common origin—namely, the middle Latin *ballivus*, which is again connected with the older form, *bagulus*, or *bajulus*. Through all the changes of application they have undergone in the course of history, they have continued to agree in denoting an overseer of some kind—an officer exercising superintendence on behalf of some superior authority. At the Greek imperial court in Constantinople, the chief tutor of the imperial children was called Bajulos. The same title seems also to have been given in Constantinople to the superintendent of the foreign merchants, who was appointed by the Venetians, and it may possibly be for this reason that the title Balio came at length to be applied also to the Venetian ambassadors themselves. The title Ballivus was introduced by the Knights of St John into the south and west of Europe, as the eight members of their chapter were called *Ballivi conventuales*, whence also the name Ballei, given to the circles into which the possessions of the order were divided. In France, the royal Baillis were at one time commanders of the troops, administrators of the royal domains, and judges each in his district. In later times, the royal Baillis were deprived of the two latter offices, and were consequently then called Baillis d'Epée only. Proprietors of estates, also, possessing supreme jurisdiction, appointed Baillis to superintend these courts of justice. As very little knowledge was required for these situations, and as they might be purchased, they were held in little estimation; and in later times, the Baillis became standing characters on the stage, held up to ridicule on account of their ignorance and their absurd pretensions, as well as for cheating and injustice. In England, the name B. was introduced in the reign of William I., to designate the superintendents of counties, which were called Ballivæ.

BAI'LIFF, in English law, is a legal officer, and may be described as the keeper, protector, or superintendent of some duty or charge legally imposed on him. As officers of the law, bailiffs put in force arresting process, and they perform other duties within the county or bailiwick required of them by the sheriff, who is their immediate official superior. In this sense bailiffs are either *bailiffs of hundreds*, or *bound bailiffs*. The duty of the former is to collect fines, summon juries, attend the judges and justices at the assizes and quarter-sessions, and execute writs and processes in the several hundreds. *Bound* bailiffs, again, are officers usually joined by the sheriffs with the bailiffs of hundreds, and employed on account of their adroitness and dexterity. They are called bound bailiffs, because the sheriff, being civilly responsible for their official misdemeanours, they are annually bound in an obligation, with sureties, for the due execution of their office. There are also *special bailiffs*, who are officers appointed by the sheriff on the application of the party suing out the process to be executed; and whenever a party thus chooses his own officers, he is considered to discharge the sheriff from all responsibility for what is done by him. There is, besides, another exceptional class of bailiffs, called bailiffs of *liberties*, honours, manors, and other lordships and franchises, whose appointments, duties, and responsibilities are regulated by the 7 Vict. c. 19. The county courts likewise have bailiffs for the execution of their process, as to whom see 9 and 10 Vict. c. 95, 12 and 13 Vict. c. 101, 13 and 14 Vict. c. 61, and 19 and 20 Vict. c. 108.

The sheriff himself is the *Queen's B.*, and, as such, it is his business to preserve the rights of the Crown within his bailiwick. He must seize to the sovereign's use all lands devolved to the Crown by attainder or escheat; must levy all fines and forfeitures; and must seize and keep all Waifs (q. v.), wrecks, estrays, and the like, unless they be granted to some subject.

BAI'LIFF, HIGH. See HIGH BAILIFF.

BAI'LIWICK legally means the county or district within which the sheriff's bailiffs may execute their office. Blackstone says that this word was introduced by the princes of the Norman line in

imitation of the French, whose territory was divided into bailiwicks, as that of England into counties.

BAILLEUL, a town of France, department of the Nord, with manufactures of woollens, cottons, lace, hats, beet-root, sugar, &c.—the cheese of its neighbourhood being also celebrated. Pop. in 1872, 6348.

BAI'LLIE, JOANNA, a modern poetess of distinguished merit, was born in 1762 at Bothwell, in Lanarkshire, Scotland. Her father was a Presbyterian clergyman. She received a superior education, and soon began to manifest those talents which subsequently excited the admiration of the public. Her career was a singularly happy one, but devoid of all striking incident. At an early period, she went to reside in London, where her brother, Matthew Baillie, had established himself as a physician. Here she remained till her death, which occurred on the 23d of February 1851, when she had attained the venerable age of eighty-nine. No authoress ever enjoyed a larger share of the esteem and affection of her literary contemporaries. All vied in shewing her a courteous respect, and even America sent its votaries to her little shrine at Hampstead. Her greatest achievement is undoubtedly the *Plays on the Passions*, which, though erroneous in conception, are full of noble and impressive poetry, and often characterised by intense dramatic power. The principle upon which Miss B. proceeded in the construction of these works, was to take a single passion as the subject of a play, and to exhibit its influence on an individual supposed to be actuated by nothing else. In point of fact, such persons do not exist in society; men are swayed by a variety of conflicting emotions; and even when any one of these becomes dominant, it does not wholly destroy the rest, otherwise the victim of a ruling passion would lapse into a monomaniac. The leading personages of Miss B.'s plays are, therefore, rather impersonations of certain elements of human nature, than genuine human beings. They are vivid poetical studies in psychology; not mirrors held up to nature, like the brilliant and variegated creations of Shakspeare. Still, there are scenes, in her tragedies especially, where the interest of the reader is intensely excited by the great art shewn in the minute delineation of a particular passion, and where he is forced to forget the artificial theory of the authoress. The first volume of the *Plays of the Passions* appeared in 1798, and met with remarkable success. Four years afterwards, she published a second volume; in 1804, *Miscellaneous Plays;* in 1812, the third volume of her *Plays of the Passions;* and in 1836, three volumes of dramatic poetry. The most popular as well as the most powerful of her works is the tragedy of *De Montfort*. It was brought upon the stage in London, Kemble acting for eleven nights the character of the hero. Many of Miss B.'s minor pieces are very sweet, simple, and beautiful; and are marked by a sprightly grace of versification, and a playful serenity of spirit, which pleasantly remind one of the personal character of the authoress herself.

BAI'LLIE, MATTHEW, M.D., a distinguished physician and anatomist, was born on the 27th October 1761, in the Manse of Shotts, Lanarkshire, Scotland. His father was descended from the family of Baillie of Jerviswood, so noted in the history of Scotland during the reign of Charles II.; his mother was a sister of the two celebrated anatomists, William and John Hunter; and one of his sisters was Joanna Baillie, the poetess. Talent seems to have been both hereditary and abundant in the family. On account of his abilities, his father was appointed professor of divinity in the university of Glasgow, where young B. went through the usual curriculum, and afterwards proceeded to Balliol College, Oxford, as an exhibitioner on the Snell foundation. In 1780, he commenced his anatomical studies in London under the care of his uncle, and was frequently employed as demonstrator to the latter in his theatre at Great Windmill Street. His success in this capacity was so great, that on the death of Dr Hunter, in 1783, he was found qualified to become his successor. In 1784, he began to lecture, and acquired a high reputation as a vigorous and lucid expositor of the science of anatomy. In 1795, he published a small work entitled, *The Morbid Anatomy of some of the most Important Parts of the Human Body*. It made an era in medical science. In addition to the information formerly scattered through the writings of Bonnetus, Lieutaud, Montagni, and others, it contained a multitude of ingenious observations made by his uncle and himself, and greatly enhanced our knowledge of the changes produced on the human frame by disease. It had a remarkable influence on the study of medicine, and excited in a greater measure, perhaps than any other book, a spirit of careful induction among professional men. In 1799, Dr B. relinquished his anatomical lectureship, and in 1800, his appointment as physician to St George's Hospital, which he had held for thirteen years. He now devoted himself exclusively to his duties as a medical practitioner, and by his honourable assiduity succeeded in realising a large fortune. In one of his busiest years, when he had scarcely time to take a single meal, his professional income is said to have reached £10,000. In 1810, he was appointed physician to the king, and offered a baronetcy, which, however, he declined. At last, worn out with incessant labour, he died on the 23d September 1823.

BAI'LLIE, ROBERT, one of the most eminent, and perhaps the most moderate of all the Scottish Presbyterian clergy during the time of the civil war, was born at Glasgow in 1599, and educated at the university of that city. In 1622, he received episcopal ordination—episcopacy being then nominally the established religion of the country—from Archbishop Law, and was shortly after presented to the parish church of Kilwinning. At first a maintainer of the doctrine of passive obedience, he seems to have changed his opinions on this point some time during 1630–1636. In 1638, he sat in that famous General Assembly of the Kirk of Scotland which met in Glasgow to protest against episcopacy being thrust on an unwilling people, but conducted himself with greater prudence and temperance than was quite agreeable to his excited brethren. However, he soon threw himself eagerly into the national cause. In 1640, he was selected by the Scottish leaders, on account of his pamphlet against Laud's party, as a proper person to go to London, along with other commissioners, to prepare charges against Archbishop Laud, whose rash and tyrannical measures were alleged to have been the origin of the recent hostilities against the sovereign. On his return to Scotland in 1642, he was appointed joint-professor of divinity at Glasgow, along with Mr David Dickson, an equally distinguished, but less moderate divine. In 1643, he was again sent to London as a delegate to the Westminster Assembly of Divines, where he conducted himself in an unobtrusive manner, but cordially concurred in the doctrines which were drawn up. It is curious to notice, in connection with this incident of his career, that though Mr B. had himself experienced the injustice of intolerance, like almost every other theologian of his age, he vehemently discarded the principle of toleration, and asserted the divine right of presbytery with as much emphasis as Laud did

rine right of episcopacy. After the execu- Charles I., in 1649, B. was chosen by urch to proceed to Holland, and to invite II. to accept the Covenant and crown of d. Though it was not easy to deal with Charles's slippery character, B. is admitted e borne himself in the matter with great ce and dignity. After the Restoration, he de Principal of Glasgow University. He died 62. His *Letters* are a valuable contribution knowledge of the times.

LLIE, Robert, of Jerviswood, happily de- as the Scottish Sydney, was a native of shire, and distinguished himself during the art of the reign of Charles II. by his bold ion to the tyrannical misgovernment of the f Lauderdale. Having on a certain occasion 676) rescued a relative, the Rev. Mr Kirkton, ne clutches of Archbishop Sharpe's principal r, a wretched profligate of the name of rs, who pretended that he had a warrant for rehension of the clergyman, but refused to , B. was actually prosecuted for interfering ent the illegal capture of his friend. For this , an antedated warrant was furnished to rs, signed by nine of the councillors. The s of Athole afterwards admitted to Bishop that he was one of the nine who lent their to this infamous document. The case was re made out to be a tumult against the nent. B. was fined in 6000 merks (£318). ised to pay, and was sent to prison; but so was the indignation of the Scottish gentry, was released at the end of four months, in ration of payment of one-half of his fine to rs. In 1683, B. took a prominent part in a of emigration to South Carolina, as he saw r refuge from the degrading tyranny of the nent. About the same time, however, he into correspondence with the heads of the ritan party in London, whose leaders were , Sydney, and the Duke of Monmouth, and iently repaired to that city to concert mea- r a vigorous insurrection against the govern- ıot, however, so far as he was concerned, with to revolution, but as the only means of secur- equate reforms. On the discovery of the se Plot, B. was arrested, and sent down to d. Accused of conspiring against the king's l of being hostile to monarchical government, tried at Edinburgh, and condemned to death ridence at once insignificant and illegal. His both on his trial and during his imprison- was such, that his cousin, Bishop Burnet, d 'it looked like a reviving of the spirit of the of the old Greeks or Romans, or rather of mitive Christians and first martyrs; and the ted Dr Owen speaks of him as a 'great spirit,' on of the greatest ablutions I almost ever met The sentence was carried into execution on h December 1684. It is to be regretted that opportunities were afforded B. of achieving g really great, for he seems from all accounts possessed a remarkable strength of character ldu fearlessness of spirit.

LLY, Jean Sylvain, a distinguished French President of the National Assembly of 1789, ayor of Paris, was born in that city, Septem- , 1736. Originally intended by his father artist, he first turned aside into literature, becoming acquainted with Lacaille, he was ately induced to study astronomy, which to be the true sphere of his genius. In 1763, ented to the Académie des Sciences his *Lunar utions;* in 1766, appeared his *Essay on the Satellites of Jupiter, with Tables of their Motions;* and in 1771, a treatise on the light of these satellites, remarkable for the profundity of its astronomical views, and which classed him at once among the greatest astronomers of his time. His historico-scientific works, especially his *History of Indian Astronomy*, are full of learning and ingenious disquisition, and written with great elegance. In 1777, he published his *Letters on the Origin of the Sciences;* and in 1779, his *Atlantis of Plato*. In 1784, he was elected a member of the Académie Française; and in the following year, of the Académie des Inscriptions. The *éloges* which he wrote about this period for the Académie des Sciences on Charles V., Molière, Corneille, Lacaille, Leibnitz, Cook, and Gresset, were very highly praised. Fontenelle was the only Frenchman before him who had enjoyed the honour of being a member of the three académies at once. The revolution interrupted his peaceful studies. During the earlier part of it, he occupied a very prominent position. Elected President of the National Assembly, June 17, 1789, and Mayor of Paris on the 15th of July, he conducted himself in these capacities with great integrity and purity of purpose; but at last lost his popularity by allowing the National Guard to fire on the masses who were assembled in the Champ de Mars, on the 17th of July 1791, to demand the dethronement of the king. He now threw up his mayoralty, considering it impossible to satisfy either party, withdrew altogether from public affairs, and went to live first at Nantes, and afterwards with his friend Laplace at Melun. Here he was seized by the Jacobin soldiery, and brought to Paris, where he was accused of being a royalist conspirator, condemned and executed with the usual Jacobin preliminary of savage insult, November 11, 1793. Among his papers were found, and afterwards published, an *Essay on the Origin of Fables and Ancient Religions* (1799), and *Memoirs of the Revolution by an Eye-witness* (1804). There cannot be two opinions regarding the merit of B.'s style, but his historico-astronomical speculations are now considered fantastic.

BAILMENT, an English law term, defined to be 'a delivery of goods for a particular purpose, upon a contract, express or implied, that the purpose shall be carried into effect, and that, when that is done, the goods shall be restored by the bailee, or person to whom they are delivered, to the owner or bailor, or according to his directions.'—*Tomlin's Dict.*

BAILY, Edward Hodges, R.A., an eminent sculptor, was born at Bristol on the 10th March 1788. In 1807, he went to London, saw Flaxman, and entered his studio. In 1809, he gained the silver medal at the Society of Arts and Sciences, and the silver and gold medals at the Royal Academy. His works during this part of his career were chiefly, if not altogether, classical figures. They exhibit great care in execution, and are simple and pure in conception; but it was not till his twenty-sixth year that the full power and originality of his genius manifested itself in his celebrated 'Eve at the Fountain,' a figure of exquisite grace and loveliness. His next works were, 'Hercules casting Lycus into the Sea,' 'Apollo Discharging his Arrows,' and 'Maternal Love.' George IV. also employed him, along with other artists, to execute the sculpture in front of Buckingham Palace, the figures on the marble arch, and the 'Triumph of Britannia,' as also the *basso-relievi* that surround the throne-room. Besides these, B. executed a great number of busts and statues of distinguished contemporaries, such as Telford the engineer, Earl Grey (14 feet high), and Sir Astley Cooper. The statue of Nelson, in Trafalgar Square, is likewise the work of his hands. His 'Eve listening

to the Voice,' the 'Sleeping Nymph,' 'Girl preparing for the Bath,' and 'The Graces Seated,' are among the finest efforts of his genius. Died 22d May 1867.

BAILY, FRANCIS, an eminent English astronomer, was born at Newbury, Berks, in 1774, and died in London in 1844. In the midst of active business as a London stockbroker, he laid the foundation of his scientific fame, and during the years of life usually devoted to repose, underwent labours and rendered services to astronomy, which entitle him to be regarded as one of the most remarkable men of his time. Among the chief of these services were his share in the foundation of the Astronomical Society, and in the improvement of the *Nautical Almanac*, his laborious repetition of Cavendish's pendulum experiments, and the production of the Astronomical Society's Star-catalogue. The latter, says his biographer, Sir J. Herschel, 'put the astronomical world in possession of a power, which may be said, without exaggeration, to have changed the face of sidereal astronomy.' In addition to several standard works on Life-annuities, &c. (1808—1813), and an immense mass of contributions to the *Memoirs of the Astronomical Society*, he wrote a valuable *Life of Flamsteed* (1835), which gave rise to much hot discussion on the subject of that eminent man's connection with Newton.

BAINI, GIUSEPPE, one of the most distinguished scientific musicians of modern times, was born in Rome on the 21st October 1775. In 1795, when still only a pupil in the Seminario Romano, he was admitted among the singers in the Papal Chapel, on account of his fine voice and his musical acquirements. Having been initiated by G. Zannaconi into the art of composition, he soon gained distinction by his compositions. The severe gravity and profound science of these contrasted strongly with the careless style and shallow dilettantism of the modern Italian masters. B. has secured for himself a prominent place in musical literature, less, however, by his compositions than by his historical researches, which he found both encouragement and opportunity to make, when he was appointed director of the papal concerts in 1804, and general director of the choir in 1814. His principal work is his *Memorie Storico-critiche della Vita e delle Opere di Giov. Pierluigi da Palestrina*, &c. (2 vols. Rome, 1828). It is a valuable work, although disfigured by prejudices. The German edition of B.'s work, additions and explanations by Kandler, published by Kiesewetter (Leip. 1834), is especially deserving of notice, as very soon after its first publication it became a rare book on account of the small number originally published. Winterfeld published an edition of the same work with critical remarks (Breslau, 1832). B. died on the 10th of May 1844.

BAIRAKTAR, or, more correctly, Bairak-dar, signifying Standard-bearer, is the title of the energetic Grand Vizier Mustapha. He was born in 1755, and was the son of poor parents. He entered the military service at an early age, and soon distinguished himself by his valour. When he was Pacha of Rustchuk in 1806, he fought not without success against the Russian army, which had advanced into Moldavia and Wallachia, and had taken Bucharest. After the revolt of the janizaries in 1807, by which Selim III. (q. v.) was deposed from the throne, in favour of Mustapha IV., B. at first concealed his attachment to the deposed monarch, and marched with his troops apparently against the revolted Servians; but as soon as he reached Adrianople, he compelled the grand vizier to return with him to Constantinople, in order to restore the throne to Sultan Selim. On their return, they found this prince murdered, and his dead body lying in the first court of the seraglio. Filled with rage at this sight, B. caused all those to be executed who had had any share in the murder. He deposed Mustapha IV., and proclaimed the brother of this prince, Mahmoud II., sultan on the 28th July 1808. B. was now appointed grand vizier. In the exercise of this office, he deposed the grand mufti, the leader of the janizaries, and all the ulemas who had taken any part in the last revolution; while at the same time he was careful to secure the tranquillity of the capital, and strengthened the regular army. His chief object was the annihilation of the janizaries; but, like the unfortunate Selim, he also fell a victim to these fierce bands of soldiery, who resisted everything like military discipline. Favoured by the fanatical people, the janizaries rebelled, and, with the support of the fleet, attacked the seraglio on the 15th November 1808, and demanded the restoration of Mustapha IV. B. defended himself bravely; but when he saw that the flames threatened to destroy the palace, and that he was in danger of falling alive into his enemies' hands, he strangled Mustapha, threw his head to the besiegers, and then blew himself up.

BAIRD, SIR DAVID, Bart., a general in the British army, was born 6th December 1757, at Newbyth, Scotland. He entered the service in 1772 as an ensign in the 2d Foot, was promoted to a lieutenancy in 1778, and immediately after obtained a company in the 73d, a Highland regiment just raised by Lord Macleod, with which he sailed to India. In the course of a few months, the young officer was plunged amid the perils of a sudden and sanguinary war. The English had excited the hostility of Hyder Ali by a gross breach of faith; and in the July of 1780, the latter burst into the Carnatic at the head of 100,000 men, disciplined and commanded by French officers. On the 10th of September, a portion of the English army fell into an ambuscade at Perambacum, and was cut to pieces. Among the few who remained alive to be taken prisoners was Baird, whose heroism had actually startled the French officers who were opposed to him. He was thrown into a dungeon at Seringapatam, where he endured a captivity of four years, that must have been peculiarly galling to a spirit so fierce, restless, and resolute as his. Released in July 1784, he obtained the majority of the 71st in 1789, and in the October of the same year visited England. In 1791, he returned, a lieutenant-colonel, and took part in several important sieges, attacks, and skirmishes; in 1795, he received a colonelcy; in 1798, he was raised to the rank of major-general; and in 1799 memorably signalised himself at the victorious assault of Seringapatam. He led the storming-party, having obtained that perilous honour at his own urgent request, Colonel Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington) commanding the reserve. In requital of his brilliant services, he was presented by the army, through the commander-in-chief, General Harris, with the state-sword of Tippoo Saib, and also with a dress-sword from the field-officers who served under him at the assault. His merit was likewise acknowledged by the home government. In the following year, he was appointed to the command of an expedition against Batavia, but which was afterwards sent to Egypt. On his return to India, he found that the star of Wellesley was in the ascendant; and B., who had already complained of the preference given to that officer, and who was, besides, of opinion that his own merits were constantly overlooked, applied for leave of absence, and sailed for Europe in 1802. He was received at court with great distinction, knighted in June 1804, and made a K.C.B. in the following August. In 1805, he commanded an expedition against the Dutch settlements at the Cape of Good

Hope, which was successful; in 1807, he commanded a division at the siege of Copenhagen; and in 1808, was sent to Spain with an army of 10,000 men, to assist Sir John Moore. He distinguished himself in the battle of Corunna, January 16, 1809. Moore having been killed in the action, Sir David succeeded to the chief command, and had the honour of communicating intelligence of the victory to government. On this occasion, he received, for the fourth time in his life, the thanks of parliament, and was created a baronet. After this period, he retired from active service. In 1810, he married Miss Preston Campbell, a Perthshire lady, by whom he left no issue. He died, August 18, 1829.

BAIREUTH, a city, with a pop., in 1871, of 17,837, capital of the province of Upper Franconia, Bavaria, and formerly the capital of the principality of the same name. B. is beautifully situated on the Red Mayn, about 126 miles due north from Munich. Its streets are broad and well paved, and are interspersed with groves, promenades, fine gardens, and public fountains. Its principal buildings are the old palace, now the residence of the provincial governor; the new palace, containing a gallery of paintings; the mint, opera-house, riding-school, infirmary, and town-hall. Its chief articles of industry are leather, cottons, woollens, linen, tobacco, parchment, and porcelain. Jean Paul Richter died here in November 1825, and a monument has been erected to his memory.

BA'JA, an important market-town of Hungary, in the circle of Bacs, on the banks of the Danube, and celebrated throughout Austria for its annual swine-fair. Grain and wine, in large quantities, are produced in its neighbourhood. Pop. 14,500.

BA'JAN. See BEJAN.

BAJAZE'T, or BAJASI'D (pronounced Bayaze't), I., Sultan of the Turks, was born in 1347. In 1389, he succeeded his father, Murad I., who fell in battle near Kossova, fighting against the Servians. Immediately on ascending the throne, he inaugurated his rule, after the fashion of eastern kings, by strangling his younger brother Yacub, lest he should dispute the succession. In three years, he conquered Bulgaria, a part of Servia, Macedonia, and Thessaly; he also subdued most of the states of Asia Minor. From the rapidity with which these extraordinary conquests were effected, he received the name of Ilderim—that is, Lightning. He even blockaded Constantinople itself for ten years, thinking to subdue it by famine. To rescue this city, King Sigismund of Hungary (afterwards Emperor of Germany) assembled a large army, in which there were 2000 French nobles under the command of the Duke of Nivvy. With this army, King Sigismund attacked the city of Nikopolis, in Bulgaria, situated on the Danube. B. hastened to meet him, and gained a decisive victory over the allied Hungarians, Poles, and French, on the 28th September 1396. Sigismund escaped captivity only by a speedy flight in disguise; but the greater part of the French, through whose impetuosity the battle was lost, were taken prisoners, and were nearly all executed. B. would now have entirely destroyed the Greek empire, if he had not been prevented by Timur (q.v.), who attacked his possessions in Asia Minor, and completely defeated him on the 16th June 1401, near Angora, the capital of what was anciently called Galatia, on the very spot where Pompey had formerly overthrown Mithridates. B. himself fell into the hands of the conqueror, who treated him with great generosity. The story that he was carried about imprisoned in a cage is without any historical foundation. B. died in 1403, in the camp of Timur. He was succeeded in the government by his son Soliman I. B. was honourably distinguished by his efforts to improve the administration of justice. During the 14 years of his reign, he built a large number of mosques, among others, one at Adrianople, and a second at Broussa, which two cities were then the ordinary residences of the Ottoman princes.

BAJAZE'T II., son of the Sultan Mohammed II., the conqueror of Constantinople, was born in 1447, and ascended the Ottoman throne after his father's death in 1481. His reign, which lasted 32 years, was a succession of uninterrupted wars against Hungary, Poland, Venice, Egypt, and Persia, which were carried on with various success and without any events of striking importance, yet which served on the whole to establish the Ottoman power. The last years of his reign were much disturbed by disputes between his sons about the succession to the throne. Influenced by the preference shewn by the janizaries for his younger son Selim, B. abdicated in his favour, but died before he could reach the place of his voluntary exile, in the neighbourhood of Adrianople, in the year 1513. B. was a friend to the dervishes, at the same time liberal and fond of pomp and splendour. Many of the most beautiful mosques in Constantinople and Adrianople were built by him, and fitted up in a style of the greatest magnificence.

BA'JIMONT'S ROLL, the name given to a valuation, according to which the ecclesiastical benefices of Scotland were taxed, from the end of the 13th c. to the Reformation. It took its name from an Italian churchman, Benemund or Baiamund de Vicci, who was sent from Rome by the pope about the year 1276, to collect the tithe, or tenth part of all the church livings in Scotland, for an expedition to the Holy Land. Hitherto, the Scotch clergy had been taxed according to a conventional valuation, called the *Antiqua Taxatio*. But Baiamund set this aside; and, in spite of their reclamations, assessed the benefices at their actual yearly worth, or *verus valor*. Although more than once referred to as an authoritative document in statutes of the 15th c., no complete copy of B. R., in its original shape, is now known to exist. A contemporary manuscript of so much of the Roll as applies to the archdeaconry of Lothian, or that portion of the diocese of St Andrews which lies to the south of the Forth (comprehending the counties of Berwick, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, and part of Stirlingshire), is preserved at Durham. The real value of the benefices in this district, as set down in B. R., exceeds the conventional value in the *Antiqua Taxatio* in the proportion of 420 to 286. A copy of B. R., as it appears to have existed in the reign of King James V. (1513–1542), is preserved in the Advocates' Library at Edinburgh, in a hand of the beginning of the 17th c. It is full of inaccuracies; and it omits all livings of less than 40 marks a year. Of the *Antiqua Taxatio*, which was superseded by B. R., there are good copies in the handwriting of the 13th c., so far as concerns the benefices in the four dioceses of St Andrews, Brechin, Aberdeen, and Moray.

BAJOCCO, or **BAIOCCO** (pl. BAJOCCHI), is a copper coin in the Papal States, value nearly a halfpenny. It is 1-100th of the scudo, which is equal to 4s. 3½d. In the island of Sicily, the Neapolitan *grano*, the 1-100th part of the ducato (= 3s. 4d.), is also called a bajocco.

BA'JUS, MICHAEL (properly, De Bay), one of the most distinguished theologians of the Catholic Church in the 16th c., was born in 1513 at Melun. He studied at Louvain, and became professor of theology there in 1550. He was present at the Council of Trent in 1563, and also in 1564. He was the founder of a system of theology, based

directly on the Bible and the writings of the Fathers, and setting aside the scholastic method. He had studied much the writings of St Augustine, and therefore confined himself closely within the circle of ideas held by this Father of the church, whose doctrines of the entire inability of the human will to do good, and the absence of merit in all good works, B. defended against the Jesuits. The assertions that the human will, so long as it is left to its own freedom, can do nothing but sin, and that even the mother of our Lord was not free from original and actual sin, together with other such doctrines, drew on him the accusation of heresy. Seventy-six of his propositions were condemned by a papal bull. B. submitted, but nevertheless did not give up his doctrines, and, in consequence, the persecutions to which he was subjected did not cease. He died December 16, 1589, having earned the reputation of great learning, pure manners, and singular modesty. He may be regarded as the predecessor of the Jansenists, who inherited his Augustinian views, which were at that time termed Bajanism. His writings, mostly of a polemical nature, were published by Gerberon (2 vols. Cologne, 1696).

BAJ'ZA, Anton, a Hungarian poet and prose-writer, was born January 31, 1804, at Szilcsi, in Hertes. His Poems (2 vols. 1835), which were published in Pesth, earned for him a place among the best Hungarian lyric poets. In the *Kritischen Blättern*, to which he contributed from 1831—1836, the *Athenæum*, and the *Figyelmezö* (Observer), to which he contributed from 1837—1843, in common with many of the best literary writers of the day, he exercised a beneficial influence on the rising literature of Hungary by his severe criticism, and his solid and theoretically correct essays. He likewise materially aided the Hungarian stage, then in its infancy, by the publication of the *Ausländischen Bühne* (Foreign Dramas, Pesth, 1830), and also by his exertions as director of the National Theatre, opened in Pesth on August 22, 1837. At the same time, he had begun to occupy himself with historical studies, and enriched the literature of Hungary, very poor in this respect, with a *Történeti Könyvtár* (Historical Library, 6 vols., Pesth, 1843—1845), which contained translations from many excellent foreign historical works. He also published a compilation from the German, *Uj Plutarch* (The Modern Plutarch, Pesth, 1845—1847). His *Világ'örtéret* (Universal History, Pesth, 1847) is a rather unskilful compilation from Schlosser, Heeren, Rotteck, and other German historians. After March 1848, Kossuth appointed him editor of his half-official organ, the *Kossuth Hirlapja* (July till December 1848), in conducting which, however, he displayed no great editorial talent. B. was made a member of the Hungarian Academy in 1832. He died, March 1858.

BA'KER, Sir Richard, author of the *Chronicle of the Kings of England*, a book long esteemed and quoted on all matters of English history by the country gentry. Addison makes his model squire, Sir Roger de Coverley, refer to it frequently. Notwithstanding its reputation, however, among that class, the book had no lack of errors, and is now all but forgotten. Its author was born in Kent, or, according to other accounts, in Oxfordshire, about the year 1568. He was educated at Oxford University, and in 1603 was made a knight. About 1620 he married and settled in Oxfordshire, of which county he was made high sheriff; but he was soon after thrown into the Fleet Prison for debt which his wife's family had contracted, but for which he had become responsible. Here he wrote his *Chronicle*, first published in 1641, besides several pious works of less note. He died in prison, in great poverty, in 1645.

BA'KERIES, Army. Armies have generally the means of obtaining soft or loaf bread, though not till recently could this be said of the British army. The French, ever since the time of Louis XIV., have been accustomed to take portable ovens with their armies; those now used will each bake 450 rations at once. Outside Sebastopol, in the winter of 1854, the British soldiers sometimes willingly exchanged with the French three or four pounds of biscuit for one pound of soft bread. The efforts since made to improve the sanitary condition of the army have included the establishment of travelling bakeries for field-service. Under the commissaries, the troops now rarely fail to obtain their daily rations of fresh-baked bread. We were last among the greater nations to make this obvious improvement, but the French depend more on bread and less on meat than the English; and this may partly account for the difference. The French soldiers are taught to construct field-ovens, and to bake their bread in camp, while government B. are established all over France, entirely conducted by soldiers. Among other lessons afforded by the siege of Sebastopol, was one relating to an improved supply of army-bread. Two screw-steamers, the *Bruiser* and the *Abundance*, were sent out to Balaklava, one provided with machinery for grinding corn, and the other with machinery and ovens for making and baking bread. In each case, the ship and the machinery were propelled by the same steam-engine. When quietly anchored in the harbour, the mill ground 24,000 lbs. of flour per day—better in quality, and cheaper than could have been obtained by contract. The bakery ship *Abundance* had four ovens of 14 bushels' capacity each: it baked in an excellent manner 6000 loaves of 3 lbs. each per day, which loaves were sent up to the siege-army as soon as cooled. The ships and machinery were sold when the war was over—a proceeding which the commissariat officers much regretted; but the experience thence obtained will not be lost. The improved arrangements suggested for the meat-rations will be noticed under Cookery, Army.

BA'KEWELL, a small but very ancient town in Derbyshire, on the left bank of the Wye, near its confluence with the Derwent, and 24 miles north-north-west of Derby. It lies on the slope of a hill, in the midst of very beautiful scenery, in a carboniferous limestone tract, and in the vicinity of black marble quarries, and of coal and lead mines. Its chalybeate springs and warm baths are much resorted to. The celebrated Arkwright first established cotton-mills here. On the opposite bank of the Wye are the traces of a castle built by Edward the Elder in 924. B. is now the property of the Duke of Rutland, whose seat is Haddon Hall, two miles from the town. B. is a centre for visiting the fine scenery of North Derbyshire and the Peak; and the streams in the vicinity are much resorted to by anglers. It contains a spacious cruciform church, founded in Saxon times, and shewing specimens of ecclesiastical Gothic architecture of three different periods. The special industry of B. is the turning, polishing, and inlaying of the local marble. Pop. (1871) 2283.

BA'KEWELL, Robert, a celebrated agriculturist, was born in 1726 at Dishley, in the county of Leicester, and died in 1795. He does not appear to have written anything, even upon the subjects with which he was so well acquainted, so that his fame rests entirely upon his successful efforts to improve the breed of domestic animals

His reputation was so great as a breeder of sheep, that he is said to have received the fabulous sum of 400 guineas for one season of a ram. The long-horned breed of cattle which he introduced is still known as the Dishley or New Leicestershire breed. His horses were also famous, and almost as profitable to him as his sheep. One of his objects was to produce a breed of animals that would fatten on the smallest quantity of food.

BAKHTEGA'N, a salt-lake of Persia, province of Farsistan, from which remarkably fine salt is obtained. Its size is variously stated - some writers making it 60 miles in length, with an average breadth of 8 miles; others, only 70 miles in circumference.

BA'KING is the mode of cooking food in an air-tight chamber or oven. The term is also applied in the manufacture of Bricks (q. v.), Porcelain (q. v.), &c. The B. of bread will be treated under BREAD. The oven attached to kitchen-grates for cooking is simply an iron chamber, with flues for conveying the heated gases of the fire round it. In B., strictly so called, the oven is kept close, so that the steam and aroma arising from the enclosed substances are confined; but by opening ventilators a current of air is produced, and then these ovens may be used for what is called *oven-roasting*. The rank taste that often characterises baked dishes is thus avoided. Ovens are now often heated by water, or by steam, and also by gas. Meat for B. is placed in a dish, from the bottom of which it is raised on a wire frame or trivet. In M. Soyer's Baking-dish, a wire frame rests on the edge of the dish, and on this potatoes are laid; a trivet, rising above the frame, supports the meat; while the bottom of the dish contains a Yorkshire pudding; the dripping thus falls upon the potatoes and pudding below.

B., although a convenient mode of cooking, is not considered quite so good as Roasting (q. v.). The practice of having recourse to the baker's oven, saves both trouble and expense in heating, and is a matter of necessity with those who have not means of cooking at home; but it has this chief objection, that every dish becomes impregnated with the steam and odours of all the rest. Soyer pronounces it to be semi-barbarous.

BAKONY WALD (Forest of Bakony), a densely wooded mountain range of Hungary, south of the Danube, dividing the great and little Hungarian plains. Immense herds of swine are annually driven hither to feed upon the mast of the forest. The keepers of these swine furnish those notorious robbers who play so important a part in the ballads of the Hungarian people, and in the imagination of travellers. The saintly King Stephen founded a cloister in the forest 1030 A.D. Only in recent times has this dangerous territory been thoroughly explored. The hills have an average height of 2000 feet, with quarries of valuable marble, in which a considerable export trade is done.

BAKSHISH. The ordinary meaning of this word in Persian is a present; but in the East, in modern times, it has acquired the special signification of gratuity (Gr. *Trinkgeld*), which, however, the orientals do not quietly wait to receive, but demand loudly, and even insolently. Every traveller, whether in Turkey or in Egypt, in Asia Minor or in Syria, if he receives the smallest service from any one, is immediately reminded by the cry of 'Bakshish, Bakshish,' to pay for the courtesy by a gift of money. Even when the ambassadors to the Supreme Porte obtain an audience from the sultan, or from any of the high dignitaries, they are obliged, by the prompt gift of a B., to avoid a peremptory demand for it on the part of the door-keepers and other servants. By degrees, the B. has been fixed by custom at certain sums.

BAKTSHI-SERAI' (the 'City of the Gardens'), the residence of the ancient princes or khans of the Crimea, stands in a deep limestone valley, not far from the present capital, Simferopol. The city is kept in excellent repair, and had a pop. in 1867 of 11,448, consisting almost exclusively of remnants of the old Tatar inhabitants. It thus presents a striking contrast to the modern towns of the Crimea, and is one of the most singular in Europe. The palace of the ancient khans has been completely restored by the Russian government in the oriental style. It consists of a great labyrinth of buildings, courts, and gardens, and is situated about the middle of the town, dividing it into two parts. The chief manufactures of the place consist of articles of copper, Turkish saddles, and silk.

BAKU', a seaport town of the Apsheron peninsula, in the Caspian Sea. It is under the dominion of Russia, and contains 15,933 inhabitants, chiefly Persians and Armenians. The whole soil around B. is impregnated with naphtha, which forms an important branch of its industry. Some of the fountains ignite spontaneously, and this natural phenomenon has caused B. to be esteemed as a holy city by the Parsees or fire-worshippers, many of whom resort to it from very long distances. B., besides its trade in naphtha, exports cotton, silk, opium, saffron, and salt. The Arabian, Masudi, is the first who mentions B., about 943, and he gives an account of a great volcanic mountain in its vicinity, which is now extinct. B. was ceded by the Persians to the Russians in 1813. Captain Baker states that the refuse of the oil drawn from the wells is, after the naphtha has been distilled from it, used now with great success as a substitute for coal in the steamers on the Caspian Sea. He believes that in consequence of the discovery of the value of the oil as a fuel, B., on the completion of railway communication with Russia and Mazanderan, will become a great military and ship-building centre for the Russian territories on the Caspian Sea.

BALA BEDS, a local deposit, occurring in the neighbourhood of Bala, in North Wales, and forming a group in the Lower Silurian of Murchison. They consist of a few beds, rarely more than 20 feet in thickness. The beds are chiefly composed of hard crystalline limestone, alternating with softer argillaceous bands, which decompose more freely, and leave the limestone like a cornice moulding, affording a characteristic by which, at a considerable distance, the B. B. can be distinguished from the rocks of hard gritty slate above and below. Trilobites and Cystideæ are the predominant fossils of the group. Calcareous beds, containing similar fossils, have been noticed in the Silurian district of the south-east of Ireland, and referred to this group.

BALAAM, the name of a prophet who figures prominently in the early history of the Israelites. He is first mentioned in Numbers xxii. 5, where Balak, king of the Moabites, alarmed at the irruption of the chosen people into his territories, is represented as sending messengers to Pethor, in Mesopotamia, the dwelling-place of the seer, to beseech him to come and curse the invaders. The narrative is, of course, familiar to every one, and it is therefore unnecessary to recount it; but it is marked by two peculiarities, which have excited much speculation and controversy. The first is, the admittedly prophetical character of B., who was a *Gentile*; the second is, the curious miracle in the case of his ass. With regard to the supernatural

powers attributed to B. the most prevalent hypothesis is, that he was the last relic of the patriarchal age, during which communion with God was not formally restricted to one race, but diffused more or less among all the Semitic peoples. Some, again, suppose that his knowledge of God, from whom he apparently received miraculous communications, was derived from traditions of the primitive faith scattered over Mesopotamia by Abraham, Jacob, Laban, &c.; though Hengstenberg conceives that he had been led to renounce idolatry by hearing of the miracles which attended the exodus of the Israelites, anticipating, as a reward for his change of worship, a further insight into futurity, and a greater power over nature. B. has ever been considered a type of those men who prostitute their powers and hold the truth in unrighteousness, receiving the wages thereof.

BALÆ'NA. See WHALE.

BALÆNO'PTERA. See RORQUAL.

BALAKLA'VA, a small port in the south-west of the Crimea, separated by a rocky peninsula from the harbour of Sebastopol, from which the direct distance is about 6 miles. Population in 1867, 742. The harbour, which affords secure anchorage for the largest ships, is perfectly landlocked, the entrance being so narrow as scarcely to admit more than one vessel at a time. To the east, overlooking the bay from a rocky eminence, are the ruins of a Genoese fortress. The foundation of the work is excavated into numerous chambers and galleries. It is the *Symbolon Limen* of Strabo; and the present name is supposed by Dr Clarke to be a corruption of the Genoese *Bella-chiara*, or Fair Haven. This was long the seat of a Greek colony; in the 14th c., it fell into the hands of the Genoese; about the end of the 15th, they were expelled by the Turks; and on the conquest of the Crimea by Catharine II. of Russia, it was made a military station for a regiment of Greeks and Albanians. In 1854, a few days after the battle of Alma, the town was occupied by the British army under Lord Raglan, and the harbour formed, during the ensuing campaign, the headquarters of the fleet, and the basis of operation of the army. Here ensued those scenes of mismanagement and confusion that have rendered B. a synonym for chaos, and the recital of which, with the resulting privations and misery to the soldiers, stirred so terribly the heart of England in the winter of 1854—1855. A terrible hurricane on November 14, 1854, in which nine vessels were totally destroyed, and several others seriously injured, tended greatly to increase the confusion which incapacity and divided responsibility first occasioned at Balaklava. Soldiers, six miles distant, were dying for want of food, clothing, and medicine, which were hidden hopelessly beyond reach in store-rooms at B., or stowed away in the holds of ships that were not permitted to enter the harbour. Transport vessels, for which the country was paying enormous sums of money daily, were kept lying idle in port with their most anxiously awaited cargoes (for lack of which the troops were perishing by hundreds) unladen, while poor mutilated and dying soldiers lay miserably exposed on the heights for want of ships to convey them to the hospitals at Scutari. The rebuilding of the greater part of the town, the formation of a line of railway between B. and the camp, and certain official investigations in 1855, completely remedied this disgraceful state of things. The 25th of October 1854 was signalised, on the heights between the town and the Tchernaya, by those unparalleled cavalry charges, the record of which is among the saddest but proudest memories of the British army. A detailed account of the events connected with Balaklava is given in the *Pictorial History of the Russian War*, published by W. and R. Chambers.

BA'LANCE (of doubtful derivation), an instrument for ascertaining the weight of bodies in grains, ounces, pounds, or any other units of weight. The ordinary B. consists of a lever called a beam, whose point of support is in the middle of its length, and having dishes or scales suspended from either extremity. As it is of importance that the beam should move easily round its point of support, it rests on polished agate or steel planes, by means of knife-edges of tempered steel, which project transversely from its sides, and serve as the axis of rotation. By this arrangement, the surface of contact is reduced to a mere line, and the friction of the axis of the beam on its support almost entirely obviated. The scales are hung by means of chains attached to steel hooks, which rest also on knife-edges, but turned upwards instead of downwards, as in the first case. The essential requirements of a B. of this description are: 1st, That the beam shall remain in a horizontal position when no weights are in either scale; and 2d, That the beam shall be a lever of equal arms, or have the distances between the central knife-edge and those at either end exactly the same. To insure the first of these conditions, it is necessary that the centre of gravity of the beam lie vertically below the point of support, when the beam is horizontal. When such is the case, the centre of gravity at which the weight of the beam may be considered to act, oscillates as in a pendulum round the point of support, and always comes to rest right under that point, thus restoring to the beam its horizontal position when it has been tilted out of it. If the centre of gravity were above the point of support, the beam would topple over; and if it coincided with that point, there being no restoring force, the beam would occupy indifferently any position into which it was thrown, the B. in both cases being useless. That a B. possesses the second of the above conditions, is ascertained by putting weights into the scales which keep the beam horizontal, and then transposing them, when, if it still remain so, the lengths of the arms are equal. Should the arms be of different lengths, a less weight at the end of the longer arm will balance a larger weight at the end of the shorter arm (see LEVER); but when transposed, the larger weight having the longer arm, and the smaller weight the shorter, the beam can no longer remain horizontal, but will incline towards the larger weight. A balance with unequal arms is called a false B., as distinguished from an equal-armed or just balance. When weighing with a false B., it is usual to weigh a body in both scales, and take the arithmetical mean—that is, half the sum of the apparent weights for the true weight. This is near enough to the truth when the apparent weights differ little from each other; but when it is otherwise, the geometrical mean (q. v.) must be taken, which gives the exact weight in all cases.

Although the preceding conditions are of essential importance, they do not supply all that we look for in a good balance. It is necessary, in addition, that the beam should turn visibly from its horizontal position, when there is a slight excess of weight in the one scale as compared with the other. This tendency is termed *sensibility*, and depends upon the weight of the beam, the position of its centre of gravity, and the length of its arms. Let ABD (fig. 1) represent the beam of a balance, C the point of suspension, G the centre of gravity, and ACB the straight line joining the knife-edges, which may be taken as the skeleton lever of the balance. We shall here confine our attention to that construction

where the three knife-edges are in a line, because it is the most simple and at the same time the most desirable. We may, without altering the principles of equilibrium, consider the beam reduced to the

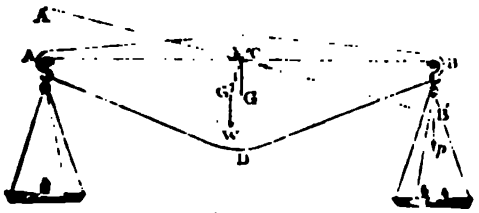


Fig. 1.

lever AB, and embody its weight in a heavy point or small ball at the centre of gravity, G, connected with C by the rigid arm CG. The scales (represented small in the fig. for the sake of space), with the equal weights in them being at an equal distance from C, have their centre of gravity in that point; and their combined pressure acting there, is met directly by the supporting plane, so that they have no influence in determining any particular position of the beam. If a small weight, *p*, therefore, be put into the scale at B, the position of the beam is determined by its rotating tendency (moment) round C, and the counter-rotating tendency of the weight of the beam, W, acting at G. The question of sensibility is thus reduced to the action of the crooked lever GCB, with *p* acting at one end, and W at the other. The relations of the arms and forces of a crooked lever will be found under LEVER. It is only necessary here to state, that the moment of the weight acting at the end of a crooked lever, increases with its size, the length of its arm, and the smallness of the angle which that arm makes with the horizontal line passing through the fulcrum. Let us suppose that, under the effect of the opposing moments, the beam, as represented by the line AB, takes up the position marked by the dotted lines. If, now, we were to lengthen CB', and keep CG' as it is, CG' would rise nearer to the horizontal line, and CB' fall further from it, before equilibrium would be restored; and the inclination of CB', or the beam to the horizontal line, thus being greater, the sensibility of the balance would be increased. Consequently, *the longer the arms of a B. are, all other things being the same, the greater will be its sensibility.* But the same object would be reached by keeping CB' its original length, and shortening CG', or bringing the centre of gravity of the beam nearer to the point of support. The weight of the balance then having a shorter arm, the point G', for the same reason as before, would need to rise higher, and B' sink lower, before A'B' would find its position of rest. Here, also, *the nearer the centre of gravity of the beam is to the point of support, the greater will be the sensibility of the balance.* If now, however, we keep the length of the arms CG', CB' constant, but diminish the weight acting at G, while *p* acting at B' remains the same, it is manifest, that to make up the deficiency in the weight W, the two arms will turn to the left, as in the preceding cases, so as to give W a longer, and *p* a shorter effective arm. The smaller, therefore, the weight acting at G, or *the smaller the weight of the beam, the greater will be the sensibility of the balance.*

In the construction of the B., it is a matter of importance to have the sensibility independent of the amount of weight in the scales, so that, when heavily loaded, a small weight will produce the same inclination as when not loaded at all. This condition is implemented, as we have already shewn, when the three knife-edges are kept in the same straight line. If the line joining the two terminal knife-edges lie below the point of suspension, then the centre of gravity of the equal weights corresponding with the middle of that line, will, upon the turning of the beam, be forced from below that point, and will accordingly have a tendency to resume its former position. The equal weights thus counteract to some extent the effect of the additional weight, in causing the beam to incline, and their influence in this way will be all the greater as they themselves increase. When a B. is too heavily loaded for its strength, the three knife-edges, although previously in a line, do not retain that position, for the arms of the beam yielding to the pressure, cause the terminal knife-edges to sink below the one in the middle, and the knife-edges themselves losing their shape under the pressure, the sensibility is considerably diminished.

When a B. is very sensible, the beam keeps oscillating for a considerable time from one side to the other of the position in which it finally settles. Although such an instrument may be useful for physical and chemical experiments, it is not serviceable for the purposes of ordinary life, where minute quantities of the substance to be weighed are of little value, and where time, and consequently rapidity of indication, are matters of importance. The sensibility of a B. must, therefore, be adjusted to the purpose for which it is designed; sensible balances being employed for weighing finer, and less sensible, or *stable* balances, for weighing coarser materials. The stability, or the tendency of the beam to come quickly to rest, depends on requirements nearly the opposite of those which conduce to sensibility. In the construction treated of above, the stability increases with the moment of the weight of the beam acting at G round C, so that it thus increases with the weight of the beam, and the distance of the centre of gravity from the point of suspension. The stability is also increased, as already

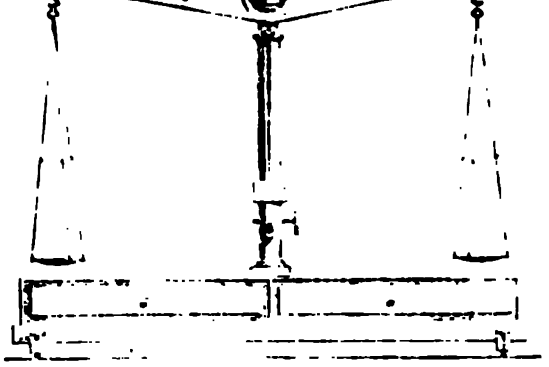


Fig. 2.

shewn, by having the line joining the scale knife-edges below the point of support.

Fig. 2 is the representation of a common form of the delicate balances employed in physical and chemical researches. The beam is constructed so as to combine lightness with strength, and rests by a fine knife-edge on an agate plane. It is surmounted

by a weight moving on a screw, so that the sensibility may be increased or diminished, according as the weight is raised or depressed. In order that the knife-edge may not become blunted by constant contact with the supporting plane, a cross-bar, with two projecting pins, is made to lift the beam from the plane, and sustain its weight when the balance is not in play. The beam is divided by lines marked upon it into ten equal parts, and a small weight made of fine wire bent into the form of a fork, called a rider, is made to slide along to any of the divisions. If the rider be, for instance, $\frac{1}{10}$ of a grain, and if, after the weight of a body is very nearly ascertained, it brings the beam, when placed at the first division next the centre, exactly to its horizontal position, an additional weight of $\frac{1}{100}$ of a grain will be indicated. The use of inconveniently small weights is, by this arrangement, to a large extent obviated. As the beam takes some time before it comes to rest, it would be tedious to wait in each case till it did so, and for this reason a long pointed index is fixed to the beam below the point of suspension, the lower extremity of which moves backward and forward on a graduated ivory scale, so that when the index moves to equal distances on either side of the zero point, we are quite certain, without waiting till it finally settles, that the beam will be horizontal. The same is seen in ordinary balances, only the tongue or index is above the beam; and according to its deviation on each side of the fork or cheeks by which the whole is suspended, is the future position of the beam ascertained. The finer balances are never loaded to more than a pound in each scale, and when so charged, will deflect with $\frac{1}{100}$ of a grain of additional weight in one of the scales, or will turn, as it is technically called, with $\frac{1}{12500}$ of the load. The finest balances turn with $\frac{1}{1000000}$ of the load, and some have been constructed which turned with much less. Even with the best achievements of mechanical skill, no B. can be made whose arms are absolutely equal; and to remedy this defect, the method of double-weighing is resorted to, when the utmost accuracy is demanded. This consists in placing the body to be weighed into one scale, and sand, or the like, into the other, until exact equilibrium is obtained, then removing the body, and putting weights or another body in its place which exactly counterbalance the sand. Both being thus weighed in precisely similar circumstances, must weigh precisely the same.

The Roman B., or *Steelyard* (Ger. *Schnellwage*), is

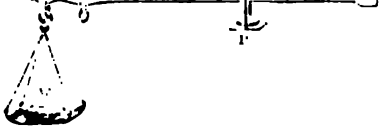


Fig. 3.

more portable than the ordinary balance. It consists of a lever (fig. 3), AB, moving round a knife-edge or point at C. The body to be weighed, W, is put into the scale which hangs from A; and a movable weight, P, is made to slide along the longer arm, until the lever, AB, remains horizontal. The weight of W is then read off from the division at which P rests. If the lever be horizontal when unloaded, then equal weights at equal distances from C will balance each other, so that when W is balanced by P at a distance from C equal to AC, the two are of equal weight; but if equilibrium take place when P, say, is ten times as far from C as A is, then W will be ten times the weight of P; and the same holds for any intermediate point at which P may stand. W weighing as many times P as P's arm is a multiple of W's arm. To weigh a body of 10 lbs. by the ordinary B., a counterweight of 10 lbs. is necessary, making a total load of 20 lbs.; but in the case just supposed, 1 lb. balances 10, making a total load of only 11 lbs. The steelyard has, therefore, this advantage over the common B., that the load on the fulcrum, and consequently the friction, is less. On the other hand, however, there is this disadvantage, that the arms of the steelyard bend unequally under the strain of great weights, which in a B. with equal arms cannot, to the same extent, take place. As the steelyard is ordinarily made, the longer arm preponderates when the lever is unloaded, so that the graduation of the longer arm begins at a point between A and C, and not at C. The *Danish B.* differs from the ordinary steelyard in having the weight fixed to the extremity of the lever, and the fulcrum movable.

The *Bent Lever B.* (Fr. *peson*, Ger. *Zeigerwage*), shewn in fig. 4, is a lever of unequal arms, A, C, B, moving round the pivot C, having a scale, Q, attached to the shorter arm AC, and a fixed weight, W, to the longer arm CB. The longer arm ends in a pointer moving in front of a fixed graduated arc. When a body is put into the scale, the pointer rises from the bottom or zero point of the arc, and rests opposite the mark corresponding to the weight of it. The higher the weight W rises, the longer becomes its *effective* arm, and the greater must be the weight it balances. The arc is generally graduated experimentally, the geometrical graduation being somewhat complicated.

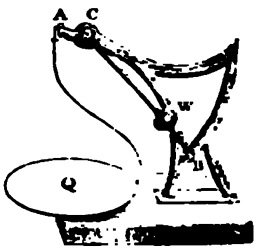


Fig. 4.

For other weighing apparatus, see SPRING-BALANCE; WEIGHING-MACHINES.

BA'LANCE AND BA'LANCE-SPRING. The balance of a watch is a wheel finely poised on its axis; the pivot-holes in which it turns being frequently—in chronometers and clocks, as well as in watches—jewelled, or made of small rubies, diamonds, &c., for the sake of durability. The natural effect of an impulse given to such a wheel would be a complete rotation on its axis. This, however, is convertible, by the escapement (q. v.) and by the balance-spring, into a vibratory motion. The balance-spring is held to be a crowning invention in the mechanism of the watch; and the honour of its first suggestion has been claimed for no less than three very eminent men—for Dr Hooke, an Englishman; for Abbé Hautefeuille, a Frenchman; and for Hüygens, the Dutch astronomer. The honour, however, undoubtedly belongs to Hooke.

The balance-spring consists of a coil of steel wire, so delicately manufactured that 4000 of them scarcely weigh more than one ounce, though often costing more than £1000. In its application to the balance of a watch, one of the extremities (*e*, fig. 1) of the spring is fastened to a point independent of the balance, while the other is attached near its axis. When the balance is at rest, the spring is inclined neither way, this

position being called the point of rest; but when the impulse is given to the balance by the crown-wheel of the escapement, the balance moves round just so far as the impulse given is able to overcome the elastic resistance of the spring. When that resistance becomes equal to the impulse given, the balance stops for a moment, and then is driven back by the elastic recoil of the spring, and continues thus to vibrate so long as the impulse is repeated or the watch is in motion.

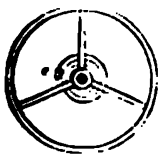


Fig. 1.

The recoil of the spring is sufficient to drive back the balance to a distance nearly double the length of its first motion; this is, therefore, called the long arc of vibration. But when the motion of the balance is free, with a certain length of spring, the *long* arc of vibration is made in less time than the short one, to which the impulse is given: with a spring of greater length this relation is reversed; whence it was concluded by Le Roy and Berthoud, that equality of time, or *isochronism*, in unequal vibrations, could be more easily obtained by lengthening the spring than by tapering it. In England, where time-keepers have been brought to their greatest perfection, it is considered that isochronism is most easily attainable by using the cylindrical helical spring (*s*, fig. 2), which is applied to all marine chronometers.

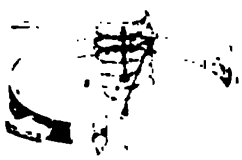


Fig. 2

An improvement in watches, or rather in chronometers, invented by Mr Dent of London, consists in coating the balance and balance-spring with gold by the electro-metallurgic process, by which means they are secured from rust.

BALANCE OF POWER, an expression used in diplomacy for that state of matters in which no one of the European states is permitted to have such a preponderance as to endanger the independence of the others. This idea is not, as some say, confined to modern times. The Greek states acted upon it by a kind of instinct of self-preservation, though it was not directly formulated. It has, however, become more distinctly avowed as a motive of political conduct, and more systematically acted upon, since the time of Charles V., whose overgrown power and ambitious designs awakened the other European powers to the danger of such overwhelming preponderance in one state. The motive of preserving the B. of P. came first distinctly into the force and in those unions which England, Holland, and Austria repeatedly formed against the menacing schemes of Louis XIV. for acquiring the dominion of all Europe. It was the same cause that broke up the most dangerous (for Louis) of these coalitions; for in the war of the Spanish Succession, when the Hapsburg pretender to the Spanish throne became, by the death of Joseph I., sovereign of Austria and Emperor of Germany, and the power which, in the hands of Charles V., had menaced the equilibrium of Europe, was thus likely to be again wielded by one man, England withdrew from the coalition, and thus saved Louis from a decided overthrow. The aggressions of Napoleon called all the powers of Europe to arms against him in the name of the B. of P.; and in readjusting the map of Europe, the B. of P. was often invoked to cover the jealousy which resisted not a few claims to restitution of itory. For some time, the B. of P. in Europe has been embodied, as it were, in a pentarchy or permanent congress of the five great powers, who mutually watch one another's movements. This mutual jealousy among the leading powers on the score of extension of boundaries, is looked to as the great safeguard of the smaller states, preventing their absorption by their powerful neighbours. It was the dread of a coalition against him that made the Emperor of Russia agree to the treaty of 1841, and the Crimean war arose out of Russia's renewed attempt to extend her dominion over Turkey. Latterly, the doctrine of non-intervention has to a certain extent gained ground among politicians; and the formation of the kingdom of Italy, the results of the Franco-German war of 1870, and the formation of the German empire, have modified the old ideas, and brought into play new combinations whose results can hardly yet be foreseen.

BALANCE OF TRADE. In the 'mercantile system' of political economy, which looks upon the possession of gold as the grand aim, it not unnaturally came to be a maxim that a nation becomes richer just in proportion as the money-value of its exports exceeds that of its imports; the excess, it was thought, being paid in gold, is just so much added to the national wealth. Now, the difference between the money-value of the exports and imports of a state is called the 'balance of its trade;' and by the adherents of the mercantile system, this balance was said to be 'in favour' of the country or 'against' it, according as the exports or the imports shewed the excess.

But this view of the matter rests on a twofold error; for, in the first place, the increase of national wealth is by no means to be identified with the immediate influx of hard cash; nor is gold the highest expression of national wealth, but only a means of turning real wealth and the faculty of labour to account. Further, the assumption that excess of exports represents excess of income, is completely false. It takes exports for income (because payment is received for them), imports for expenditure (because they must be paid for), while it would be more consistent with the truth to say that exports are identical with expenditure, and imports with income; so that wealth increases in proportion as the value of the imports (what is received) exceeds that of the exports (what is given away); and that whether these exports and imports consist solely of goods or partly of money. It may sometimes be desirable to get payment of exports in gold—that is, to import bullion. But the case in which this will be beneficial to the merchant trading on his own profit in the transaction, will be that in which it will be beneficial to the community. In the majority of cases, however, the individual merchant finds it his best policy to lay out the money due to him in a foreign country in purchasing the wares of that country as return-value. The far-sighted Venetians early recognised the truth of the principle in a national point of view; for, by a law of 1272, they laid a tax of one-fourth the value on the importation of all coined gold and silver. The mercantile system of political economy, on the contrary, consistently following up the notion of the B. of T., enacted laws prohibiting importation of foreign manufactures, or imposing high duties upon them, and giving premiums and other protective encouragements for exportation; as if it were possible to go on exchanging always for gold only, ever exporting goods and goods alone, and never importing any. If this could be, and if it were true that a nation with the B. of T. constantly in its favour must become richer, while, with that balance against it, it must become poorer, England, whose official

returns have for many years exhibited a large excess of exports over imports, must have had at this time about 500 million pounds in precious metals, while in reality the amount does not exceed perhaps 60 millions. The truth is, that no safe conclusion can be drawn from the B. of T. exhibited in official statements; from the way in which they are arrived at, a great part of the facts of the cases are necessarily left out. Almost all nations exhibit favourable balances, and how could that be possible, if the whole affair were not deceptive? In the regular legitimate commerce between two nations, both actually gain, though the gain may not be exhibitable in the form of a money-balance. If the gains of nations from commerce consisted of differences between the amount of exports and of imports to be compensated by balances in money, nearly all nations would be yearly receiving accessions of gold and silver, the united amount of which would exceed, by more than ten times, the produce of all the mines in the world.

BA'LANUS, a genus of *Cirrhopoda* (q. v.); the type of a family, including all those cirrhopods which are destitute of a flexible stalk, and of which the shell is symmetrical. These characters at once distinguish them from Barnacles (q. v.). In the genus B., the base is usually formed of a thin calcareous plate, the sides of six valves; and four small valves form the operculum, exactly closing the aperture at the top. The name (signifying an acorn) was originally given by the ancient Greeks, from a supposed resemblance of some of the kinds to acorns; and acorn-shell has sometimes been adopted as an English name. There are many species, and they are found in almost all seas, attached to stones, timber, shells, crustaceans, &c. They cover the rocks between high and low water-mark on many parts of the coast as with a white calcareous incrustation, so that arithmetic fails in computing, and imagination in conceiving their multitudes. They may, however, be readily passed over as individually objects of little interest when they are seen after the tide has left them, for then their valves are closed, and they exhibit no sign of life; but if observed in a pool of the rocks, or anywhere under water, they present a very different and extremely pleasing spectacle, the opercular valves continually opening and shutting with a quick but pretty regular motion, and an exquisitely delicate apparatus of feathery arms or cirrhi (see CIRRHOPODA) being as frequently thrown out and retracted like a hand or a little net, to seize and carry in to the mouth the minute nutritious particles or very small animals upon which the creature feeds. Thus, the little balani, immovably fixed to the rock, or carried about at the pleasure of mollusks or crustaceans to which they adhere, obtain their food from the waters around them.

A remarkable fact in the natural history of these creatures has recently been discovered by Mr Thompson of Cork, that in the earlier stages of their existence they are not fixed as in their adult state, but move about very actively in a succession of bounds, by means of swimming-feet like those of the *Cyclops* (q. v.); having, however, a shell, apparently of two valves, resembling a very minute muscle. Still more remarkable is the discovery made along with this, that in their early locomotive state they possess large stalked eyes, which disappear along with the organs of locomotion when they attach themselves—probably by the guidance of some peculiar instinct—to their final place of repose, undergoing a transformation into perfect cirrhopods, and acquiring as a covering their many-valved shell.

Some of the larger species of B. were esteemed a delicacy by the ancient Romans. The Chinese entertain the same estimation of *B. tintinnabulum*, which is said to resemble lobster in taste; and *B. psittacus*, a South American species, which is in like manner compared to crab, is exported in large quantities from Concepcion de Chili to Valparaiso and Santiago. This species is sometimes almost four inches in diameter, the height considerably more. It is chopped off the rocks with a hatchet. The two posterior opercular valves are beaked, from which it receives the name of *Pico*, and its scientific trivial name, *psittacus* (a parrot).

BALASO'RE, a seaport in the district of Cuttack and presidency of Bengal, near the Boorabalung, which enters the sea to the west of the Hoogly or Calcutta River. It is situated in lat. 21° 30' N. and long. 87° E., and has dry-docks and a coasting-trade; but it is entitled to notice chiefly in connection with the past, having been the seat, successively, of Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish factories. It was only in 1846 that the Danes sold their interest in the place to the English.

BA'LATON, LAKE OF (Platten-See), a lake, the largest in Hungary, about 55 miles south-west of Pesth. Its extreme length is 48 miles, with a breadth of from 3 to 10 miles, and an estimated area, including its frequently submerged marshes, of 420 square miles. Its greatest depth is 39 feet. It is supplied by upwards of thirty streams—the chief of which is the Szala—as well as by numerous springs which rise on its margin. Its outlet is by the Sio, which discharges itself into the Sarvitz, a feeder of the Danube. The waters of B. are clear and transparent, except when they are agitated by a storm, when they assume a bluish colour. They have a slightly brackish taste. Fish of various kinds are found in abundance, and sand impregnated with iron, interspersed with which are small garnets, rubies, and other precious stones, is taken from it. Woods and vineyards cover the hills which encircle its northern sides, and on its banks near the town of Füred there is a spring of acidulous water. The surrounding country is rich in rare plants and mineral treasures, and was the scene of several bloody conflicts during the Hungarian war (1848—1849). The lake itself figures prominently in the old romantic ballads of the Magyars.

BALAU'STA. See BERRY.

BA'LAY, or BA'LAIS, the name now used to distinguish the ruby of a bright rose-colour from the ruby proper, which is of a bright red or cochineal colour, and from the *spinelle* ruby, which is of a red hue approaching to rose-colour. This last kind of ruby has been recognised only in times which are comparatively modern. In the middle ages, they seem to have known only the B. ruby and the ruby proper, or *le beau rubis*, as it was often called. M. de Laborde thinks that the term B. was anciently employed as a name for all sorts of rubies.

BALBI, ADRIANO, well known by his geographical, and more especially by his statistical works, was born in Venice on the 25th of April 1782. In 1808 he gained so much credit in Italy by his first geographical work, that he was appointed Professor of Geography in the college of San Michele at Murano, and in 1811 Professor of Physics in the Lyceum at Fermo. Subsequently he resided for a time in Portugal, and then went to Paris, to superintend the publication of his *Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal et d'Algarve* (2 vols., Par. 1822). This work was soon followed by the *Variétés Politiques et Statistiques de la Monarchie Portugaise* (Par. 1822). B. lived in Paris till 1832. He was the intimate friend of Malte Brun, from

whose papers he, jointly with Larenaudière and Huot, published the *Traité Elementaire de Géographie* (2 vols., Par. 1830–1834). He also published several works of comparative national statistics. His *Atlas Ethnographique du Globe* (Par. 1826) is distinguished by its extensive accumulation of facts and views, giving an account of German researches on the subject, and entering into questions of comparative philology. B.'s best known work is, however, the *Abrégé de Géographie* (3d edition, Par. 1838), which has been translated into several languages. In the year 1832 he returned to Italy, and settled at Padua, where he died 14th March 1848. A collection of his *Scritti Geografici* was made by Eugene Balbi (5 vols., Turin, 1841—1842).

BALBI, Gaspard, a Venetian merchant of the 16th c., who is worthy of mention as the first traveller who has left an account of India beyond the Ganges. In the pursuit of his calling, B. was often led to Aleppo, and from thence, on one occasion, he made a visit to India, which lasted several years. After his return to Venice, he published, in 1590, the results of his travels in a volume entitled *Viaggio all' Indie Orientali*. A Latin translation was printed in De Bry's *Collection of Voyages and Travels to the East Indies*, published at Frankfort in 1590–1594. B. appears to have set down, without exaggeration, all that he himself saw, and is particularly minute and exact concerning commercial matters; but there is scarcely any limit to his credulity with regard to what he heard from others about the country. From Aleppo, his journey was down the Euphrates until opposite Bagdad; thence down the Tigris to Bassorah, where he embarked for the Malabar coast. Having visited Goa and Cochin, and other Portuguese settlements, he sailed for Pegu, then an independent empire, where he remained two years, returning by the same route. The most interesting part of his narrative is that relating to Pegu.

BALBINUS, Decimus Caelius, one of the two emperors of Rome whom the senate elected on hearing of the death of the elder Gordianus, and his son, in Africa, in opposition to Maximinus, who had the support of the legions in Germany. He was celebrated as an orator and a poet, and was a man of mild disposition. His coadjutor, Marcus Clodius Pupienus Maximus, was a bold and resolute soldier who had risen from the people. They had only reigned a few months, during which time Maximinus had been killed by his own soldiers, who afterwards submitted to Maximus, when they were both killed in 242 A. D. by the pretorians, who at that time were animated by bitter hostility to the civilians, and extended it to the rulers who had been elected by them.

BALBO, Cesare, an Italian statesman and author, was born 21st November 1789 at Turin. When 18 years old, B., whose father had enjoyed the patronage of Napoleon, was appointed auditor of the Council of State in Paris, and in 1812 he was made commissioner for the Illyrian provinces, ceded to France by the Peace of Vienna. After the fall of Napoleon, B. went to London as secretary of the Sardinian embassy. After leaving political affairs, he devoted himself to the study of history, and among other works produced during the years 1821–1843, were a *History of Italy*, which, however, extended only to the reign of Charlemagne; and a translation with commentary of Leo's *Development of the Constitution of the Lombardic Towns*. His *Speranze d'Italia* ('Hopes of Italy'), published in 1843, first extended his literary reputation to foreign countries. One of its main objects was to prove that national independence must precede the enjoyment of constitutional liberty; and that to strive after the latter, however good in itself, so long as the former had not been secured, was both foolish and reprehensible. It gave a vivid and intelligent picture of the political condition of Italy, its aims and prospects. His compendium of Italian history (*Della Storia d'Italia*, &c.) was also successful. B. took a prominent part as a moderate liberal in the political movements of 1847–1848, and subsequently supported the ministry of Azeglio. He died 3d June 1853. He was a man of strict morality and unspotted character. In all his writings, B. adhered strongly to the Roman Catholic Church, whose truth he conceived to be the healing of nations as well as of individuals, and the only source of true culture.

BALBOA, Vasco Nunez de, a Spanish conqueror, was born of a noble but reduced family at Xeres-de-Caballeros in 1475. After leading rather a dissolute life in his youth, he gladly took part in the great mercantile expedition of Rodrigo de Bastidas to the New World. He established himself in St Domingo, and began to cultivate the soil; but fortune proving adverse, in order to escape from his creditors, he had himself smuggled on board a ship, and joined the expedition to Darien in 1510, commanded by Francisco de Enciso. It is curious to reflect that the man destined to discover the eastern shores of the largest ocean on the globe, should have been compelled to secret himself in a cask before he could share in the new enterprise. An insurrection which took place obtained for B. the supreme command in the new colony. Confused accounts which reached him of a great western ocean, impelled him, in 1513, to set out in quest of it. On the 25th of September of this year, he obtained the first sight of the Pacific Ocean from a mountain-top in the Isthmus of Panama. His natural enthusiasm at this great discovery was shared by all the educated men of his time, and the descriptions of it by contemporary authors may still be read with much interest. The governorship of the territories conquered by B. was obtained in 1514 by Pedrarias Davila, by means of his intrigues at the Spanish court. B. resigned the command into the hands of the new governor, a narrow-minded and cruel man, and, in a subordinate situation, undertook many successful expeditions; but these, and all his other merits, only served to increase the hatred of Pedrarias Davila towards him. The government of the mother-country sought in vain to mediate between them, and B. even married the daughter of Pedrarias. But on the first occasion of dispute which arose, B., having been induced by Pedrarias to deliver himself up, was accused of a design to rebel, and in violation of all forms of justice was beheaded at Santa Maria in 1517.

BALBRIGGAN, a small maritime town in Dublin county, 22 miles north of Dublin. It is a seat of cotton, calico, and stocking manufactures. The cotton stockings made here are remarkable for fineness of texture and beauty of open work. Many females are employed in embroidering muslins. B. is a favourite watering-place. After the battle of the Boyne, William encamped here. Pop. (1871) 2332.

BALCONY, or **BALCONY** (Ital. Balcone), a projecting gallery in front of a window or of several windows, with a balustrade or parapet before it, and supported by consoles, or brackets fixed in the wall, or by pillars resting on the ground below. The B. was unknown in Greek and Roman architecture, and is probably an Italian contrivance, as the earliest examples of it occur in Italy, to the climate of which country it is peculiarly adapted. Balconies constructed of wood are of constant occurrence in the

cottage architecture of Switzerland, to the picturesque character of which they add very essentially.

Balcony.

BALCONY, the gallery or stern-walk outside the stern of a large ship. Three-deckers have two such balconies, and two-deckers one. Where there are two, the lowermost is connected with the admiral's state-cabin, and the uppermost with the captain's cabin.

BALDACHIN (Ital. *Baldachino*), signifies a kind of canopy, of the form of a tent or umbrella, made of costly materials and richly adorned, which is either supported on pillars, or fastened to the wall over a throne or couch, or over a pulpit, an altar, or other sacred object. One of the most celebrated is the B. in the church of St Peter's in Rome, cast in bronze by Bernini, which is supported on four large twisted columns. B. was also the name formerly given to a kind of umbrella of a square form, made of silk brocade or other rich material, and supported on four poles, which was wont to be carried in the middle ages at solemn processions, coronations, marriages, &c., over the heads of royal personages or high dignitaries as a symbol of their rank. In Europe, the B. is now chiefly used in the processions of the Roman Catholic Church. It is generally borne over the priest who carries the Host. The word B., as well as the thing itself, comes from the east. Partly as a protection from the burning rays of the sun, partly as a symbol of their power and dignity, the rulers and great personages of the east seldom appeared in public, whether on foot or on horseback, in a litter or on an elephant, without a splendid canopy, often borne by the great men or chief officers of their kingdom. These canopies, generally made in the form of a tent or umbrella, were often sent, in the early part of the middle ages, as presents from eastern princes to those in the west; as, for example, from the Calif Harun-al-Raschid to Charlemagne. During the Crusades, and the consequent trade with the east, they became well known to the Italians. Such canopies, as well as the rich stuffs of which they were made, were called, from the land whence they came, Babylonica; and also Baldachins, from Baldach, the east rn name of the city of Bagdad.

BALDER, or **BALDUR**, a divinity worshipped by the ancient Scandinavians, and probably also by the other Germanic nations, is the hero of one of the most beautiful and interesting of the myths of the Edda. B., who, according to old northern mythology, was the second son of Odin and Frigga, and the husband of Nanna (maiden), dreamed evil dreams which threatened his life. When he related them to the gods, they held a council and endeavoured to secure his safety. Frigga took an oath from fire and water, from iron and all metals, from stones, earth, and plants, beasts and birds, the serpent, poison and all diseases, that they would not harm Balder. After this was done, the gods in their mirth sported with B., wrestled with him, and cast darts at him, but nothing could injure him. While the gods rejoiced at this, the thing displeased Loki (mischievous cunning or destructive fire). He changed himself into the form of an old woman, and inquiring the cause of the invulnerability of B., was told by Frigga that all things, animate and inanimate, had sworn not to harm him, with the exception of one little shrub, the mistletoe. Loki went in haste to fetch this shrub, and repaired with it to the assembly of the gods, where he placed it in the hands of the blind Höder, the god of war, directed his aim, and B. fell pierced to the heart. The sorrow of the gods was unutterable. Frigga asked who, to win her favour, would journey to Hel—the goddess of Hades or the grave—to release Balder. Hermoder or Helmod (the heroic), the son of Odin, readily offered his services, and Hel consented to grant his request on condition that all things should weep for Balder. All men, all living beings, and all things wept, save the witch or giantess Thöck (the step-daughter of Loki), who refused to sympathise in the general mourning. B. was therefore obliged to remain in the kingdom of Hel until the end of the world.

The myths of B. have been very differently interpreted. B., as the originator of all that is beneficent and good—for B. and the other sons of Odin (see SCANDINAVIAN MYTHOLOGY) are only personified aspects or functions of the dimly conceived one unseen Power that moves all nature—is represented as a hero of so lovely and graceful a manly beauty, that a brilliant light streams from his person; the whitest of the northern flowers is named *Balders-brow*. As the god of peace of the Germanic nations, who conducts to peace through battle and victory, he is a purely ethical conception, a mythical personification of the peace obtainable through conflict, and agreed to by compact among the gods. The gods, foreseeing doubtless that peace cannot long endure, seek in every possible way to secure the precious life of B., as even the weakest and most insignificant have it in their power to destroy peace. Loki, in his symbolical character as the god of retributive justice, stirs up Höder, or War, through whom the god of peace falls. Höder, indeed, is also slain by Wali, or Val-fader, the battle-god, and the war is ended by a bloody overthrow; but once violated and broken, peace is irrevocably lost along with Balder. Hermoder or Helmod labours in vain to restore it, for the giantess Thöck (retaliation, revenge) prevents it. Holy and true peace can only revive again in a new world, when the old sinful world and the old guilt-stained gods now ruling it shall have been destroyed.—Others (among them Max Muller) see in the myth of B. a representation of the contest between Winter and Summer. Compare Weinhold *Die Sagen von Loki*, in Haupt's *Zeitschrift für Deutsches Alterthum* (Leip. 1849).

BALDNESS (*alopecia*). See HAIR. There are some rare cases on record in which the hair has never been developed. This is termed congenital *baldness*.

Accidental baldness may involve the whole scalp

ay be only in patches; these patches may run each other, and hence some consider this con- a species of ringworm. It is caused, says Erasmus Wilson, by an atrophy of the hair-les (q. v.). B. in the comparatively young and le-aged may occur from wearing waterproof which, by preventing evaporation from the occasion an unhealthy state of skin. Naval itary officers are liable to B. arising from this

ile baldness (calvities) is not necessarily consequence of age—it may arise, like the ding variety, from an atrophy of those parts hich the hairs depend for nutrition. It gener- commences on the crown of the head, where mmly of blood is naturally less abundant. have a greater quantity of soft tissue under , therefore the vessels are less likely to be d with; hence they are not so frequently n.

e causes of B. are the defective supply of tion just mentioned, a family tendency, late , dissipation, but especially old age. The hair off after severe illnesses, or after other causes neral debility. During pregnancy the hair falls and in this country we often see the long hair oung women, victims to consumption, almost letely shed.

eatment of baldness consists in attention to s, and in exciting the languid circulation scalp to greater activity, by using a hard rush, and the application of stimulants, as Spanish-fly ointment in the proportion of two ms to an ounce of lard mixed with about the quantity of pomatum. Or the stimulants may plied in the form of lotions. But at the same constitutional debility should be remedied by tion to the various functions of the body; s should be administered; and, if possible, s of anxiety or night-watching should be ed. Shaving the whole head is sometimes ted to. If these remedies are successful, downy hair, like that of an infant, begins to grow, may or may not acquire the colour and ous appearance of the former growth.

LDO, Mo'nte, a mountain of Lombardy, on ast of Lake Garda, with an elevation of 7100 It contains interesting petrifactions, and the sand known as the sand of Verona.

LDRICK, or BAU'DRICK (Fr. *Baudrier*), band or sash worn partly as a military and

Baldrick.

y as a heraldic symbol. It passes round the t as a girdle, or passes over the left shoulder, s brought down obliquely under the right arm, suspended from the right shoulder in such y as to sustain a sword. Many of the effigies nights contain representations of the B., more frequently as a belt than a shoulder-sash. Queen Victoria frequently wears a blue silken B. on state occasions. The name is derived from the *balteus* of the Roman soldier.

BA'LDUNG, Hans, called also Hans Grün, a German painter and wood engraver, a contemporary of Albert Durer, to whom, in expression, colouring, and finish, he was little inferior as a painter. He was born in Gmünd, Swabia, about 1470, and died at Strasburg in 1552. His master-piece, a painting of the Crucifixion, is in the cathedral of Freiburg; his wood engravings are numerous.

BA'LDWIN I., the first Latin emperor of Constantinople, was born at Valenciennes in 1171 A.D., his parents being Baldwin, Count of Hainault, and Margaret, Countess of Flanders. In 1193, he succeeded to his mother's possessions, and in the year following, to the title and county of his father. In 1200, he appointed his brother Philip, along with other persons, to the regency of Hainault and Flanders, and joined the fourth Crusade. Part of the Crusaders B. among others—were induced to assist the Venetians in reconquering Zara, in Dalmatia, from the king of Hungary. While at Zara, the young Alexis, son of Isaac II., emperor of Constantinople, craved the assistance of the Crusaders against his uncle Alexis Angelus, who, having deposed and blinded Isaac II., had usurped the throne. In return for their aid, he promised them a liberal sum of money, and also to help them to recover Palestine. The Crusaders agreed, and soon defeated the usurper's forces, and restored the rightful emperor; but Alexis having some difficulty in carrying out his promises, they turned their arms against him. A revolution breaking out in the city at the same time, Alexis the younger was murdered, and his father is said to have died of grief. Alexis Ducas Murzuphlus then usurped the throne, but was defeated by the Crusaders, and the city was sacked—the Crusaders and Venetians sharing the booty. B. was chosen emperor, and crowned on the 9th May 1204; but he received only about a fourth part of the empire—Constantinople and Thrace—the Venetians obtaining the greater share of the provinces. A part also fell to the French adventurers who accompanied the expedition, and several provinces remained in the hands of Greek princes. The abilities of B.—and they appear to have been of a superior character—were not able to cope with the evils necessarily attending so anomalous a position. The Greeks were discontented, and, backed by Calo-Joannes, king of Bulgaria, while B.'s brother, with the flower of his troops, was away on an expedition in Asia, they rose and massacred the Latins scattered throughout the towns of Thrace, and made themselves masters of Adrianople. B. laid siege to the town with the forces he had at his disposal; but he was defeated and taken prisoner by the Bulgarian king, and died about a year after (1206) in captivity. He was succeeded by his brother Henry.

BA'LDWIN II., emperor of Constantinople, was born in 1217. He was the son of Peter de Courtenay and Yolanda, Countess of Flanders, sister of Baldwin I. Being but 11 years old when, by the death of his brother Robert, he succeeded to the throne, he was placed under the guardianship of John of Brienne, titular king of Jerusalem, who died about 1237. B. then assumed the rod of empire, but he had neither the means nor the ability to wield it successfully against his powerful Greek and Bulgarian opponents. Two beggingvisits to Western Europe, in one of which he left his son Philip in pledge at Venice for a

debt, and disposed of several most holy relics for money, were not successful in procuring him sufficient forces to resist his foes; and on the night of the 15th of July 1261, his capital was taken by one of the generals of Michael Palæologus, ruler of Nicæa, and B. fled to Italy. With him terminated the Latin Empire in the East, after it had lasted 57 years. His descendants for more than a century retained the title of emperor.

BALDWIN I., king of Jerusalem, 1100—1118, was born in 1058. He was the youngest brother of Godfrey de Bouillon (q. v.), Duke of Lower Lorraine or Brabant. He took part in the first Crusade; but having quarrelled with Tancred, he retired to Edessa, at the request of the Christian inhabitants of the place, and was soon after elected to be Count of Edessa. After the death of his brother Godfrey, in 1100, he became Protector of the Holy Sepulchre, and Baron of Jerusalem, and immediately assumed the regal title, which his brother had refused. He conquered Cæsarea, Ashdod, and Tripolis, and with the assistance of a Genoese fleet, he became master also of Acre, and subsequently of Sidon, but failed to reduce Ascalon. He died in 1118. Unlike his brother, who was a disinterested enthusiast, B. was worldly and ambitious.—BALDWIN II. (Baldwin du Bourg), cousin of Baldwin I., who had made him Count of Edessa when he ascended the throne of Jerusalem, succeeded him, and reigned from 1118 to 1131. During his reign Tyre was taken, in 1124, with the assistance of a Venetian fleet; and the order of the Templars was instituted. Having been taken prisoner by the Turks, B. endured a captivity of six months. He died on the 21st of August 1131, leaving four daughters. Shortly before his death he resigned the crown in favour of his son-in-law, Foulques of Anjou, who reigned till 1134.—BALDWIN III., king of Jerusalem, 1143—1162, the son and successor of Foulques of Anjou, was born in 1129. He was a model of knighthood, which, during the period of the first Crusades, was a personification of Honour, Justice, Devotion, and Love. Edessa was lost to the Christians during his reign. In 1152, he fought victoriously at Jerusalem against Noureddin, the sultan of Aleppo. In 1157, after he had defeated the same prince at Jacob's Ford, on the Jordan, he again humbled him severely near Putaha. After this, he ruled in peace, and endeavoured to improve both the external and internal defences of his kingdom. The authority and influence of B. were so great, that even Saracens followed under him the banner of the Cross. By his marriage with Theodora, the daughter of the Greek Emperor Manuel, he gained a faithful ally in that prince. He died, it is believed, of poison, in the flower of his age, at Tripolis, in Syria, on the 10th of February 1162. With his death the Christian power in the east began to decline. He was succeeded in the government by his brother Amalric or Amaury, who died in 1173.—BALDWIN IV., the son and successor of Amalric, surnamed the Leper, reigned till 1183.—When a child of 5 years old, BALDWIN V., the son of Sybilla, sister of Baldwin IV., was called to the throne. He died in 1187, a year before Jerusalem was retaken by Saladin.

BALDWIN'S PHOSPHORUS is a term applied to the nitrate of lime, which, on evaporation, parts with its water of crystallisation, and then, as discovered by Baldwin in 1675, assumes a luminous appearance in the dark.

BALE, JOHN, Bishop of Ossory, in Ireland, was born at the village of Cove, in Suffolk, in November 1495. He was educated as a Carmelite monk, but afterwards turned Protestant, and, being persecuted by the Roman Catholics, fled to Flanders, where he remained eight years, during which he wrote numerous works. He was recalled by Edward VI., and successively presented to the living of Bishopstoke, in Hampshire, and the bishopric of Ossory. In this latter sphere he made himself so obnoxious to the Catholics by his zeal in the Protestant cause, that on news of the death of Edward, his house was attacked, and five of his servants killed. He himself escaped out of the country after great difficulty, and the loss of all his effects. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England, and was made a prebend in the Cathedral of Canterbury. He died in 1563. His fame mainly rests on a collection of British Biography, which, notwithstanding that sections of a book are not unfrequently set down in it as distinct works, and that the names of persons who never wrote anything are set down as authors, is a valuable work. It was first published in 1548 under the title of *Illustrium Majoris Britanniæ Scriptorum, hoc est, Angliæ, Cambriæ, et Scotiæ Summarium.*

BÂLE. See BASEL.

BALEA'RIC ISLES, a group of five islands—Mallorca (Majorca), Minorca, Iviza, Formentera, Cabrera—lying off the coast of Valencia, in lat. 38° 6′—40° 5′ N., and long. 1°—5° E. They at one time formed the kingdom of Mallorca, which was united in 1289 with the crown of Aragon. They now form a Spanish province, and have unitedly an area of 1753 square miles, with a population, in 1867, of 284,398. The soil generally is good. Vines, olives, and other fruit-trees are cultivated abundantly; but corn has to be imported. The coasts are precipitous, with some excellent harbours—Port Mahon, in Minorca, being one of the finest in Europe. The Phœnicians visited the B. I. at a very early date, and they were followed by the Greeks, from one or other of whom they are said to have received their name. If from the Phœnicians, the name is derived from a Phœnician word equivalent to the Greek *gymnetes*, signifying light-armed troops; if from the Greeks, then it is from *ballein*, to throw, and was given because of the expertness of the natives in using the sling, to the use of which they were trained from their infancy. Later, the B. I. became subject to Carthage; but after a short period of freedom, during which their inhabitants became pirates, were annexed to the Roman empire by Metellus (*Balearicus*), 123 B.C. From that time their history is involved in that of the peninsula. See SPAIN.

BA'LE-FIRE. See BEACON.

BALFE, MICHAEL WILLIAM, an English composer of operas, &c., was born May 15, 1808, in Dublin. His musical talent received early culture, and several anecdotes are related of his singular precocity. When only seven years old, he played publicly one of Viotti's concertos for the violin. At nine, he wrote the ballad entitled *The Lover's Mistake*, which achieved popularity through the singing of Madam Vestris. At sixteen, he made his début in London, at the Drury Lane Theatre, as conductor of the orchestra. In 1825, he left this situation, in order to visit Italy, where he studied counterpoint under Frederici at Rome, and singing under Filippo Galli at Milan, and began his successful career as a composer, with music for the ballet *La Pepiera*, performed at the Theatre La Scala, in Milan. In 1827, he returned to the stage, and sang in the Italian Opera at Paris, where in concert with Malibran and Sontag, he gained great applause, and

many warm friends. He, however, returned to Italy, and devoted himself to composition, producing in rapid succession the operas *I Rivali* (1830), *Un Avventimento* (1832), *Enrico IV.* (1834), *Assedio di La-Rochelle* (1835), *Manon Lescaut* (written for Malibran, 1836), *Catharine Grey* (1837), *La Dame Voilé* and *Falstaff* (1838), *Jeanne d'Arc* (1839), *Keolanthe* (1840), *The Bohemian Girl* (1844), *Les Quatre Fils d'Aymon* (1845), *L'Etoile de Seville* and *The Rondman* (1847), *The Maid of Honour* (1848), *The Sicilian Bride* (1852). More classical than any of these operas, and more permanently successful than any except *The Bohemian Girl*, was *The Rose of Castille*, produced in London in 1857. It was followed by *Satanella*, *The Puritan's Daughter*, *Blanche de Nevers*, and *The Sleeping Queen*, the last written in 1864. Balfe died October 20, 1870. If not a very original writer, he had a very thorough knowledge of effect and command of orchestral resources; and his compositions are distinguished by fluency, facility, and melodic power. His daughter, Mdlle. Victoria Balfe —now Duchess of Frias in Spain, was for some years a very acceptable public singer both in England and on the continent.

BALFOUR, Sir James, Lord President of the Court of Session, and author of an able book, *Practicks of Scots Law*, was a son of Sir Michael Balfour of Pittendreich and Montquhany, in Fifeshire. In early life he was implicated in the conspiracy against Cardinal Beaton, and being in the Castle of St Andrews when it surrendered, in 1547, he was carried prisoner to France in the same vessel with John Knox. About two years after, returning to Scotland along with other of his fellow-prisoners, he changed his religion, his apostasy gaining for him the appellation of the 'Blasphemous Balfour' from Knox, but unusual honours and emoluments from the queen and court. B. was sagacious enough to notice the increasing influence of Bothwell, and he immediately insinuated himself into his confidence, joined the conspiracy for the assassination of Darnley, and framed the bond for mutual support, signed by the conspirators. He was afterwards accused by Lord Lennox as an accomplice in the murder of Darnley, but the trial was hurried over before proof of his guilt could be brought forward. In 1567, at the instance of Bothwell, he was appointed governor of Edinburgh Castle; and he repaid the kindness of that nobleman and the queen, by handing over to the confederate lords the celebrated letters upon which they endeavoured to found Mary's guilt, and which had been given him by Bothwell for safe custody. He afterwards surrendered the castle to Murray, on certain conditions, in which his own safety and interests were the chief considerations. The great object of B.'s life appears to have been self-aggrandisement, without regard to the means by which that was accomplished. Accordingly, we find him the recipient of favours under the regency, as he was under the queen. He was made a privy-councillor, Commendator of the Priory of Pittenweem; and in exchange for the clerk-registry, he received the Lord Presidentship of the Court of Session, and a pension of £500. When Morton was made regent, B. contrived to curry favour with him, and received from him a commission to make a general digest of the law. Not feeling himself safe in Scotland, however, he left it for France, where he remained for some time. When the young king ascended the throne, he joined the party hostile to Morton, but again fled to France, when in 1579 Morton recovered his authority. In 1580 he returned, and was instrumental in obtaining Morton's death, by producing the deed compassing the murder of Darnley, which that nobleman, along with others, had signed. He died in 1583.

BALFRU'SH (or more correctly BARFURU'SH, 'mart of burdens'), an important commercial town in the Persian province of Mazanderan, and situated on the river Bahbul, about twelve miles from its mouth in the Caspian Sea. The river, which is here about fifty yards broad, but shallow, is crossed by a fine stone-bridge of eight arches. It is not navigated, all goods being landed at the port of Mesh-hedi Ser, on the Caspian, from whence they are conveyed to B. by an excellent road. To the south of the town there is an artificial island, about half a mile in circumference, on which the palace of Shah Abbas formerly stood. B. has excellent bazaars, and several Mohammedan colleges; the population is variously estimated at from 50,000 to 200,000. The latter estimate was made by Fraser, who visited it in 1822, since which time it has been greatly depopulated by plague and cholera. Flax and cotton are much cultivated in the vicinity.

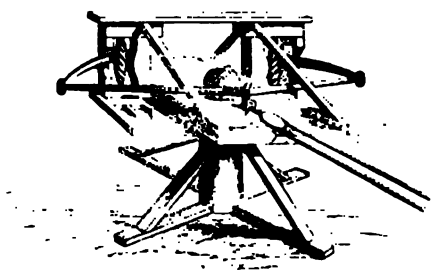
BA'LI, or BA'LLY, an island to the east of Java, about 70 miles long by 35 broad. With an area of 1500 square miles, it contains a population of about 700,000, being 466 inhabitants to a square mile. It is said to differ from the other islands of the Indian archipelago in shewing a majority of Hindus and a predominance of Hinduism. Like the islands generally in every section of the archipelago, from the Philippines to Sumatra inclusive, B. is volcanic —its highest mountain, with an elevation of 11,326 feet, having been an active volcano as late as 1843. The Dutch have a settlement in Badong, the chief of the eight states into which the island is subdivided, and many Chinese are to be found in the seaports. The lat. and long. of Badong harbour are 8° 42' S., and 116° 33' E.

BA'LIOL, John, Lord of Galloway, and afterwards King of Scotland, was born in 1259, and on the death of the Princess Margaret in 1290, became a competitor for the crown of Scotland. As the grandson of the eldest daughter of David Earl of Huntingdon, brother of William the Lion, his claim was pronounced superior to that of the other principal competitor, Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale, son of the second daughter. The arbiter on the occasion was Edward I. of England, who found this a fit opportunity for asserting his claim as lord-paramount of Scotland. That claim was acknowledged by the Scottish estates in submitting the contest to his decision; and, consistently with this ignominious submission, B., before and after receiving the crown (November 30, 1292), swore fealty to Edward as his feudal superior. He was soon made to feel that his sovereignty was merely nominal, and, abject as he had shewn himself, the indignities which he experienced at length roused him to an assertion of his rights as king. In 1295 he took upon him, by the advice of his nobles, to conclude an alliance with France, then at war with England. This act of revolt was followed by speedy chastisement. Edward invaded Scotland with a large force; defeated the Scottish troops; took B. prisoner, and compelled him, after performing a humiliating penance, formally to surrender his crown, July 2, 1296. B. was confined for three years in the Tower, enjoying, however, a limited freedom, and something of royal state. At the end of that time he was permitted to retire to his patrimonial estates in Normandy, where he died in 1314, a short time after the battle of Bannockburn. The estimate by his subjects of this unfortunate and poor-spirited prince was significantly indicated by the surname of 'Toom Tabard,' or Empty Jacket.

BA'LIOL, Edward, son of John, makes himself

momentarily conspicuous in history by his daring and successful invasion of Scotland, then under the regency of Randolph, Earl of Moray, in 1332. Accompanied by some English noblemen bent on recovering their forfeited estates in Scotland, he landed with a few hundred followers at Kinghorn, in Fifeshire; defeated the Earl of Fife; pushed boldly into the country; and on Dupplin Moor, in Perthshire, routed with immense slaughter an army upwards of ten times more numerous than his own. On the 24th of September, seven weeks from the date of his landing, he was crowned king of Scotland at Scone. He had only enjoyed the kingly dignity for about three months, when he was surprised in his camp at Annan, and nearly lost his life as well as the crown he had so recently assumed. His subsequent career is the very reverse of what might have been anticipated from so adventurous a beginning, being marked only by weakness, servility, and misfortune. He died at Doncaster in 1363, and with him ended the house of Baliol.

BALI'STA, or **BALLI'STA** (Gr. *ballein*, to throw), was one among the larger kinds of military weapons in use before the invention of gunpowder. The *B.*, the *catapulta*, the *scorpion*, and the *onager*, propelled large and heavy missiles, chiefly through the reaction of a tightly-twisted rope of hemp, flax, catgut, sinew, or hair; or else by a violent movement of levers. The scorpion was a kind of large crow-bar; the B. threw stones; the catapulta threw heavy darts or arrows, and was somewhat smaller than the Balista. One man could manage the scorpion, but two or more were needed for the B. or the catapulta. There was a good deal of mechanism necessary to bring about the propulsive force. The makers of



Balista.

those machines were very particular in the choice of women's hair, the sinews of a bull's neck, and the tendons of the deer, wherewith to fashion the elastic cord. The onager was a kind of B., which threw a stone by the agency of a sling instead of a stretched cord. The early chroniclers tell of catapultas that would throw an arrow half a mile, or hurl a javelin across the Danube; and of a B. which threw a stone weighing 360 lbs. Numerous other weapons of an analogous character were known in the middle ages—such as the *mangonel*; the *trebuchet*, which threw a large stone by the action of a lever and a sling; the *petrary*, which (as its name implies) threw a stone; the *arbinet*, which threw darts as well as stones; the *mate-griffon* and *mate-funda*, both slinging-machines; the *trivelle*, which hurled quarrels, or square-headed arrows; the *espringal* or *springal*, which threw large darts; the *ribaudequin*, a large kind of cross-bow; the *war-wolf*, a stone-throwing machine, &c. The Arbalest (q. v.) may be regarded as a small portable arrow-throwing Balista.

BALI'STÉS, or **FILE-FISH**, a genus of osseous fishes of the order *Plectognathi* (q. v.) of Cuvier; the type of a family, *Balistidæ*, the species of which are almost all inhabitants of tropical and seas, frequenting rocky coasts and coral-reefs colours are generally brilliant. The body is ably compressed. The ossification of the sk as in the other Plectognathi, is very incomple the external covering of the body resembles the Ganoid (q. v.) fishes, consisting, in some genera, of large rhomboidal scales, dispo regular rows, and not overlapping; in others,

Balistes conspicillum.

small rough scales, with stiff bristles, crowded as the pile of velvet. But the most resting thing in connection with these fishes, provision for fixing the first dorsal spine in a position, or lowering it at the will of the The spine is articulated 'by ring and bolt broad interneural osseous plate.' 'When the is raised, a depression at the back part of it receives a corresponding projection fr tiguous base of the second ray, which the hammer of a gun-lock at full cock, an be let down until the small spine has been as by pulling the trigger; it is then rece groove on the supporting plate, and offers ment to the progress of the fish through This trigger-like fixing of the spine takes in the dead fish; and when a B. is removed fr bottle for examination, it is generally neces release the spine by pressing on the small ray.' The spine is roughened with enamel whence the name File-fish. The flesh of these is generally regarded as unwholesome.

BALISTRA'RIA (Ital. *Balestriera*), one names given to those narrow apertures so often seen in the walls of old castles, and through which the cross-bowmen discharged their arrows. See BALISTA. B. do not seem to have come into use till the 13th c. The lower terminations of B. are generally circular, sometimes in the form of a shovel. See LOOPHOLES.

BALIZE, BELIZE, or BRITISH HONDURAS, a British colony on the Bay of Honduras, in the Caribbean Sea, extending in N. lat. from 16° 45' to 18° 30', and from 88° 10' to 89°. It forms the so the peninsula of Yucatan, which has Caribbean Sea from the Gulf of Mexico is 3500 square miles. In 1870, the was 24,710—377 white, and 24,333 nearly half of the whole being in which stands at the mouth of a river

name. In addition to the Belize, which crosses the middle of the country, the Rio Hondo and the Siboon form respectively the north-west and the south-east boundaries. The presence of the British in this neighbourhood was naturally enough the object of jealousy to the Spaniards, being long tolerated from necessity, but formally sanctioned only in 1783. Besides teeming with tropical products in general, B. exports mahogany, cedar, sarsaparilla, logwood, fustic, and other dye-woods. The town is a depôt of British goods destined for Central America, and the river is said to be navigable for 200 miles from its mouth.

BALKAN, or **HEMUS**, the eastern branch of the mountain-system which comprehends the ranges of Montenegro, Herzegovina, and the Dinaric Alps. It extends from the plain of Sophia to Cape Emineh, on the Black Sea, and forms the southern boundary of the basin of the Danube. The B. range runs almost parallel with the Danube, and for about five degrees of latitude divides Bulgaria from Rumelia. Culminating in the west in the peak of Tchardagh, 7700 feet high, it decreases gradually in elevation as it approaches the Black Sea on the east, loses, to some extent, its wild bare character, and becomes intersected with valleys and wooded slopes. This part of the B. has great strategical importance. Various offsets traverse western Bulgaria and Rumelia. The B. is traversed by five or six passes, the only important one of which is called Porta Trajani, and forms the line of communication between Vienna and Constantinople.

BALKA'SH, or **TENGIZ** (Tenghiz or Tenguiz), a lake of Central Asia, on the north-west borders of Eastern Turkistan, lat. 44 and 47 N., long. 77 and 82 E. Its length is stated at 150 miles, and its greatest breadth at 75 miles. Its principal feeder is the river Ili. It has no outlet.

BALKH, formerly the most northerly province of Afghanistan, is now subordinate to the khanate of Bokhara, though not incorporated with it. It corresponds to ancient Bactria, and lies between lat. 35° and 37° N., and long. 64° and 69° E. It is bounded on the N. by the river Oxus, on the E. by Budukshan, on the S. by the Hindu-Kush, and on the W. by the Desert. Offsets of the Hindu-Kush traverse it in a north-west direction, and slope down to the low steppes of Bokhara. Its length is 250 miles; its breadth, 120. Its situation was once important during the overland commerce between India and Eastern Europe before the sea-route by the Cape of Good Hope was followed. The soil has the general characteristics of a desert land; only a few parts are made fertile by artificial irrigation; and such are the vicissitudes of climate, that where grapes and apricots ripen in summer, and the mulberry-tree permits the cultivation of silk, in winter the frost is intense, and the snow lies deep on the ground. The natives are Usbek Tatars; and their character seems to depend very much on that of the country. In the barren regions, they are simply plunderers of caravans; in the more favourable ones, they are peaceful nomades; and in the most prosperous districts they are tillers of the soil, and artisans in towns and villages. Pop. estimated at about 1,000,000.

BALKH, the chief town, 23 miles from the Amu, is situated where the Rudi Baaj is distributed in numerous canals. It is surrounded by a mud wall; but though bearing the imposing title of Amu al Bulad ('mother of cities'), it has little of the grandeur of ancient Bactra, on the site of which it is built. It was twice destroyed by Genghis Khan and Timur; and as late as 1825, it was plundered by the powerful ruler of Kunduz, Mir-Murad Beg. The neighbourhood is famous for its corn and fruits. As a boundary town between Afghanistan and Bokhara, B. assumed a prominent position in the British-Afghan war. Pop. 2000.

BALL. Games with balls were among the most favourite gymnastic exercises of the ancients. They were played almost daily by all, young and old; by the highest statesman equally with the lowest of the people. The Greeks prized the game as a means of giving grace and elasticity to the figure, and erected a statue to one Ari-tonicus for his skill in it. The effeminate Maecenas amused himself during a journey by playing B., as we learn from Horace. In the gymnasia of the Greeks, and in the Roman baths, there was a special compartment for B.-playing (*sphaeristerium*), where certain rules and gradations of the exercise were to be observed according to the state of health of the player. The balls were of very various kinds; they were generally of leather, and filled with air; others were stuffed with feathers. Ornamented balls, composed of 12 differently coloured segments (such probably as are to be seen in modern toy-shops), are mentioned in Plato's *Phaedon*. There was also great variety in the kinds of game, each having a name. In one, the B. was thrown up, and the players strove who would catch it as it fell; another was the same as our football; in a third, a number of persons threw it at one another, either with a view to hit, or for the B. to be caught and returned; in a fourth, the B. was kept rebounding between the earth and the palm of the player's hand as often as possible.

Ball-playing seems to have been of equal antiquity in the west of Europe, and to have come down uninterruptedly to modern times. In the 16th c., it was in great favour in the courts of princes, especially in Italy and France. The French *jeu de paume*, and the English *Tennis* (q. v.), are often mentioned. Houses were built for playing in all weathers; and in gardens and elsewhere long alleys were laid out for the purpose, the names of which still adhere to many localities. The B. was struck with a mallet. It. *maglio*; Fr. *mail* or *maille*; Eng. *mall*. The mallet was also called by the compound name *pall-mall*, *pell-mell*, or *pall-mall*, from It. *palla* (Lat. *pila*), a ball. The same names signified also the game or the alley where it was played; hence the English Malls and Pall-Malls. The game is thus described in *Blount's Glossographia*, quoted in Cunningham's *Handbook of London*:

'Pale Maille (Fr.), a game wherein a round bowl is with a mallet struck through a high arch of iron (standing at either end of an alley), which he that can do at the fewest blows, or at the number agreed on, wins. This game was heretofore used in the long alley near St James's, and vulgarly called Pell-Mell.'

Towards the end of the 18th c., the game of B. ceased to be played at courts, and at the same time went out of fashion in the higher circles of continental society, though it is still practised by the people in Spain and Italy. The form of it called *Cricket* (q. v.) is still played in England by all classes, and *Golf* (q. v.) is a favourite game in Scotland.

For cultivating graceful motion, agility, and strength, as well as promoting general health of body and cheerfulness of mind, B.-playing is one of the best gymnastic exercises. Ancient physicians were in the habit of prescribing a course of balls to their patients where most modern doctors would likely prescribe *pills*; and in this point at least the ancient practice might be copied with advantage.

BALL. In the somewhat indefinite language of the military and naval arts, all kinds of shot and bullets are occasionally called by the collective name

of *ball*. This was especially the case when nearly all such projectiles were solid and spherical, before the era of hollow and spheroidal shells. At present, when the varieties are so numerous, it is more usual to employ the terms BULLET and SHOT (q. v.). These, together with SHELL, are subdivided into numerous kinds, the most important of which will be found noticed under their proper designations. A particular class of spherical combustibles is described under BALLS. For BALL-CARTRIDGE, see CARTRIDGE.

BALL (Fr. *bal*), a dancing entertainment. In England there are county balls, attended by the gentry of the shire or county, military balls, court balls, subscription balls, besides balls on various festive occasions. Whether designated balls or assemblies, these entertainments are conducted with great decorum, according to certain established usages. If of a general kind, it is customary to issue tickets only to those producing vouchers for their respectability; and to insure the most perfect propriety, a number of lady-patronesses (married ladies of distinction) take a lead in the management, and grace the assembly by their presence. Ordinarily, the charge for gentlemen's tickets at subscription balls is at least two-thirds higher than those for ladies. According to etiquette, no unmarried lady can attend a ball unless she accompany a gentleman, or a married lady. All, of both sexes, are expected to be in full dress—anything else would be held disrespectful. Fancy balls are entertainments at which every person attending is expected to be in a fancy or peculiar national costume; in other respects, they are conducted like ordinary balls. Masked balls, once so common, have now, for obvious reasons, lost their repute. At all high-class balls, there is an appointed master of the ceremonies, who superintends the proceedings, and, in the event of there being no programme, prescribes the dances.

BALLACHU'LISH, a parish on the borders of Argyle and Inverness shires, and partly in both counties. In the Argyleshire part of the parish, 11¼ miles south-south-west of Fort William, on the south side of Loch Leven, an east branch of Loch Linnhe, are the celebrated quarries of blue roofing clay-slate. These quarries have been wrought since 1760, and now employ 200 men. White and gray marble quarries exist also in the parish.

The slate is exposed on the mountain-side, and the quarries, commencing on the shore, extend southwards along the side of the mountain. The face of the rock is laid open by three workings fronting the west, and rising one above another in successive step-like terraces, all of them being entered from the north end of the bed. The height from the lowest terrace to the top of the workings is about 216 feet, and the face of rock wrought about 536 feet. The situation of the quarries permits the water and débris of broken and waste slate to be at once got rid of into the sea. The great advantage of this is evident when it is remembered that this débris amounts to more than six times the quantity of saleable material raised from the quarries. A few years ago, the annual produce amounted to from 5,000,000 to 7,000,000 of roofing-slates, weighing about 10,000 tons. Pop. (1871) 944.

BALLAD. The name is of Italian origin (*ballata*), and meant originally a dance-song, being derived from the mid. Lat. *ballare* or *balare*, corresponding to the Gr. *ballizein*, to dance. The B. is a kind of poem which it is very difficult to characterise. In the course of centuries it has undergone various transformations, and the name has been transferred to pieces which in extent, subject, and character have no longer anything in common with the primitive ballad. The confusion of ideas was rendered still worse from the circumstance that poems of exactly the same nature were styled sometimes romances, sometimes ballads, sometimes epic or lyrico-epic, or poetic narratives; so that it was left to the caprice of the poet which of these generic names he would give to his production. As early as the 12th c. the Italians gave the title of B. to short, purely lyrical pieces, allied to the sonnet or still more to the madrigal, and which generally had love-sorrows for their subject. Dante has such *ballate*. Akin to these are those French ballads which Molière set himself against, and which fell into disuse. The earliest ballads, as the word is now understood, are those of England, and of Scotland, beginning about the 14th c. They in so far resemble the Spanish Romances, that the subject in both is narrative, and handled lyrically. See LYRIC. The Spanish romance, however, has more of the lyrical element, and is of a gayer cast, reflecting the southern character of the people; while the northern B. took a more earnest, sombre shape, especially among the Danes; though in the north also there are ballads of a cheerful and sportive tone.

As far as subject is concerned, the B. is a species of minor Epic (q. v.). The name is generally applied to a versified narrative, in a simple, popular, and often rude style, of some valorous exploit, or some tragic or touching story. Ballads are adapted to be sung or accompanied by an instrument. They are comparatively short, the story being circumscribed, and not embracing a combination of events, as the plan of the grand epic does. There can be little doubt that the B. has been the first form of poetry among all nations; and that the earlier epics or heroic poems of the higher kind, such as the Spanish Cid and the German Nibelungen, grew out of such simple beginnings. Of the popular B., Scotland, or more correctly the border-land of Scotland and England, is allowed to have produced the best examples—as *Chevy Chase*, *Fair Helen of Kirkonnel Lee*, and many others. As a B. of modern composition may be instanced Goldsmith's *Edwin and Angelina*.

Many of the old popular songs of the Germanic nations are just narratives of epic events and incidents in which the feelings of the composer manifest themselves. But the name of B. was not then in use, and such poetical narratives were called simply songs, or more specifically perhaps *lays* (Ger. *lieds*). It was not till the last half of the 18th c. that the foreign name was transferred to them.

The B. has, in recent times, been cultivated chiefly by the Germans, and in their hands it has assumed a more artificial development. Bürger may be said to be the creator of the modern ballad. He was intimately acquainted with the more simple Scotch and English B. poetry; but while adhering to its spirit, he gave to his own compositions a far wider extent, surrounded his narration with descriptions of scenery and other decorations, and by means of dialogue imparted to them the vivacity of the drama. His *Leonore* has become at once classical and popular. Bürger, Schiller, Göthe, and Uhland are the greatest German names in this department of composition. Following the practice of these writers, it has become common to confine the name B. to an epic narrative with something fabulous and supernatural in the background. In this sense, Göthe's *Erlkönig* is a ballad; and Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner* is perhaps the best exemplification in English.

BALLARAT, the oldest of the considerable gold-fields of Victoria, and in fact the oldest but one of

all the gold-fields of the colony. It is about 100 miles west-by-north of Melbourne. It was first worked in September 1851, the comparatively unimportant ground at Anderson's Creek, which dated from August of the same year, having been the earliest result of the 'prospecting' which, a few months previously, had been stimulated by the newly discovered 'diggings' of New South Wales. Though B. was speedily rivalled by Mount Alexander and Bendigo, yet it has by no means lost its original pre-eminence. As its surface-digging became exhausted, mines were formed—some of them now as deep as average English coal-pits. It was estimated in 1872 that there were 215 steam-engines, of 6461 horse-power, working the alluvial mines, and 140, of 3390 horse-power, used in quartz mining. B. is unrivalled in the fineness of its gold, which averages 23½ carats, being only ½ less than the unalloyed metal.

BALLAST is a heavy substance employed to give a ship sufficient hold of the water, to insure her safe sailing with spread canvas, when her cargo and equipment are too light. The amount of B. required by a ship depends not only on her size and cargo, but also on her build; some forms of construction requiring more B. than others. It is not merely the *quantity* of B. which a skilful mariner has to consider; he is required also to take into account its *distribution*. If a heavy mass of B. be deposited within a small compass near the keel, it places the centre of gravity very low down: the ship will sail sluggishly, and is said to be 'stiff.' If, on the other hand, the B. be massed too high up, the ship becomes 'crank,' and cannot carry much sail without danger of being upset. Under average circumstances, it is considered that a ship is well ballasted when the water comes up to about the extreme breadth amid-ships.

In ballasting a ship, the cargo and B. are considered together, the quantity and distribution of the latter being made dependent on the former. In a ship of war, the B. is made subservient to the requirements of the necessary stores and war *materiel*; in a merchant or passenger vessel, to the convenience of the passengers and the careful stowage of the cargo. During the last great European war, the ships of the British navy were supplied with a certain conventional weight of B., according to size and armament. Thus, a 100-gun ship had 550 tons of B.; an 80-gun, 440 tons; a 50-gun, 235 tons; a 36-gun, 225 tons; a 20-gun, 110 tons, &c. The recent revolution in the sizes and shape of war-ships, however, and the introduction of steam-propulsion, have rendered all such fixity of ratio inapplicable.

The substances used as B. are various—chiefly iron, stone, gravel, sand, mud, and water. Iron is now superseding the next three varieties in ships of any importance; and water-ballast is gradually being introduced in the collier ships of the Tyne, Wear, and Tees. Water ballast is employed in four different ways. *Bag-water* B. is contained in water-proof bags laid on the floor of the vessel, and filled or emptied by means of a pump and hose. *Bottom-water* B. is contained beneath a false bottom in the vessel. *Hold-water* B., as employed in screw-steamer colliers constructed by Mr Scott Russell, is contained in a large receptacle, which may be filled with the cargo when the ship is not in B. *Tank-water* B. is contained in two fore-and-aft tanks, which can easily be filled and emptied. The customs' laws relieve merchant ships from certain formalities and payments when leaving a port in ballast.

The term B. is employed by civil engineers to signify the sand or gravelly material which is laid as a packing between railway-sleepers, in order to give them solidity. No English railway is considered to be complete or safe for transit until it is dressed and finished by ballasting. The possibility of procuring ballast at a cheap rate, considerably affects the cost of railway undertakings.

BALLAST HEAVING has reference to the use of sand or mud ballast. In order to prevent captains from filling up, or otherwise injuring the entrance to rivers, ports, havens, roadsteads, &c., by the discharge of ballast, certain regulations have been made at most maritime places as to its disposal. The Trinity House Corporation has a peculiar jurisdiction over the bed of the Thames, and regulates all the proceedings touching the reception and discharge of ballast. Before the use of water-ballast, the collier captains ballasted their empty ships with gravel or sand, mostly dredged up from the bed of the Thames in and near Woolwich Reach. Generally about 10,000 tons per annum were thus used. The ballast-heavers were men employed by the Trinity House Ballast-office in transferring sand from the bed of the Thames to the empty ships. When the collier vessels returned to the Tyne or its neighbourhood, they were not permitted to empty the sand in the river, but were under penalties to discharge it on shore. This is the origin of the vast mounds, or sand-hills on the banks of the Tyne, which have been made very useful in the construction of railways. Ships coming into, as well as those leaving the Thames in ballast, are equally subject to Trinity House control. The Ballast-office Corporation of Dublin has similar powers in reference to the river Liffey.

BALLATER, a village of Aberdeenshire, Scotland, on the banks of the Dee, 36 miles west-south-west of Aberdeen. It is remarkable as the resort of numerous visitors, on account of its chalybeate springs. Pop. (1871) 691.

BALLENY ISLANDS, a group of five small volcanic islands discovered in the Antarctic Ocean, 1839. Lat. 66° 44′ S., long. 163° 11′ E.

BALLET (of similar derivation with the word 'ball'—see BALLAD), a species of dance usually forming an interlude in theatrical performances, but confined principally to operas. Properly, a B. is a theatrical exhibition of the art of dancing in its highest perfection, and must therefore, in general, comply with the rules of the drama as to its composition and form. The pantomimic sacrificial dances of antiquity, although they may be regarded as the source of Attic tragedy, are not to be considered as directly the origin of the ballet. The B., as known to us, undoubtedly originated in the service of the courts. We find it existing in Italy in the beginning of the 16th c., especially at the court of Turin, where it was enriched by the inventive genius of Count Agho; and where the princes and princesses of the court themselves took part in it, in song and declamation as well as in dance; for the B. at first appeared in combination with the other theatrical arts, and completed the chaotic medley exhibited in these spectacles, which were at once mythological, allegorical, fantastic, warlike, and pastoral. From these mingled elements the individual species of dramatic entertainments were gradually evolved in their distinct forms. Baltagerini, director of music to Catherine de Medicis, was the first to introduce the B. into France, where it soon became such a favourite, that Louis XIII. danced in one of these ballets, and his example was followed by Louis XIV. in his youth. The latter made his last appearance on the stage in 1669, in the B. of *Flora*. Hitherto, the B. had always appeared in combination with the characteristic features of the opera,

and even of comedy, as is evident from the works of Quinault and Molière, arranged by Lully. The art of dancing possessed then little dramatic expression, and still required to be introduced and explained by singing and recitation. In 1697, Antoine Houbart de la Motte undertook to reform the B., to which he imparted both dramatic action and the expression of passionate feeling. About this time, women first made their appearance in the B., as well as in plays and operas, which had till then been performed exclusively by men. There is no mention of any female B.-dancer of note before 1790. About the middle of the 18th c., Noverre separated the B. from the opera, gave it an independent dramatic form, and laid the foundation in his writings of an ingenious theory on the subject. The Mythological B., a relic of the magnificence of Versailles, came to an end during the Consulate, when it gave place to the newly invented Comic Ballets *Dansomanie*, *La Fille mal Gardée*, and the *Arlequinades*. Vincenzo Galeotti, in Copenhagen, carried out the ideas of Noverre so far as to subordinate the dance to purely dramatic principles, instead of giving it the first place as formerly; and thus he gave to his ballets the character of great rhythmical pantomimes. These splendid and talented performances were longest kept up in the theatre of Milan, where the most lifelike and magnificent tableaux were exhibited in pantomime; and subjects were attempted far beyond the limits of the ballet. The story of *Hamlet* was turned into a B., and the subjects of several other tragedies were similarly treated. In general, the B. has now become unfaithful to its original design and its true artistic signification; and exhausts itself in the exhibition of mere feats of bodily agility, tasteless displays of artificial dexterity, distortions of the person almost to dislocation, and balancings of the figure in attitudes often indelicate. Consisting as it does more of external show than internal meaning, it contributes gradually to blunt the public taste for the enjoyment of the legitimate drama, which speaks more to the mind than to the eye.

BA'LL-FLOWER, so named from its resembling a ball placed in a circular flower; an ornament peculiar to the decorated style of Gothic architecture which prevailed in the 14th c. The B.-F. is supposed by some to be an imitation of a pomegranate, by others of a hawk's bell. Its form will be better understood from the illustration.

Ball-flower.

BALLINA', a seaport town on the confines of Mayo and Sligo counties, Ireland, but chiefly in Sligo, on the Moy, 7 miles south of its entrance into Killala Bay. The Moy runs through the town, is crossed by two bridges, and separates the two counties. B. proper is on the Mayo side, the Sligo portion being a suburb called Ardnaree. The tide runs up to the town, but the river is only navigable from the sea up to a mile and a half below Ballina. B. has a brisk trade in agricultural produce, salmon, and cured provisions. Coarse linens and snuff are manufactured here. Many anglers resort to the river Moy and Lough Conn. Killala Bay was the rendezvous of the French invaders in 1798. They landed, and took B., but were, three weeks afterwards, defeated at Killala. Pop. (1871) 5551.

BALLINASLOE', a small inland town on the borders of Galway and Roscommon counties, near the centre of Ireland, on both sides of the river Suck which divides the two counties—8 miles from its confluence with the Shannon, and 81 miles west of Dublin. The Suck at B. is divided into several channels, over which the road from Athlone to Galway is carried by a succession of bridges and causeways 500 yards long. B. is noted for its great annual fair in October, one of the largest in the kingdom. It is the seat of a poor-law union, and the station of the Galway militia staff. Pop. (1871) 4619.

BALLINROBE, a small town of Ireland, county Mayo, picturesquely seated on the Robe, about 7 miles from its mouth in Lough Mask, and about 16 miles S.S.E. of Castle Bar. B. is a seat of petty and general sessions, and has a union workhouse and a barrack. It has a weekly market and two annual fairs. Pop. (1871) 2057.

BA'LLIOL CO'LLEGE, Oxford, was founded between 1263 and 1268 by John de Balliol, father of John Balliol, king of Scotland. The original foundation consisted of 16 poor scholars, and the revenue for their maintenance amounted for many years to only 8d. per week for each. In 1340, the establishment was enriched by benefactions from Sir William Fenton and Sir Philip Somervyle, the latter of whom gave the college a new body of statutes. Its most important subsequent benefactors were Bell, Bishop of Worcester, in 1566; Wil. Hammond, Esq., in 1575; Peter Blundell's executors in 1615 and 1676; Lady Periam, 1620; Warner, Bishop of Rochester, 1667; John Snell, Esq., 1677; and Mrs Williams, 1830. The society in 1873 consisted of a master, 13 fellows, and 24 scholars. The number of members on the books was 328. The master and fellows enjoy the privilege of electing their own visitor. John Wycliffe was master of this college in 1361; among its scholars have been John Evelyn, and Bradley the astronomer. The Snell Exhibitions for students of Glasgow University, attract annually to this college a few distinguished Scottish students. Among these have been Sir William Hamilton and J. G. Lockhart.

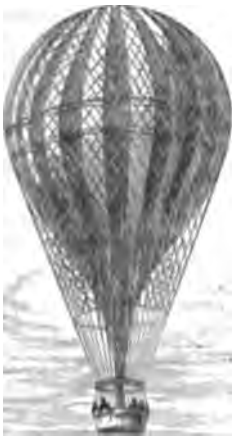
BALLI'STA. See BALISTA.

BALLI'STIC PE'NDULUM. An instrument so named was invented by Robins, in the latter part of last century, to ascertain the velocity of projectiles, and to prove the quality of gunpowder. It consists of a large block of wood, suspended from a strong horizontal axis; and it is so solidly constructed as to bear the heaviest blow of the heaviest shot without injury. An excavated centre on one side of the block is filled with sand, packed in leather upon an iron frame; four bags form a filling or core. The core, forming the place of impact, is easily replaced after each firing. Straps of wrought iron suspend the block from the wrought-iron axis or shaft. The shaft-ends have knife-edges, which rest on V supports. The construction is such, that a violent percussion makes only a very slight oscillatory movement in the block. A brass graduated limb measures the arc of vibration; and a brass slide is pushed forward by an index attached to a bar connected with the suspension straps. Another form of instrument for similar purposes will be described under ERROUVETTE; and some of the results of these experiments will be noticed under GUNNERY. See WAR-SERVICES in SUPP.

BA'LLIUM. See BAILEY.

BALLOO'N (Fr. *ballon*, a large ball). According to the principle of Archimedes (q. v.), bodies immersed in a fluid are buoyed upwards with a force equivalent to the weight of the fluid displaced by them. If their own weight is not sufficient to counterbalance

ree— that is, if they are lighter than the fluid — se upwards with a force equal to the difference weight of the displaced fluid, and of their eight. A B., therefore, which consists of an ment enclosing a gas within it, will rise in air



Balloon.

same way that a cork rises in water, provided se weight of the whole be less than that of an volume of air. If one, for instance, occupy ch space as 1000 lbs. of air, but weigh itself ng, gas, and appendages 600 lbs., it will be sed upwards with a force of 400 lbs. The employed for filling balloons are either hydro- ordinary coal-gas. The former, when pure, ween fourteen and fifteen times lighter than pheric air, and the latter generally about two half.

B., as it is at present employed, is a large haped bag, made of any pliable silk cloth, d with a varnish, made by dissolving caoutin oil of turpentine, to render it air-tight. ommon size of this bag varies from 20 to t in equatorial diameter with a proportionate . The mouth or neck of this bag is just nough to enable a man to get inside to make ecessary repairs, and is, of course, turned rards when the B. is inflated. A net-work npen or cotton twine is accurately fitted to , and the separate cords, on which it ends, ed to a circular hoop placed a few feet the neck. The car, generally a large wicker-, is suspended by ropes from this hoop, and at a considerable distance below, so that the ut may be removed from the vicinity of the The net-work serves to distribute the weight of r and its charge equally over the whole upper e of the balloon. One of the most important ities in the construction is the valve, which is ased into the top of the balloon. It consists of len clapper, four or five inches square, opening ls, and kept closed by a sufficient spring. attached to this valve descends through the nto the car, where, to prevent accidental openis allowed to dangle freely. The furniture of r are the ballast or sand-bags, by emptying the B. may be lightened; the barometer, responding apparatus for telling the height ed, or the upward or downward course of the e map and compass, for shewing the direction of the voyage; and the grappling-iron, tied to the end of a long rope, for anchoring the B. at the descent. During his flight, the aëronaut has at his disposal the means of guiding his air-ship only in an upward or downward direction, the motion of translation being wholly dependent on the wind by which it is borne. If he wishes to ascend, he throws some of the ballast over the side of the car; and if to descend, he pulls the valve-rope, so that, the gas rushing by virtue of its specific lightness through the passage made for it by the open valve, the buoyant material may be lessened. It is evident that the power of thus directing his machine becomes more limited with each exercise of it, for in each case there is an unrepaired loss of the means necessary to it. All attempts at guiding balloons in a horizontal direction have hitherto proved failures. In ordinary flights, the mouth of the B. is left open, so that there is no danger of explosion arising from the expansion of the gas in the rarer regions of the atmosphere. The diffusion that takes place through the open neck is inconsiderable during the few hours that an aërial voyage lasts. Early aëronauts, who kept their balloons closed, frequently ran considerable risk by inattention to the valve when the imprisoned gas demanded vent for its expansion.

The art of traversing the air by means of balloons, generally called Aeronautics, and sometimes Aerostation, is of comparatively recent date. The germ of the invention of balloons is to be found in the discovery by Cavendish, in 1766, of the remarkable lightness of hydrogen gas, then called inflammable air. Professor Black, of Edinburgh, seems to have been the first who conceived the idea that a light envelope, containing this gas, would rise of itself. He requested Dr Monro, the professor of anatomy, to give him some thin animal membrane for the experiment, but for some reason or other, it was never made. The first practical attempts were made by Cavallo, who, in 1772, filled soap's bladders and paper-bags with the gas, but found the former too heavy, and the latter too porous; and he only succeeded in raising soap-bubbles inflated with the gas. The invention of the B. is due to the two brothers Stephen and Joseph Montgolfier, paper-makers at Annonay, in France, whose names are as distinguished in the development of their own branch of manufacture as in the history of aeronautics. It immediately struck these brothers, on reading Cavendish's *Dr[illegible]'s Kite's of Air*, that the air could be rendered navigable by enclosing a light gas within a covering of inconsiderable weight. Led by their avocation, they fixed upon paper as the most fitting material for the purpose, and first attempted to make balloons of paper filled with inflammable air. Finding that these emptied themselves almost as soon as they were filled, instead of abandoning the paper as an unsuitable covering for the gas, they sought after another gas more suited to the paper. By a chain of false reasoning which need not here be detailed, they thought they found such in the gas which resulted from the combustion of slightly moistened straw and wool, which had, as they imagined, an upward tendency, not only from its being heated, but from its electrical properties, which caused it to be repelled from the ground. It is hardly necessary to say, that this so-called Montgolfier gas possessed no advantages for raising balloons other than that possessed by heated air of any kind; in fact, the abundant smoke with which it was mixed, by adding to its weight, rather detracted from its merits. At Avignon, in November 1782, Stephen Montgolfier first succeeded in causing a silk parallelopiped, of about 50 cubic feet, to rise to the roof of a room. Encouraged by this

success, the brothers made experiments on a larger scale at Annonay with an equally happy result; and finally, in June 1783, in the presence of the states of Vivarais, and of an immense multitude, they raised a B., 35 feet in diameter, to a height of 1500 feet. This last, nearly spherical in shape, was made of packcloth, covered with paper, and was heated by an iron chaffer placed beneath it, in which 10 pounds of moist straw and wool were burned.

The news of this extraordinary experiment soon reached Paris, where it produced a most lively impression. A commission was appointed by the Academy of Sciences to report upon it. Public curiosity, however, could not await the tardy decision of this body, and accordingly a subscription was entered into to defray the expense of repeating the Annonay experiment. Such was the excitement that the subscription was filled in a few days, and the construction of the B. was intrusted to the brothers Robert, famous philosophical instrument-makers of the day, and to Professor Charles, a young but experienced physicist. As the detailed account of the Annonay ascent had not reached Paris, and as nothing was therefore known of the Montgolfier gas, Charles fixed upon hydrogen as the gas most likely to insure success. It was, however, a formidable undertaking to produce it in sufficient abundance for a B., as it was at that time only dealt with in small quantities in the lecture-room. By ingenuity and perseverance combined, he triumphed over this difficulty, and succeeded in filling, in the course of four days, a silk globe of 12 feet in diameter. This B. was transferred to the Champs de Mars, the largest open space in Paris, where, on the 27th of August 1783, it ascended in the presence of 300,000 spectators, half the population of the city. At the instance of the commission already referred to, Stephen Montgolfier constructed a fire-B., 72 feet high, and 41 feet in diameter. It ascended before the commission on the 12th of September 1783, but being held captive, it was much injured by a violent wind, which blew at the time, and after it descended it was finally broken up by heavy rains. Another was made of nearly the same dimensions, which ascended on the 19th of the same month at Versailles, the king and royal family 'assisting' at the spectacle. This ascent is worthy of note, from the fact that a sheep, a cock, and a duck were placed in an ozier-basket attached to the lower part of the B., and that these first aerial voyagers reached the ground again in safety.

The B. was now a *fait accompli*, and it began to be seriously discussed whether it might not be serviceable as an air-ship for bearing men aloft as passengers. The solution of this question was first given by Pilâtre des Rosiers. In a Montgolfière, as the heated air-B. was called, 74 feet high, and 48 feet in diameter, supporting at its base a gallery of wicker-work, he, in company with the Marquis d'Arlandes, made the first aërial voyage, 21st November 1783. They remained in the air twenty-five minutes, and sailed across the Seine and over a considerable part of Paris. The year 1783, so fertile in the annals of aërostation, would indeed not have passed away without witnessing an additional, and even more satisfactory triumph. On the 1st of December, Professor Charles, along with Robert, rose from the Tuileries gardens with a hydrogen B. then called a *Charlière*—made from the proceeds of a public subscription. This B. was made of alternately red and yellow gores of silk sewed together, and coated with caoutchouc varnish. It was covered with a net which supported the car, and was furnished with a valve, a barometer, and sand-ballast, and was, in fact, a complete aërial machine. It may be said that the art of aërostation at once attained perfection in Charles's B., and no essential change or improvement has taken place since. In consequence of the danger attending the use of fire-balloons, and the engrossing attention which they demand of the aëronaut, they have now entirely given way to the hydrogen or coal-gas balloons. Before they became obsolete, several remarkable voyages were made in them. The same Pilâtre des Rosiers made 30 voyages in one of them, the longest voyage ever executed in a Montgolfière. Among the names of the first professional aëronauts, those of Lunardi, Blanchard, and Garnerin deserve special note. Lunardi was the first who made the ascent in Great Britain; and Blanchard, along with the American Dr Jeffries, crossed the English Channel from Dover to Calais in circumstances of almost unparalleled danger, January 7, 1785. Garnerin first descended from a B. by a Parachute (q. v.), October 22, 1797. It is much to be regretted that the first aëronaut, Pilâtre des Rosiers, fell a victim to a blind devotion to his art. In order to outvie Blanchard he constructed a compound machine, consisting of a hydrogen B. above and a Montgolfière below, and started from Boulogne, accompanied by a young natural philosopher named Romain, on the morning of the 5th of June 1785. He had not ascended many minutes, when, as it afterwards appeared, on attempting to open the valve of the hydrogen B. by the rope attached to it, he caused a rent of several yards in it, so that it emptied itself almost immediately, and fell on the Montgolfière beneath. The fire in the latter not being kindled, the whole machine fell with a frightful rapidity to the earth, and the ill-fated aëronauts perished on the spot whence they had risen. It is worthy of remark, that though several melancholy incidents of this kind are on record, the number of casualties in the navigation of the air has been less in proportion than in the navigation of the sea. For 1500 aëronauts and 10,000 ascents, calculating approximately, only 15 lives have been lost, certainly a small proportion considering dangers and inexperience.

In 1794, during the wars of the Revolution, an aërostatic institution was formed at Meudon, near Paris, for training a corps of 'aërostiers,' in order to observe the enemy by means of balloons. A balloon under the management of this corps was present at the battle of Fleurus, near Charleroi, fought against the Austrians. During the siege of Paris, 1870—1871, the B. was extensively employed. Countless letters and several persons left the beleaguered city in balloons. There was, of course, no attempt made to come back in such a conveyance: carrier pigeons were the return messengers.

Balloons have been enlisted in behalf of science. The first ascent for scientific objects was made at Hamburg, July 18, 1803, by Robertson and Lhomt. The results obtained, more particularly regarding the diminution of terrestrial magnetism, and the general feebleness of electrical and galvanic phenomena in the rarer portions of the atmosphere, were considered of such importance by the French Institute, that another ascent was determined on; MM. Biot and Gay-Lussac were appointed to take the management of the B. and of the physical experiments; and they started, accordingly, on the 24th August 1804. As this aërial expedition was not altogether successful, a second was undertaken by Gay-Lussac alone, in the same year, in which he rose to a height of 23,000 feet. The observations of the French savans did not confirm those made by Robertson, for after a series of experiments, as careful as their novel situation would admit, they found that no diminution was perceptible in the intensity of electrical phenomena in the upper air. Some

many scientific aerial voyages have been taken, among which may be mentioned that oldt in America; those made by Mr Rush, ay with Mr Green as steersman, on behalf ritish Association, during 1847–1849; and by MM. Barral and Bixio (1850) at Paris. tly, the most remarkable ascents have been by Mr Glaisher for meteorological observation. e occasion he ascended to a height of 7½ miles rometer standing at 7 inches. The B. contained ubic feet of gas, and carried 600 lbs. The metric and thermometric laws of the air may s ascertained by B. ascents. The nature of currents, at present so imperfectly understood, also be discovered by the same means. The uction of coal-gas, instead of hydrogen, by Mr the most famous of English aeronauts, is the important advance in aërostation since the t days of the art. His large coal-gas B., in bore Messrs Green, Holland, and Mason from all Gardens, London, to Weilburg, in the Duchy of Nassau, distant 500 miles, in 18 hours. the United States, aërostation has been prose- with great zeal. Mr J. Wise has more than exploded his B., when high up in the air, to what he considers to be always the case, that n nts with the net-work form in such s a parachute, which moderates the of descent, and shields the aëronaut from

During 1859, the longest flight on record de by Mr J. Wise, Mr La Mountain, and who, starting from St Louis with the inten- reaching New York, succeeded in following ourse they had mapped out for themselves they had crossed Lake Erie; when they caught in an adverse current of air, and to abandon their original design, after having led 1150 miles in less than 20 hours. In mber 1859, Mr La Mountain made a trip of iles in 4 hours. Mr Lowe, another American aut, constructed an immense B., which he, an aërial ship, the greatest circumference ich was 387 feet, with a capacity to hold 00 cubic feet of gas, and a lifting-power of ns, and furnished with many new appliances erating, depressing, and directing the machine. 73, Mr Wise undertook the construction of a n to cross the Atlantic. He proposed to lay res for 30 days.

'LLOT (in French, *ballot*) is a little ball used practice of secret voting, which is the ally called 'voting by B.,' whether it be a r a ticket that is used. Votes may be taken in various ways—e. g., the voter may depo it l in either of two boxes, so conjoined that no all be able to say into which he drops it; or ay be presented with two balls—a white and a —and so drop one of them into a box that it be unknown which he used. Tickets marked ' 'No,' or with the names of candidates, will y serve the purpose of balls in private voting. Dikasts in Greece voted secretly by means of stones, or shells, with marks. From this use arked shells (Gr. *ostraka*) in popular voting the Greek *ostracism*, or secret vote of the , by which they drove into exile those who ie obnoxious to them. Tabulæ or tickets chiefly used by the Romans. If the vote con- l a change in the law, the tickets were marked , the initial letters of the words 'Uti Rogas,' sing consent to the proposer's proposition; . for 'Antiquo,' expressing adherence to the old If the vote concerned the election of candidates public office, then the tickets bore the names candidates. The system of secret voting in was fixed by various laws, of which the Gabiniana Lex most closely resembles the modern project of vote by ballot.

The system of vote by B. is much in use among moderns in private or social clubs, and in the election of officers and other acts of public or joint-stock companies. The propriety of employing it in private clubs has never been questioned, for to the harmony of these it is essential that the votes of a few should suffice to exclude an obnoxious person; and looking to the personal and invidious nature of the vote, it is equally essential to their harmony that the voting should be secret. A candidate for admission, who succeeds in the face of a few, though not a sufficient number of voters, could not but regard those who voted against him as enemies. But if the voting be by B., all he can know, if the voters keep their own counsel, is that some persons are unfriendly. It is thus left open for him to associate on friendly terms with all the members—a condition of the success and continuance of such associations. But whether the system was suited to political and municipal voting, used to be in this country the subject of keen debate, at a time when it was in use in France, in several of the United States, and in the Australian colonies.

We have said that the system prevailed in Greece, and on its fruit there—especially in the exercise of the ostracism—there have been various opinions. While some have considered that the Athenians, for instance, acted under cover of secrecy, frequently without a just sense of responsibility, there is the authority of Mr Grote, in his *History of Greece*, on the other side, to the effect, that they exercised the right most beneficially. But if we have in Mr Grote an advocate of the B., in Gibbon we have an opponent of it. In his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, that philosopher dates the decline of the republic from the introduction of secret voting, which, he says, destroyed public confidence—in effect, broke up the ancient relations of patron and client, and caused a general demoralisation of the people. To come to modern times, we find the B. in use in the Venetian senate; and that in Britain it was first demanded, not for the purpose of elections, but of votes in parliament. In Scotland, during the revulsions against the court in the reign of Charles II., the system was actually adopted in the legislature; but it does not appear to have afforded voters in all cases the desired protection. No one would now dream of demanding its introduction in parliament, whose proceedings, according to popular opinion, cannot be too open and above board. On this point it may be mentioned that secret voting was the rule, for over five years (from 1840–1845), in the Chamber of Deputies in France, when it was abolished, as being productive of abuse. This, however, as we have said, bears on a use of the system that has now no advocates. Two illustrations remain of its use in elections. In the colonies of Melbourne and Sydney, the B. is said to have worked well, though it has been doubted whether its efficacy has been properly tested in these countries, in which there is so much individual independence, peculiar to new countries, that those who vote care little for concealment. In the United States, on the other hand, it is said to be the general opinion that the system has proved inefficacious. In the state of New York, where the B. was adopted several years ago, there is now a party demanding open voting, as a cure for the evils introduced by the secret system. They say it has among the Americans opposed no effectual obstacle to coercion and intimidation from the majority, while those to whom the arrangements for secrecy are entrusted, flagrantly betray their trust, and the voters on either side are, as a rule, well known to the public.

The advocates of the B. used to maintain that it would prevent bribery, intimidation, and undue influence. They regarded its reputed failure in America as being beside the question as to its suitability for this country, because in America what the voter has to contend against is the pressure of the many, while with us he seeks to resist coercion by individuals. The tenants, for instance, they said, want security, through concealment, against the loss of their farms, should they vote against the wishes of their landlord. They believed it would prevent bribery, through the uncertainty that the bribed party would vote as he promised. And as a candidate would not give bribes, because he could not trust that he would get value for his money, so intimidation would not be attempted in the absence of any security that it would be of effect. To this it was answered, on the other side, that the case of America was in point, inasmuch as intimidation might arise here, as there, from a majority, and that the case of a shopkeeper and his patrons was that of many against one all over the world. If the B. failed to protect the unit against the crowd in one country, how could it succeed in another? As to the undue influence of individuals over many—as of a landlord over his tenants—it could only be prevented providing the many, in all their public acts, contradict their secret votes. If the many acted publicly as if they agreed with the few, and privately voted against them, we should have had a state of things in which the professed public opinion would have been in antagonism with the public policy, supported by private votes—a state of things justly regarded as being impossible to be produced. The influence of individuals, then, must remain—i. e., the secret voting would be of no use, since, short of lifelong hypocrisy, it must fail to be a protection. As to bribery, the opponents of the B. thought better of human nature than those who would purify it by machinery. 'Honour among thieves,' they said: 'he who takes a bribe, either has no principle left in him for which to vote contrary to his promise, or will be guided by his deceased sense of honour.' On the other view, they put it, you secure the vote of a rogue, through his playing the knave doubly, by the public in taking a bribe, and by the briber in not fulfilling his pledge. That men will be inclined to give and take bribes as formerly, despite the somewhat diminished security, they appeared not to doubt.

An element in the controversy was the question—whether the franchise was to be regarded as a public trust, or a private power to be used at the individual's discretion. The opponents of the B. maintained the franchise to be a trust, on which view, certainly, it should be openly exercised. Its advocates, on the other view, held the object of the franchise to be the ascertainment of the conscientious opinions of the people. The fact is, the right partakes of both characters: it is a power of expressing opinion by the agent under a sense of responsibility. The B. gives greater security for independence of thought; but the public vote is attended by the greater security for sense of responsibility. It used to be common to sprinkle pleas against the B. with high praise of the whole scheme of British politics, as open, manly, and candid, and with expressions of contempt for the B., as sneaking, and dissonant with that scheme. But the advocates of the B. were not unprepared with a ready and obvious retort to such arguments. Public feeling was kept alive on this question by annual motions in parliament. From 1835, its introduction was an open question with the Whigs. The Radicals, in 1859, were greatly pleased to find Lord John Russell expressing himself as being also a convert to their views. The controversy was an end to in July 1872, when voting at parliamentary and municipal elections in Great Britain Ireland was decreed to be by ballot.

BA'LLOT FOR MILITIA. See MILITIA.

BALLO'TA. See HOREHOUND.

BALLS, HOLLOW. In military pyrotech many varieties of B. are made, differing in purp from bomb-shells, but, like them, filled with ible composition. They are used to give light, produce a dense smoke, or to diffuse a suffocat odour. Some of them, though called B., are globular in shape. *Light B.* consist of canv stretched over a skeleton-frame, and painted; t frame is filled with a composition of saltpetre, s phur, resin, and linseed-oil, rammed down ha and is provided with a fuse, the length of wh determines the time that will elapse before the co position ignites. These light B. weigh from 5 lbs. 70 lbs. each, according to their size. They intended to give out a brilliant light, which m reveal the operations of the enemy during a at a siege or in the field. *Smoke-B.* are of several thicknesses of paper, shaped by m of a globular core or mould. They are filled gunpowder, saltpetre, powdered sea-coal, Swe pitch, and tallow; and are calculated, after bei fired off, to send out a dense smoke for m half an hour, in order to blind or incommode enemy. *Stink-B.* are filled with a composi which, when ignited, diffuses an odour alm intolerable. Some of the contrivances of Capt Norton and other inventors at the present da noticed under ASPHYXIANTS, are extensions of t same principle as these inflammable balls. It m here be added, that most of these projectiles, es cially light B. and smoke-B., are fired from mortars rather than from guns.

BA'LLY, BAL, a Celtic word or prefix, signifying 'town' or 'dwelling,' enters into the composition hundreds of names of places in Ireland and Scotla It is allied (see letter B) to Gr. *polis*, city, and the Lat., Ital., and Span. *villa*.

BALLYCA'STLE, a small seaport town in north of Antrim county, Ireland, in an inlet opposite Rathlin Isle, 88 miles north of Belfast, a 5 miles south-west of Fairhead. It lies at the b of Knocklayd Mountain, 1635 feet high; and marine and mountain scenery around is very roma tic. B. consists of an upper and lower town, quarter of a mile apart. Its harbour w £150,000, but the former is now fill... Coal was dug here at least 500 y manufacture and salmon-fishery are c here. Near B. are the Bonnamargy Ab There is a singular fissure, called the 'Gray Path,' in the face of a greenstone precipice on the way to Fairhead. Pop. (1871) 1626.

BALLYME'NA, a small inland town in centre of Antrim county, Ireland, in a plain on right bank of the Braid, 2 miles above with the Maine, and 33 miles nor Belfast. It lies in a densely peoplea... vated district, the inhabitants uniting of agriculture with the manufacture of one of the greatest linen and flax ma Ireland, and its vicinity is covered with bleach-fields. Pop. (1871) 7628.

BALLYSHA'NNON, a small s... the south of Donegal county, Ir... town of the county, though not ... is situated at the mouth of the ...

small inlet running off from Donegal Bay, and 120 miles north-west of Dublin. A bridge of 14 arches crosses the Erne here. The Erne discharges more water than any other Irish river except the Shannon, and falls 140 feet over a rugged bed in the last 9 miles of its course; 400 yards below the bridge at B. the river falls in a cataract 16 feet high at low water, and 450 feet wide, over a limestone ledge of rock. The chief streets of B. are very steep. There is a valuable salmon-fishery on the river. The export trade is small, in consequence of the existence of a bar at the mouth of the harbour and the prevalence of west winds. Pop. (1871) 2009.

BALM (*Melissa officinalis*), an erect, branching, perennial, herbaceous plant, of the natural order *Labiatæ*, a native of the south of Europe, naturalised in a few places in England. It has ovate crenate

Balm (*Melissa officinalis*).

leaves, and axillary half whorls of white flowers on one side of the stem. The whole plant has an agreeable lemon-like smell, on account of which it is frequently cultivated in gardens. The stems and leaves are used in medicine as a gentle aromatic, stimulant, and tonic. B. is also employed for making an agreeable and somewhat exhilarating beverage called B. Wine. B. was formerly in much higher repute than now for its medicinal virtues. Its qualities depend on an essential oil of a pale yellow colour, called Oil of Balm.

For medical use, the herb should be cut before the appearance of the flowers, which begin to expand in July. It is nearly inodorous when dried. The taste is somewhat austere, and slightly aromatic. B. scarcely produces any remedial operation upon the system. The quantity of oil which it contains is not more than sufficient to communicate a pleasant flavour to the infusion, which forms an excellent drink in febrile complaints, and when taken warm, tends to promote the operation of diaphoretic medicines. A variety of the common Cat-mint (*Nepeta cataria*, with a smell like that of B., is often mistaken for it. Moldavian B. (*Dracocephalum Moldavicum*) is a native of the country from which it derives its name, and of Siberia, &c.; an annual plant, having, when fresh, a smell like that of B., but less pleasant. It is much used in Germany for flavouring dishes.—Bastard B. (*Melittis Melissophyllum*), a native of the south of England and of many parts of Europe, is a very beautiful plant, which when dried has a delightful fragrance, and retains it long. All these are of the natural order *Labiatæ*.

BALM OF GILEAD. See Balsam of Gilead.

BALMORAL CASTLE, the autumnal residence of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, is situated in a beautiful dell in Braemar (the south-west district of Aberdeenshire), on a natural platform that slopes gently down from the base of Craigan-gowan to the margin of the river Dee in front; and about 48 miles west of the city of Aberdeen. The castle commands a magnificent prospect on all sides. In 1848, Prince Albert purchased the reversion of a 38 years' lease from the representatives of Sir Robert Gordon, who had held it under the Earl of Fife; and in 1852 he acquired the fee simple of the estate from the Fife trustees for a sum of £32,000. The old castle not being sufficiently commodious for the royal family, Prince Albert erected a new one at his own expense, in what is called the Scottish baronial style of architecture. The castle consists of two separate blocks of building, united by wings and a massive tower 35 feet square, rising to the height of 80 feet, surmounted by a turret 20 feet high. At a distance, the castle, which is built of granite, has a striking and imposing appearance, looking almost as if it had been hewn out of one huge rock of that material. Great improvements have been made, chiefly those projected by the late Prince Albert in the approaches to the royal residence. The estate now includes Birkhall, Knock Castle-muns, Loch Muick, and 'dark Lochnagar,' celebrated by Byron; which is about seven miles south-west of B. C., and contains about 10,000 acres in addition to 30,000 acres of hill ground, which have been converted into a deer forest.

BALNAVES, Henry, of Halhill, an eminent lay-reformer of the 16th c. Born at Kirkcaldy in Fife-shire of poor parents, who, however, contrived to give him a university education at St Andrews, he went to the continent, and entered a free school at Cologne, where he greatly improved his scholarship, and received instruction in the principles of the new faith which Luther had just promulgated. On his return to Scotland, he studied law, and acted for some time as a procurator at St Andrews. In 1538, James V. made him a senator of the College of Justice; and on Arran being appointed to the regency, B. was made secretary of state. In 1543, he was imprisoned on account of his Protestantism, but appears to have been liberated in the following year. He now appears to have made himself active on the Protestant side; and it is asserted that he was privy to the conspiracy formed for the murder of Cardinal Beaton, and that he acted for the conspirators at the English court. In 1547, he took refuge in the Castle of St Andrews, and was declared a traitor and excommunicated. When the castle was captured by the French, B., with Knox and others, were sent to Rouen as prisoners of war. While in prison here, B. wrote a treatise on Justification, to which Knox added marginal notes, and prefixed a dedication, and which was afterwards published with the title of *The Confession of Faith*. When Mary of Guise was raised to the regency in 1554, B.'s forfeiture was rescinded, and he returned to Scotland, and took an active part on the side of the Lords of the Congregation, by whom he was appointed one of the commissioners

who settled the treaty of Berwick in 1559—1560, which established by law the reformed religion in Scotland. In 1563, B. was nominated a commissioner to revise *The Book of Discipline*. He afterwards acted for the Regent Murray in the inquiry into the charges against Mary for the murder of Darnley. He died in 1579; one account says 1570. Both Knox and Melville had a high opinion of him alike for his piety, wisdom, and learning.

BALSAM, a name formerly comprehensive of many resinous substances and oils, to which important medicinal virtues were ascribed, as well as of medicines compounded of resins and oils. When the term B. is now used without addition, the balsams of Peru and Tolu are generally intended.—These two balsams are very similar in all their more important properties, and are both produced by trees of the genus *Myrospermum* (or *Myroxylon*), of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Papilionaceæ*, natives of the tropical parts of America. *M. peruiferum*, which is called the Quinquino, a beautiful tree, common from Peru to Mexico, is generally regarded as the species which produces the B. of Peru; and *M. toluiferum*, a very similar species, found on the mountains of Tolu, the banks of the Magdalena, &c., as that which produces the B. of Tolu; but it is doubtful if the difference is not at least as much owing to the modes of procuring and preserving the B.; and other species of the same genus (*M. punctatum* and *M. pubescens*) are supposed also to yield it. B. of Peru appears in two forms, known as *White B. of Peru* and *Black B. of Peru;* the former of which has been said to be obtained from the pods, and the latter from incisions in the trunk of the tree; but it has also been stated that the white B. flows from the trunk, and that the black B. is obtained by distilling down the wood after the manner of tar-burning, or by boiling with water. The actual evidence is insufficient to determine these points with certainty, and it is not improbable that different methods may be employed. White B. of Peru is at first of the consistence of recent honey, and of a light yellow colour; the black B. is of a reddish or blackish brown colour, and of the consistence of treacle. B. of Tolu, until recently, appeared in commerce dry and friable, but is now generally soft and tenacious when first imported, becoming hard by age. Both balsams have a very fragrant odour. They are used in confectionary, to impart a flavour like that of vanille; also in perfumery, and for pastilles, &c. In medicine, they are administered as gentle stimulants and tonics, and particularly in chronic bronchial affections. *Tolu lozenges* are a popular and pleasant remedy for troublesome coughs. These balsams are also used for cleansing ulcers.—They contain Cinnamic Acid, and a peculiar oily substance which has been called *Cinnameine*, and is also known as Oil of B. of Peru. The name *White B. of Peru* is sometimes given to a balsamic substance which flows from the *Liquidambar styraciflua*. See LIQUIDAMBAR.

BALSAM, or BALM OF GILEAD, is a liquid resinous substance, which has long enjoyed a very high reputation in the East, being prized not only for its fragrance, but also for the medicinal virtues which it is supposed to possess. It is the subject of several allusions in the Old Testament, which strongly indicate the prevalent opinion of its preciousness; and is celebrated by Strabo, Pliny, Diodorus Siculus, and other ancient writers, almost as a cure for every disease. It is still somewhat doubtful what tree furnishes it, but it is generally believed to be a species of *Balsamodendron* (q. v.)—a small tree growing in Arabia and Abyssinia, and known as *B. Gileadense*. The finest balsam, called Opobalsam or Balm of Mecca, is obtained by incisions, is at first turbid and white, but finally becomes of a golden yellow colour, and of a consistence like honey. Inferior kinds are obtained by boiling the fruit and the wood. B. of Gilead is irritating when applied to the skin, and is believed to resemble B. of Copaiva in its effects upon the human system. *Balsamodendron Opobalsamum*, a species very nearly allied to *B. Gileadense*, is sometimes said to yield this balsam.

Other substances, sometimes designated balsams, and possessing a somewhat similar fragrance, are produced by different species of *Amyridaceæ* (q. v.). Among them is one called American Balm of Gilead, the produce of a tree called *Icica Caranna*.—Balsamic substances are furnished also by a number of species of *Clusiaceæ*—Balsam of Umiri, a fragrant yellow fluid, by *Humirium floribundum*, a South American tree, of the natural order *Humiriaceæ*.—CANADIAN BALSAM is a kind of turpentine obtained from the Balm of Gilead Fir (*Abies balsamea*); HUNGARIAN BALSAM, from the Mugho or Mountain Pine (*Pinus Pumilio* or *Mughus*); and CARPATHIAN BALSAM, from the Stone Pine (*Pinus pinea*). See FIR and PINE.—BALSAM OF COPAIVA is the produce of different species of *Copaifera*. See COPAIVA.

BALSAM is also the common name of a natural order of succulent herbaceous plants, *Balsamineæ* or *Balsaminaceæ* of botanists, of which the beautiful B. (*Impatiens balsamina* or *Balsamina hortensis*,

Balsam (*Impatiens Noli-me-tangere*).
a, top of stem with leaves and flowers; *b*, ripe fruit unopened; *c*, ripe fruit, elastically opening.

so much cultivated in gardens and gr[illegible] is a familiar example. Upwards of o[illegible] species are known, natives chiefly of d[illegible] places in the East Indies, and many[illegible] plants of great beauty. They are almost[illegible] and have generally white or red flow[illegible] natural order is very closely allied to (see GERANIUM) and *Oxalideæ* (q. v.), [illegible] &c., but is distinguished from both by [illegible] irregularity of the flowers, and [illegible] also, by the beakless fruit, [illegible] capsule, bursting by five elasti[illegible] are simple and without [illegible] rally axillary.—The co[illegible]

East Indies and Japan. Many fine varieties have resulted from careful cultivation. It has an upright succulent stem, usually about 1—2 feet high, but in favourable circumstances will attain a greater size. It often appears with flowers partially double, but still capable of producing seed. In Britain, the seed is usually sown on a slight hotbed, and the plant is often kept in the green-house; although even in Scotland it may be made an ornament of a sheltered border. It is one of the flowers frequently to be seen in cottage-windows. A vulnerary was formerly prepared from it, whence it has its name. One species of B. (*Impatiens Noli-me-tangere*), called Yellow B. or Touch-me-not, is a native of Europe, and a doubtful native of Britain. It has yellow flowers, and one of the petals prolonged into a spur. Its ripe capsules burst on the slightest touch. This and two other species are natives of North America.

BA'LSAM OF SU'LPHUR is a mixture employed for medicinal purposes, and considered of service when applied to foul ulcers. It is prepared by dissolving 1 part of flowers of sulphur in 8 parts of olive oil, which yield a dark, reddish brown, thickish substance, with a very unpleasant odour.

BALSAMODE'NDRON (Gr. balsam-tree), a genus of small trees or bushes of the natural order *Amyridaceæ* (q. v.), having small green axillary flowers, small dry oval fruits, and small pinnated leaves with 3 or 5 leaflets. Some of them are spiny; they generally exhibit a scrubby appearance, and have little foliage. They are remarkable for the balsamic substances obtained from their wood and fruit—as Balsam of Gilead (q. v.), Myrrh (q. v.), Bdellium (q. v.), and Oriental Elemi (q. v.). The red resinous wood of *B. Kataf* is a common article of sale in Egypt; and a species called Schnee is much cultivated in Afghanistan for its aromatic and stimulant properties. All the known species are natives of the East Indies, Arabia, and the east of Africa, except that which yields African bdellium, which is found in Senegal.

BA'LTA, a well-built and thriving town on the Kodema, an affluent of the Bug, in the government of Podolia, Russian Poland. Pop. 1867) 14,528.

BA'LTIC PRO'VINCES (in Russia). This term, in a wider sense, comprehends the five Russian governments bordering on the Baltic—viz., Courland, Livonia, Esthonia, Petersburg, and Finland; in a restricted sense, it often designates the first three. The B. P. once belonged to Sweden, except Courland, which was a dependency of Poland. They came into the possession of Russia partly in the beginning of the 18th c., through the conquests of Peter the Great, partly under Alexander in 1809. They have still very various constitutions, though the usual 'government' machinery has been introduced, and every effort is made completely to Russianise them. The five governments have an area of about 200,000 square miles, with a population in 1867, of 4,902,543, including St Petersburg.

BA'LTIC SEA, is the great gulf or shut sea bordered by Denmark, Germany, Russia, and Sweden, and communicating with the Kattegat and North Sea, by the Sound and the Great and Little Belts. Its length is from 850 to 900 miles; breadth, from 100 to 200; and area, including the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, about 160,000 square miles. Its depth is on an average 15—20 fathoms, in many places not half so much, seldom more than 40—50, and never exceeding 167. Its shallowness and narrowness, the flat coasts of Prussia on the one side and the rocky coasts of Sweden on the other, and above all the numerous and sudden changes of wind accompanied by violent storms, make the navigation of the Baltic very dangerous. The group of the Aland Islands divide the south part of the sea from the north part or Gulf of Bothnia (q. v.). The Gulf of Finland (q. v.), branching off eastwards into Russia, separates Finland from Esthonia. A third gulf is that of Riga or Livonia. The Kurish and other Haffs (q. v.) are not gulfs, but fresh-water lakes at the mouths of rivers.

The water of the Baltic is colder and clearer than that of the ocean. It contains only a fifth of the salt of the Atlantic, and ice hinders its navigation from three to five months yearly. Tides, as in all inland seas, are little perceptible—at Copenhagen, about a foot; yet the water rises and falls at times, though from other causes, chiefly from the varying quantity of water in the rivers at different seasons. Upwards of 250 rivers flow into this sea. The chief from Germany are the Trave, Warnow, Oder, Rega, Persante, Vistula, Pregel, and Niemen; from Russia, the Windau, Düna, Narva, Neva, and Ulea; and from Sweden, Tornea, Lulea, Pitea, Umea, Angerman, Dal, the water of Lake Maeler, and that of Wetter and other lakes through the river Motala. The basin of the Baltic occupies at least 888,710 square miles, or about one-fourth of all Europe; and only about a fourth of the boundary of the basin is mountainous. The principal islands are Zealand, Fünen, Bornholm, Samsöe, Möen, Langeland, and Laaland, belonging to Denmark; the Swedish islands Gottland, Oland, and Hveen (in the Sound); the Aland Islands, Dagö, and Oesel, belonging to Russia; and Rügen, to Prussia. The number of vessels that pass the Sound to or from the Baltic annually is very large. See SOUND DUES. Timber, hides, tallow, and grain, are the chief exports from the countries bordering on the Baltic. The Eider or Schleswig-Holstein Canal, connecting the Baltic near Kiel with the North Sea at Tonningen, facilitates the grain trade in mild winters. The two seas are also connected by the Gotha Canal, which joins the lakes of South Sweden. The most important harbours in the Baltic are: in Denmark, Copenhagen and Flensburg; in Germany, Schleswig, Kiel, Travemunde (Lubeck), Wismar, Rostock, Stralsund, Stettin, Swinemünde, Danzig, Elbing, Konigsberg, Pillau, and Memel; in Russia, Riga, Revel, Narwa, Kronstadt, and Sveaborg; and in Sweden, Stockholm, Karlskrona, and Ystad.—The shores of the Baltic in Prussia and Courland have been long noted for the amber cast ashore by the waves in stormy weather. Another important phenomenon connected with the Baltic, is an alleged slow vertical movement of its coasts, *downwards* in the south of Sweden, but further north *upwards*, being there supposed to be at the rate of three feet in a century. See Lyell's *Principles of Geology*.—The Germanic nations call this sea *Ostsee*, or Eastern Sea; the name Baltic is derived by Dr Latham, from an island Baltia, mentioned by Pliny, and which Dr Latham considers to be Zealand.

BALTIMORE, a city, port of entry, and seat of justice of Baltimore county, Maryland, U. S., in lat. 39° 17' N., and long. 76° 36' W. It stands round a small bay which runs back from the left side of the Patapsco, about 12 miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay, and about 200 miles, by a ship's course, from the open Atlantic. The city was founded so late as 1729. The surest test of its prosperity is to be found in the successive results of its census since 1800. In 1800, there were 26,514 inhabitants; in 1810, 46,455; in 1820, 62,738; in 1830, 80,620; in 1840, 102,513; in 1850, 169,054; in 1853, about 195,000; and in 1870 there were 267,354. Besides its safe and convenient communication with the sea, B. is connected by railway with

Philadelphia, Washington, Winchester, Annapolis, Cumberland, York, Lancaster, and Harrisburg. From east to west, the city is about 4½ miles long; and from north to south, about 3½ broad, and covers about 10,000 acres. It is divided into two nearly equal parts by 'Jones's Falls,' a rapid stream which, though troublesome from its floods, and expensive from its bridges, at once affords immense water-power, and supplies an abundance of pure water for domestic use.

In 1871, imports were 26,770,181 dollars; and exports, 18,236,166 dollars. Entered the port, 362 British ships, of 131,316 tons; 519, other nations: cleared, 351 British ships, of 132,016 tons; 513, other nations. There are 25 newspapers.

Among the commemorative structures which have gained for B. the name of the 'Monumental City,' the most interesting is an elegant obelisk, which was erected in 1815 to the memory of those who had fallen the year before in defending the town against an attack of the British. As was to be expected in the wealthiest city of Roman Catholic Maryland, the Roman Catholic cathedral takes the lead among the ecclesiastical edifices of B. It is a massive building of granite, being 190 feet long, 177 broad, and to the top of the cross, 127 high; and besides one of the largest organs in the United States, it contains two beautiful paintings, presented respectively by Louis XVI. and Charles X. of France. In B., however, the Roman Catholics are now vastly outnumbered by other denominations, having only 20 churches out of 161.

BA'LTIMORE-BIRD, or BALTIMORE ORIOLE (*Icterus Baltimorii*), a very beautiful American bird, found in all parts of the United

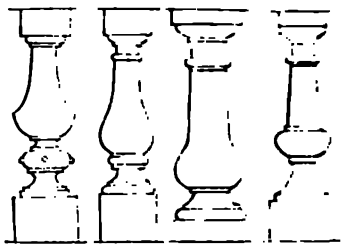
Baltimore-Bird.

States, and as far north as 55° N. lat., but migrating to tropical or subtropical regions in winter. The genus to which it belongs is usually referred to the natural family of *Sturnidæ* (see STARLING). The B.-B. is in size somewhat less than a common starling; the bill conical, very acute, and a little curved; the plumage brilliant, particularly in the adult males, glossy black finely contrasting with bright orange and vermilion; the tail longish, rounded, and slightly forked. The bird is remarkably active and lively; its song extremely agreeable. Its nest is a curious and interesting structure—a pendulous cylindrical pouch of six or seven inches long, usually suspended from two twigs at the extremity of a lofty drooping branch; the mat, which vary according to circumstances, being together with great nicety. It is sometimes through and through with long horse-hairs which may happen to be bleaching, as very ha be appropriated to the purpose of nest-building.

The nests of other species of *Icterus* are pensile. Several are natives of North Americ others of South America. They are quite di from the true Orioles (q. v.).

BALTSCHI'K, or BALDJI'K, a town of Eur Turkey, 18 miles north-east of Varna, notew in consequence of being in the vicinity of the of Tomi, to which place Ovid was exiled.

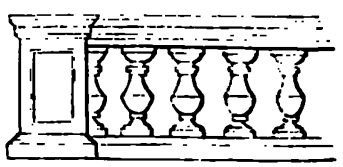
BA'LUSTER, popularly, *banister* or *bal* (Ital. balaustro; Fr. balustre), the name giv the small shafts or pillars set in a line at



Balusters.

equal distances, and supporting a cornice or co These miniature pillars have generally eith pear-shaped swelling at the lower end, or cons two pear-shaped pieces, placed above each o a ring of mouldings being set between them. makes the profile resemble an ancient bo Balista (q. v.), from which some derive the others derive it from Lat. *palus*, Eng. *pale* or *p*

BALUSTRADE, a range of balusters, tog with the cornice or coping which they sup The B. is often used as a parapet for bri



Balustrade.

roofs of large edifices, &c., or as a mere termin to the structure. It is also used to enclose a altars, balconies, &c. Balustrades are made of s metal, or wood.

BALZAC, JEAN LOUIS GUEZ DE, born Angoulême in 1594. In his youth he was a tary to Cardinal la Valette at Rome, where cultivated his taste for elegant composition on his return to Paris devoted himself to ment of his native language. His effo direction have given him a permanent literature of his country; and though his not possess much intrinsic worth, they splendid phalanx of genius which a subsequent age of Louis XIV. He was of Cardinal Richelieu, a member of th Academy, a councillor of state, and his His violent literary disputes with F caused him to leave Paris and retire diary property of Balzac, where he d

18th February 1653. A collection of the works of B. appeared in Paris, edited by L'Abbé Cassaigne (2 vols. Par. 1665; 3 vols. Amst. 1684). Of all his works, his *Lettres* (3 vols. Par. 1806) have been most generally admired, and are still read. A selection from his writings was arranged by Malitourne (2 vols. Par. 1822). Compare Moreau de Mersan, *Pensées de B.* (Par. 1807).

BALZAC, Honoré de, one of the best of the modern French novelists, was born on the 20th May 1799, at Tours, where his father held a civil office. At the age of twelve, he entered the college of Vendôme, but finished his studies at the Pension Lepitre, in Paris. His father, who had been impoverished by the loss of his situation, then placed him with a notary, to whom he acted as clerk. This occupation proving intolerably irksome, B. soon after began his literary career, and wrote about 30 volumes, under the names, St Aubin, M. de Veillergré, St Alme, &c. He received some trifling assistance in writing these novels, which were, however, so unsuccessful, that he lived in the greatest poverty. In the year 1826, he entered into partnership with the printer Barbier, and published various works; but the speculation turned out so ill, that he fell into debt, and returned once more to book-making. His perseverance was admirable. Although long utterly unsuccessful, he continued to write on until at last he opened a path for himself by his novel *Les Dernières Chouans, ou la Bretagne en* 1800 (Par. 1829). In this book he abandoned for the first time the manner of Pigault and Lebrun, which he had hitherto adopted. Among his best works are the *Physiologie du Mariage* (2 vols. Par. 1831), *Scènes de la Vie Privée* (5 vols. 1831), *Scènes de la Vie de Province* (1832), *Scènes de la Vie Parisienne* (1832), *Le Médecin de Campagne*, *Le Père Goriot*, *La Peau de Chagrin*, *La Recherche de l'Absolu*, which were all received with much favour by the public. Of all his novels, two only can lay claim to anything like artistic completeness. They are the *Histoire Intellectuelle de Louis Lambert*, and *Eugène Grandet*. His other works suffer more or less from unnaturalness, diffuseness, and the want of a solid knowledge of the world, although there is a richness of description in portraying individual features of character, as drawn directly from the heart, not to be denied. B. exercises immense power over the female part of his readers. In his *Contes Drolatiques, colligez ès Abbaies de Touraine, et mis en lumière par le Sieur de Balzac pour l'ebattement de Pantagruelistes et non autres* (2 vols. Par. 1833), he follows exactly in the footsteps of Rabelais. Success made B. conceitedly ambitious. He thought himself equal to the most distinguished authors of all time, and represented the aim of his literary activity to be, to give a complete picture of human life in all its varied phases. As a dramatic author he decidedly failed. In the year 1850, he was seized with hypertrophy of the heart, of which he died on the 18th of August. Almost the whole literary world of Paris were present at his funeral.

BAMBARRA, one of the states of Sudan, Western Africa, lying, so far as has been ascertained, between lat. 12° and 14° N., long. 15° E. and 5° W., and occupying both sides of the Joliba or Niger, which flows through its centre from south-west to north-east. The principal towns of B. stand on the banks of this river. The mountains in which the Niger has its source divide it on the S. from Guinea; the Sahara desert bounds it on the N.; on the W., Senegambia; and on the E., some of its sister-states. In its general aspect, the country is said to bear a considerable resemblance to the agricultural districts of England; but in the west there are low chains of granite hills, forming continuations of the highlands from which the Niger springs. The climate in some parts is intensely hot; in others, it is more temperate, but it is generally healthy. The rainy season lasts from June to November. The land is well watered and fertile. Double crops of corn, rice, maize, yams, &c., are raised annually without much labour.

The butter-tree, cotton-tree, oil-palm, baobab, and date, are among the most important indigenous growths. The manufacturing industry of B. is important; the women making a soft coarse cloth, much esteemed for its beautiful blue colour, and the men articles in gold, iron, and ivory, in which a pretty extensive trade is carried on. The inhabitants, chiefly Mandingoes, are said to be superior to their neighbours in intelligence, and to be much sought after as warriors by the petty chiefs around them, who are at constant war with each other. They generally lend their assistance on condition of a certain payment. The upper classes profess Mohammedanism, but the lower are pagans. The introduction of the former religion has had at least one good effect. It has supplied the native dialect with a written speech through the use of Arabic letters. The chief domestic animals are horned cattle, goats, sheep, and fine horses. The wild animals are lions, leopards, elephants, wolves, panthers, &c.; and venomous reptiles, of which the natives are much afraid. Crocodiles are numerous in the rivers, which also abound with fish. The principal towns are Sego, Sansanding, Yamina, and Bammaku, which are all populous. The country has a nominal monarch, but it is in reality ruled by several chiefs.

BAMBERG, a city of Bavaria, in the district of Upper Franconia, beautifully situated on the banks of the Regnitz, not far from its confluence with the Main, and in the midst of vineyards, orchards, and hop-gardens. B., which has considerably declined in importance since the Reformation, is a city of considerable antiquity, having originated, it is said, with a colony of Saxons who settled here in 804. The most noteworthy of its public buildings is the cathedral, a magnificent edifice in the Byzantine style, founded by the Emperor Henry II. in 1004, and restored after fire in 1110. It contains, among other monuments, the elaborately carved tomb of the founder and his empress, Cunigunda. Attached to the cathedral is a library, with valuable missals and manuscripts, and what is represented to be the prayer-book of Henry II. There are several other fine ecclesiastical structures of early date, and the old palace of the former prince-bishops of Bamberg. The ruins of the castle of Altenburg, originally the seat of the Counts of Babenberg, and the scene of many important historical events, stand on an eminence about a mile and a half from the town. The educational institutions of B. are numerous. Pop. (1871) 25,718, chiefly engaged in the manufacture of beer, which is famous throughout Germany, porcelain, jewellery, gloves, musical instruments, &c. A large export trade in liquorice and garden-seeds is carried on.

BAMBINO, a term in art descriptive of the swaddled figure of the infant Saviour, which, surrounded by a halo, and watched over by angels, occasionally forms the subject of altar pieces in Roman Catholic churches. The *Santissimo* B., in the church of the Ara Coeli at Rome, is held in great veneration for its supposed miraculous power of curing the sick. It is carved in wood, painted, and richly decorated with jewels and precious stones. The carving is attributed to a Franciscan pilgrim, out of a tree that grew on Mount Olivet, and the

painting to St Luke. The festival of the B., which occurs at the Epiphany, is attended by great numbers of country people, and the B. is said to draw more in the shape of fees than the most successful medical practitioner in Rome.

BAMBO'CCIADES, in painting, are grotesque scenes from common or low life—such as country-fairs, penny-weddings, boors merry-making. The name is derived from Peter van Laar, a painter, who, on account of his personal deformity, was surnamed Bamboccio (Cripple); but he was not the first painter of such scenes.

BAMBOO' (*Bambusa*), a genus of grasses, of which most of the species attain a great size, many of them 20 or 30 feet, some 70 or 100 feet in height. The species are numerous, and are found in tropical and subtropical regions, both of the eastern and western hemispheres. They are of great importance to the inhabitants of the countries in which they grow. All of them have a jointed subterranean root-stock (rhizome), which throws up 10—100 stems. These are generally straight and erect; although one large species (*B. agrestis*), common in dry mountainous situations in the south-east of Asia, has crooked, and sometimes creeping stems. The stems grow to their full height unbranched, but afterwards throw out straight horizontal branches, especially in their upper parts, forming a dense thicket; and many of them being strongly armed with spines, they are planted for defence, presenting a formidable barrier, even against regular troops. Some of the smaller kinds are often planted as hedges. The stems are jointed

Bamboo.

like those of other grasses, very hard, but light and elastic, hollow, containing only a light spongy pith, except at the joints or nodes, where they are divided by strong partitions. They are, therefore, readily converted into water-vessels of various sorts; and when the partitions are removed, they are used as pipes for conveying water. They are also much employed for house-building, for bridges, and for many other purposes to which wood is usually applied. The smaller stems are converted into walking-sticks, and are imported into Europe under the name of B. Cane, both for that purpose and to be employed in light wicker-work. Some of the species grow to the height only of a few feet; and almost all of them are slender in proportion to their height, although *B. Guadua*, a native of New Granada and Quito, has a trunk 16 inches in diameter. The stems of different species vary also very much in the thickness of the woody part, and their adaptation to different purposes. The covering of the stem is, in all the spec ably silicious; the stem of *B. tabacaria* that it strikes fire when the hatchet is This species is a native of Amboyna and Java slender stems are polished, and used for the stall tobacco-pipes. The leaves of some kinds are for thatch, and the Chinese plait hats of them the external membrane of the stems of some make paper. From the knots of the B. there ex a saccharine juice, which dries upon exposure to atmosphere, and which the Greeks called *I Honey*. It is also sometimes named *Tabari sheer*; but this name more properly phosphorescent substance, containing and possessing remarkable properties, in the joints of some species of B., al large grasses growing in dry situations. SHEER.—The young shoots of some kinds of B. eaten like asparagus, or are pickled in vi Those of *B. Tulda*, a common Bengalese specie used for these purposes when about 2 feet The seeds of some species are used as rice making a kind of beer. Bamboos are very rapid growth, and they are oft situations, which would otherwise vegetation. It is not improbable that the be employed, where they do not naturally to render districts productive which are no else than deserts, in climates like those of A the north of Africa, and Australia; and the qu of the grain of different species seems to de more attention than it has ever receiv species common in the West Indies (*B.* supposed to have been introduced fr Indies. A few species are found in the an altitude of 12,000 feet, and a dwarf that region has been successfully tried air in England.

BAMBOU'K, a country of Senegambia, We Africa, lying in the angle formed by the Se and Faléme rivers, in N. lat. 12° 30'—14° long. 10'—12° 30'. Its extent, howe been accurately ascertained, but is mated at 140 miles in length, and in breadth. It is populated by are ferocious and cruel in the e is sultry and unhealthy, especially duri season. Low ranges of mountains cove portion of the surface of B. The valleys, which are subject to remarkable for their fertility. T Western Africa here attain enor Vast herds of wild oxen ro most formidable wild animals Africa in the forests and rivers. B., however, is remarkable for its rich gold-mines of which the natives exchange for other manufactured goods. Its professedly Mohammedans, but they of the pagan superstitions. B. was ago, in the possession of the Port appear to have been soon driven

BA'MBROUGH, or BA' UGH C one of the oldest castles on the Northumberland, 16 mil and crowning a basalt rock, the sea, and accessible only o In this rock is a draw-well, 145 through the basalt into the sea Castle was founded in 1070. the Forsters in 1715, but after a scion of the same house. Durham, who bequeathed

le purposes. In 1830, the income of the ... upwards of £8000. Connected with ... a market for the sale of provisions and ... to the poor at prime cost; a dispensary ... advice and distribution of medicines to ...; funds for lodging, clothing, and educat... children of the poor gratis; an extensive ..., open to all living within 20 miles; life-boats ... the crews of vessels in distress; apartments ... shipwrecked sailors; and a constant patrol ... stormy nights for 8 miles along the coast. ... of the funds are also employed to increase ... benefices, to build and repair churches, to ... schools, and to aid young men at the ... ities. B. village, near the castle, was the ... an old castle once the residence of the ...umbrian kings. Opposite B. Castle are the ...rous rocks called the Farn Isles, abounding in ...wl. Here Grace Darling and her father saved ...ew of the *Forfarshire* steamer in 1838.

MIA'N, a fruitful valley and pass of Afghan... about a mile in breadth, and enclosed by steep ... leading from Cabul to Turkistan. It is at an ...on of 8496 feet, and is as yet the only known ...over the Hindu Kush practicable for artillery ... heavy transport. This valley was one of ...hief centres of Buddhist wor...hip, as gigantic ... mutilated indeed by fanatical Mussulmans, ...emain to prove. B., with its colossal statues ...t in the rock, was described by the Buddhist ... who traversed Central Asia, on their way ... China to India, in the 4th and 5th centuries. ...tatues are found on a hill about 300 feet high, ...ich are a multitude of cells excavated in the ...ll round, and rising above one another in irre...tiers. The cells are covered with carving. The ...figure is about 160 feet, the female, 120. Both ...tural in attitude, and clothed in light drapery; ...ce of the former is the most perfectly preserved. ...figure is hewn out of a deep niche, also elabo... carved, and representing royal personages and ...iety of symbols which resemble those on the ... of the Sassanidæ. Each contains a winding ... by which it is possible to ascend to the head. ...hole valley is covered with the ruins of tombs, ...es, and other buildings, once belonging to the ... of Ghulghuleh, which more recently occupied ...te, and was destroyed by Genghis Khan in ...

Eight miles eastward of B. lies the ancient ...s of Zohak, attributed to the fabulous Persian ...nt-king of that name. The fortress is pre... for the purpose of guarding the important ... Both there and in the valley of B., a great ...r of coins, ornaments, and other antiquities ... been recently found, and fully described ...ason, Wilson, Prinsep, Wood, and others.

MPTON, a small town in the north east of ...shire, chiefly on the left bank of the Exe, ...utary of the Exe, and 22 miles north of Exeter. ... are here extensive carboniferous limestone ...ies. The manufacture of serge and pottery ...ried on. St Michael's Church was built in the ..., and has a tower 70 ft. high. Pop. (1871) 1111.

MPTON IN THE BUSH, a small town in ...dshire, 14 miles south-west of Oxford. It ... an ancient cruciform church, with a large ...an tower, and examples of every period of ...ointed Gothic style. Pop. (1871) 764.

'MPTON LECTURES. These lectures are ...lled after the name of their founder, the ... John Bampton, Canon of Salisbury, who left ... originally worth £120 per annum, to the ...rsity of Oxford, for the ... of eight ...ty-lecture sermons, to ... at Great ...ary's every year, and ... at the expense of the estate, within two months of their being preached. The preacher is to lecture on one of the following subjects: The Confirmation of the Christian Faith, and the Confutation of all Heretics and Schismatics; the Divine Authority of the Scriptures; the Authority of the Primitive Fathers in Matters of Christian Faith and Practice; the Divinity of Christ; the Divinity of the Holy Ghost; the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds. No person is qualified to preach these lectures who has not taken the degree of M.A., either at Oxford or Cambridge, and the same person shall never preach them twice. The first course was delivered in 1780. In 1834 and 1835, no lecturers were appointed, and no lecture was preached in 1841. With these exceptions, there has been an unbroken series of very valuable, but rather learned than popular, discourses. The most remarkable are the following: Those delivered in 1784, on Christianity and Mohammedanism, by Dr White, who was accused of having obtained assistance in their composition from Dr Parr and Dr Badcock; those by Dr Tatham in 1790, on the Logic of Theology; those of Dr Nott in 1802, on Religious Enthusiasm this series was directed against the pretensions of Wesley and Whitefield those of Dr Mant in 1812; those of Reginald Heber in 1815; Whately in 1822; Milman in 1827, Burton in 1829, on the Heresies of the Apostolic Age; Soames in 1830, on the Doctrines of the Anglo-Saxon Church. But of the whole series, none have caused greater excitement and controversy than those delivered by Dr Hampden in 1832, on 'The Scholastic Philosophy considered in its Relation to Christian Theology.' They were attacked on all sides, but especially by the leaders of the Oxford Tract Association. Hampden was accused of Rationalism and Socinianism. When he was appointed Regius Professor of Divinity in 1836, a petition against his appointment was sent up to the throne; and upon this being rejected, a censure was passed upon him in convocation by a large majority, declaring his teaching to be unsound, and releasing undergraduates from attendance at his lectures. Notwithstanding this, he was raised to the see of Hereford in 1847, under the government of Lord John Russell—thirteen of the bench of bishops protesting against the appointment. There has been a recent course of B. L., delivered by Henry Longueville Mansel in 1858, on 'The Limits of Religious Thought,' which have caused a less bitter, but scarcely less interesting controversy. Mr Mansel possessed great power as a dialectician, and his lectures contained many very eloquent passages. The main position which he took up was, 'That the human mind inevitably, and by virtue of its essential constitution, finds itself involved in self-contradictions whenever it ventures on certain courses of speculation,' i.e., on speculations concerning the infinite nature of God. He maintained that all attempts to construct an objective or metaphysical theology must necessarily fail, and that the attainment of a philosophy of the Infinite is utterly impossible, under the existing laws of human thought—the practical aim of the whole course being to show the 'right use of reason in religious questions.' Mr Mansel was accused by his critics of condemning *all* dogmatic theology (e.g., all creeds and articles), and of making revelation itself impossible. Mr Maurice has been one of his principal opponents. The B. L. for 1859 were delivered by Geo. Rawlinson, the subject being *The Historical Evidences of the Truth of the Scripture Records, stated anew*. Canon Liddon's lectures in 1866, on our Lord's Divinity, have been the most important recently delivered.

A course of lectures similar to the Bampton was

founded about the same time at Cambridge, by the Rev. John Hulse. See HULSEAN LECTURES.

BAN. This word occurs in most of the modern languages of Europe, and its primary signification appears to have been, 'to make a signal' (see BANNER), 'to proclaim' or 'publish.' This meaning it retains in the phrase, *bans* or *banns* (q. v.) of marriage. In Germany, the *acht* or *bannum* was a sentence of outlawry pronounced in the middle ages against those who escaped from justice, or refused to submit to trial. We often read of refractory princes, and even cities, being placed under the *ban of the empire*. The following are the terms of banning used in an old formula: 'We declare thy wife a widow and thy children orphans; we restore all thy feudal tenures to the lord of the manor: thy private property we give to thy children; and we devote thy body and flesh to the beasts of the forest and the fowls of the air. In all ways and in every place where others find peace and safety, thou shalt find none; and we banish thee into the four roads of the world—in the devil's name.' Besides these sentences of outlawry, many other announcements were accompanied with denunciations and imprecations. When a grant of land was made for a religious purpose, or when a charter of liberties was granted, the transaction was proclaimed in public with certain ceremonies, and curses were denounced against any one who should violate the deed. Thus *banning*, or publishing, came to be associated with cursing; and hence the origin of the popular use of the word. It occurs in this sense in Shakspeare and Milton, and other old writers.

BAN; ARRIÈRE BAN. Besides the civil use of the word ban, as a proclamation or prohibition, there was a military application of the term in former days in France. When the feudal barons, who held their estates and honours from the king, were summoned to attend him in the time of war, they were called the *ban*, or the levy first called out; while the tenants, subordinate to these barons, formed the *arrière ban*, or secondary levy.

BAN, or BA'NUS, supposed by some to be a contraction of the Illyric word *Bojan*, i. e., lord, but more probably another form of the Slavonic word *Pan*, which possesses the same signification. Formerly, it was a title given to some of the military chiefs who guarded the eastern boundaries of the Hungarian kingdom, and was therefore synonymous with the German *Markgraf*. The ban, who was appointed by the sovereign, but not for life, and whose appointment had to be ratified by the national diet, had originally very extensive, in fact, almost unlimited powers. In political, judicial, and military affairs, he was the supreme authority. Within his own territory, he exercised an influence similar to that of the Palatin in Hungary, and only lower than a king. In time of war, he headed the troops of his *Bezirk* (q. v.), and if the campaign occurred within its limits, it was his duty invariably to occupy the post of danger. He led the van to battle, or covered the rear in retreat. For these services, he was recompensed partly in ready money, and partly by a monopoly of salt. The most important banats were those of Dalmatia, Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, Machow, and Szoreny, but their boundaries changed so frequently, that at the present day it is impossible to ascertain what they originally were. The encroachments of the Turks in the 16th c. rendered the union of the various banats necessary; and after some time, the whole were formed into the double banat of Dalmatia and Croatia. A still more complete unity was subsequently obtained by centralising the military power. In 1723, the authority of the B. was made entirely subordinate to that of the supreme government of Hungary. After many vicissitudes, his powers, rights, and titles strictly defined during the reign of Maria Th He was then acknowledged to be the third dig of the Hungarian kingdom, appointed a mem the Hungarian council of government, and pre of the council of the banat, and at the corona the Hungarian king went before him, bearin golden apple, the symbol of sovereignty. Sim the position of the ban until the 4th of March when Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia were formed into Austrian crown-lands, and the wholly independent of Hungary, and endo the same extensive powers as the governors crown-lands, but retaining, nevertheless, his title. During the disturbances in H Hungary, in 1848, the Ban Jellachich (q. v.) important service to the Austrian emperor.

BANA'NA, a fruit originally East Indian, much cultivated in warm countries over the w globe. It is now generally regarded as a variety of the Plantain (q. v.); although they formerly ranked by botanists as distinct species Plantain under the name of *Musa Paradisiaca*, the B. of *M. sapientum*—the specific name signif 'of the wise men,' and being intended to conv allusion to a statement by Theophrastus concer a fruit which served as food for the wise India, and which, from his description, is s to have been the plantain or banana. The plantain and B. are somewhat vaguely used

Banana.

application to different cultivated ties. are very numerous; those called B. dark purple stripes and spots on th the fruit is smaller, less curved, and o taste than the plantain, with a soft pulp. Each fruit is generally about inches long. The B. is always used in and never like the plantain, as a sub bread; unless when the pulp is squeezed fine sieve, and formed into small los when dried, may be kept for a great le but which are saccharine, and not fa is sometimes fried in slices; it is preserves; and its juice affords an ex It has been produced of good quality in Britain.—The fruit of *Musa* (is sometimes also called banana. See Pl

'NA BIRD (*Xanthornus Icterus*), a beauti- ..ru, allied to the Baltimore Bird (q. v.), which ..nsiderably exceeds in size; a native of the West s and warm parts of America. Its colours ..awny and black, with white bars upon the . It is very lively and active. It is gregari- ..d a number of the nests may often be seen each other, suspended to the extremities of er branches of trees, so as to be out of the ..s of snakes and monkeys. It is often kept in ..ses to destroy insects. It is very easily domesti- ..ated, and delights to be caressed.

BA'NAT, any district or territory under a ban, but specially applied to a province of the Austrian empire, which has, curiously enough, *no* ban. It is bounded on the W. by the Theiss; on the S., by the Danube; on the E., by the line of mountains which separates Hungary from Walachia and Transylvania; and on the N., by the Maros. It consists of the three Comitate, Temesvár, Torontál, and Krassowa. Pop. (1869) 1,028,263. It is partly mountainous and partly flat, but is everywhere copiously watered, and exceedingly fertile. The chief rivers are the Temes and Karasch. The climate is warm in summer, and comparatively cold in winter; but, though not unpleasant, it is far from salubrious in the west, on account of the swamps and morasses which abound. Nevertheless, it is the most productive of the Austrian provinces, yielding rich crops of wheat, spelt, and other grains; the vine is little cultivated. Wild-fowl are numerous, and the rivers swarm with fish. The mines are valuable; coal, iron, copper, gold, silver, and zinc being procured in considerable quantities. The mineral springs of Mehadia are in great repute. The principal town is Temesvár.

B. belongs to the Hungarian portion of the Austrian Empire. It was formed into an Austrian crown-land in 1849, but was restored to Hungary in 1860.

BA'NBRIDGE, a small town in the west of Down county, Ireland, on a steep slope on the left bank of the Bann, 76 miles north of Dublin. It is a thriving seat of the linen manufacture in all its stages, from the preparation of the soil for the flax-seed to the finishing of the finest linen. Miles of bleaching-greens exist in the vicinity, and numerous factories along the Bann. Pop. (1871) 5599.

BA'NBURY, a small town in the north of Oxfordshire, on the right bank of the Cherwell, 23 miles north of Oxford. There formerly existed here a very strong castle, which was built about 1125, and sustained various sieges during the early English civil wars. At Danesmore, near B., the Yorkists were defeated in 1469. B. is the centre of the famous rich red land of Oxford county. This land is among the most fertile in the kingdom. A system of canals connects the town with all parts of England. The vicinity of B. is thickly studded with villages. Numerous remains of the ancient Britons are found in the neighbourhood. B. is noted for its manufacture of agricultural implements, and for its malt liquors, cheese, and cakes. There are also manufactures of plush, shag, girth, and other webbing. B. returns one member to parliament. Pop. (1871) of municipal borough, 4122; of parl. borough, 11,726.

BANC, legally, is a seat or bench of justice, and in this sense has given rise to the expression of the courts of law at Westminster 'sitting in banc,' or *in banco*—that is, sitting together on the bench of their respective courts, in term-time, and otherwise, as is provided by statute.

BA'NCA, an island north-east of Sumatra, 1° 30'—3° 5' S. lat., and 105° 10'—106° 53' E. long., has an area of 6883 square miles. Pop. (1871) 153 Europeans and 41,748 natives and Chinese. Gold, iron ore, silver, lead, and amber are found, and the tin exported to Java for Holland averages 4200 tons. The sales in 1872 had a value of £533,137.

BA'NCO (It.), a commercial term meaning the standard money in which a bank keeps its accounts, as distinguished from the current money of the place. The distinction was more necessary when the currency consisted, as it often did, of clipped, worn, and foreign coins. These the early banks (Venice, Amsterdam, &c.) received at their intrinsic worth, and credited the depositor in their books with this bank-value. The term is now chiefly applied to the money in which the Hamburg bank keeps its accounts, which is not represented by any coinage. The Hamburg Mark B. (=1s. 5½*d.* sterling=15½ Prussian S. groschen) is to the current mark (=1s. 2½*d.*=12½ S. groschen) as 20 to 16. Sweden has also a peculiar bank-money, 8 dollars B. being equal to 3 dollars specie. Genoa had at one time a bank standard, and the present current money being different from that, is still called 'fuori banco,' outside the bank.

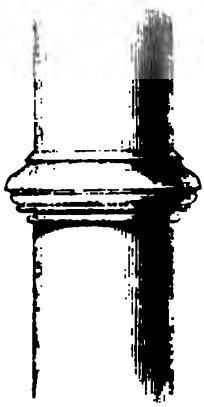
BA'NCROFT, GEORGE, American historian, born 3d October 1800, near Worcester, in Massachusetts, was the son of Dr Aaron Bancroft, an eminent Unitarian minister. He entered Harvard College at the age of 13, and obtaining a valuable exhibition there, proceeded in 1818 to Gottingen, where he studied history and philology under Heeren, Plank, and Eichhorn, and in 1820 obtained the degree of doctor. At Berlin, he attended the lectures of Hegel, and had frequent intercourse with Schleiermacher, W. von Humboldt, Savigny, Varnhagen von Ense, and other literary men of note. Subsequently, he travelled through Germany, and formed an acquaintance with Goethe and Schlosser. Having visited Paris, London, and Italy, B. returned to America, and after some time spent in tuition, devoted himself to politics. He soon became celebrated as a democratic politician, and was made collector of customs at Boston. He still continued his literary labours, especially in lectures upon German literature, philosophy, &c. When Polk was elected president, in 1845, he appointed B. secretary of the navy. While in this office, he established an observatory at Washington and a naval school at Annapolis. In the autumn of 1846, B. was sent by Polk as ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to England, where he remained till 1849, carefully collecting materials for a *History of America*. He published the result of his labours in his *History of the Revolution in North America* (Boston, 1852). He had already published his *History of the Colonisation of the United States of North America* (3 vols., Boston, 1834—1840). The whole of these writings are included in the author's *History of America*, a work of solid excellence, the 10th and last vol. of which appeared in 1874. In 1866, B. delivered an oration in honour of Abraham Lincoln. From 1867 to 1871, he was Minister Plenipotentiary at the court of Berlin. For some years he was a principal contributor to the *North American Review*.

BA'NCROFT, RICHARD, Archbishop of Canterbury, and a bitter opponent of the Puritans, son of John B. and Mary, niece of Hugh Curwyn, Archbishop of Dublin, was born at Farnworth, Lancashire, in September 1544. Educated at Cambridge, he took the degree of B.A. at Christ's College in 1567, and that of M.A. at Jesus' College in 1570. He became rector of Teversham, Cambridgeshire, in 1575, of St Andrews, Holborn, in 1584, and treasurer of St Paul's Cathedral in 1585. In the latter year, he was admitted D.D. By the Lord Chancellor, Hatton, to whom he was chaplain, he was presented

to the rectory of Cottingham, Northamptonshire. In 1589 he became a prebendary of St Paul's, in 1592, of Westminster, and in 1594, of Canterbury. Consecrated Bishop of London, May 8, 1597, he attended Queen Elizabeth during her last illness. At the famous Hampton Court Conference under James I., he was one of the chief commissioners on behalf of the Church of England, and took the lead in the disputations. In the convocation of 1603—4, he sat as president. In October 1604, he succeeded Whitgift as Archbishop of Canterbury; and was sworn in one of his majesty's privy council in September 1605, and chancellor of the university of Oxford, 1608. He died November 2, 1610. B. had a high character as a preacher and statesman; and was a vigilant ruler of the church. He is author of two sermons, one of which, preached at St Paul's in 1588, contains a furious invective against the Puritans, and of two treatises respecting church order and discipline. B. left his library to his successors in the see of Canterbury for ever. —His nephew, JOHN B., Bishop of Oxford, 1632, died 1640, built the palace of Cuddesden for the bishops of that see. Burned by the parliament troops, 1644, it was rebuilt, 1679.

BAND, or BANDS, a portion of clerical dress, and the only relic of the ancient *amice*, a linen vestment which was used in the ancient church to cover the shoulders and neck of the priest. It also forms a part of the full dress of the bar, the universities, and the leading functionaries in schools of old foundation. At Winchester and some other schools, it is even worn by the scholars themselves. The bands worn by lawyers and other civilians, may be a relic of the wide stiff collar which was a part of the ordinary civilian dress in the reign of James I.

BAND, in Architecture, is the name given to any kind of ornament which is continued horizontally along a wall, or by which a building is encircled. Bands often consist of foliage, quatrefoils, or of simple bricks. *B. of a shaft* is the moulding or suits of mouldings by which the pillars and shafts are encircled in Gothic architecture. Several bands are often placed at equal distances on the body of the shaft, when it is long, in which case they are known as shaft-rings.



Band of a Shaft.

BA'NDA, chief town of a district in Bundelcund, in lat. 25° 28′ N., and long. 80° 23′ E. In 1872, its population was 27,573. It is a great mart for cotton. It is situated on the right bank of the Cane or Keyn, an affluent of the Jumna, being 95 miles to the south-west of Allahabad, 560 to the north-west of Calcutta, and 190 to the south-east of Agra. The district of B. contains 3030 square miles, and 696,443 inhabitants.

BA'NDAGES are used by surgeons to apply pressure on a part, or to retain dressings upon wounds. The most common bandage is a strip of linen, calico, or elastic web, from 3 to 5 or more inches in breadth, rolled longitudinally; hence the name *roller*. There are also B. to suit special purposes, as the four-tailed for the head or knee, which consists of a piece of cloth split up on each side towards and nearly to the centre. When applied, the tails are crossed and tied so as to make an extemporaneous night-cap. In applying the roller

Bandage.

bandage to a leg, the surgeon first turns it round the foot, then round the ankle; and so by repeated turns, each one of which should overlap about a third of the previous one, till he reaches the calf of the leg, when he must fold at each turn the bandage sharply back on itself, by which manœuvre the bandage will lie flat and smooth on the limb. The operator must remember that the bandage must be applied more tightly at the foot than in the leg, so that it may not impede the course of the blood through the veins. This requires to be practised, as the effect of a bandage is always for good or evil as it is well or ill applied.

BA'NDA ISLES, a portion of the Moluccas, consisting of 12 islands, 6 of which are inhabited, about 50 miles to the south of Ceram. Pop. (1870) of Banda and Amboyna, 236,737; of the former alone probably about 110,000. Their mean lat. and long. respectively are 4° 30′ S., and 129° 50′ E. Their chief production is the nutmeg, the annual export of that spice being about 1,000,000 lbs., with a corresponding quantity—about one-third—of mace. Like most of the islands in this neighbourhood, they belong to the Dutch. They are lofty and volcanic.

BA'NDA ORIE'NTAL, a state of South America. See URUGUAY.

BANDA'NA, a kind of printed handkerchief of Indian origin, now extensively made in Britain, usually of cotton. The cloth is first dyed Turkey red, and then the pattern is made by discharging the colour with bleaching liquor in a powerful Bramah press. The pattern to be discharged is cut out on two plates of such metal (lead) as may not be acted on by the liquor, and of the full size of the handkerchief. A dozen or more are put in at once between the plates, and so many of these couples are entered together as fill the press, when the pressure is applied, and the liquor is run in on the uppermost plate, which is grooved on the upper side to receive it, and holed to pass it from plate to plate through all the cloth-folds in the press. The pressure on the cloth to make clean work by preventing the spreading of the liquor, is enormous. The patterns in the real B. style of printing are spots and diamond prints, the best suited for discharging, and even for these a pressure of 800 tons is required to work them clean. See CALICO PRINTING.

BA'NDEL, ERNST VON, an eminent modern sculptor, was born in 1800, in Anspach. While attending the academy at Munich, he prosecuted his studies so diligently that in 1820 he sent to the exhibition a plaster figure of Mars reposing, as large as life, which procured for him considerable reputation

Of various models of this kind done by him, one, a figure of Charity, was executed in marble. This work occupied the artist about ten years. It exhibits great chasteness of design, and a minute carefulness of execution. Among his best portrait busts, in which he excels, are those of Maximilian, king of Bavaria (1832), and of the artists D. Quaglio and Peter Hess. In 1834, he removed to Berlin, where his chief works were a colossal statue of Hermann, the foundations of which were laid in 1841, but which was not completed till after 1862; a life-size statue of Christ; a life-size statue of Hermann's wife; and a bust of the poet Grabbe. For Hanover, where he has chiefly resided of late years, he has executed the statues of Shakspeare and Goldoni for the theatre, and other works. For Gottingen, he executed a statue of William IV.

BANDE'LLO, MATTEO, an Italian writer of *novelle* or tales, was born at Castelnuovo in Piedmont about the year 1480. In early life, he became a Dominican monk, in the Convent delle Grazie at Milan, but soon abandoned this vocation for a more free and independent life. His uncle, who had been elected general of the order in 1501, took him to travel with him; and in Rome and Naples, B. devoted himself to the study of belles-lettres. He then returned to Milan, whence he was driven by the Spaniards, as a partisan of France, after the battle of Pavia in 1525. He accompanied Francis I. to France, and was, in 1550, made bishop of Agen by Henry II. He left the care of his diocese to the Bishop of Grasse, in order to be able to devote himself without disturbance to the completion of his tales, which he published in the Italian language in three volumes (Lucca, 1554), to which a fourth was added after his death, which took place in 1561. The tales of B. rank next to those of Boccaccio in Italy. They are distinguished by unaffected simplicity of style, fluency and vividness of narrative, and a harmonious brevity of periods. It must be confessed, however, that they are not unfrequently very impure in tone. B. wrote several other works.

BANDE NOIRE ('Black Band') was the name given, during the first French Revolution, to the societies of capitalists who bought the confiscated buildings which had belonged to the church, emigrants, &c. The opprobrious name was fixed on them on account of their vandalism in the destruction of old relics, works of art, churches, convents, abbeys, episcopal residences, &c., many of which possessed both a scientific and historical interest. It has, however, been alleged, on the other hand, that these societies have frequently done considerable service to the community, in removing old and useless edifices, and that their minute subdivision into lots of the old territorial domains, has both favoured agriculture and ameliorated the condition of the people.

Banderole.

BA'NDEROLE, a small streamer fixed immediately under the crook, on the top of the staff of a crosier (q. v.), and folding over the staff.—Also an architectural term for the flat inscribed band used in the Renaissance buildings, similar to those now used for mottoes to coats-of-arms.

BA'ND-FISH, or SNA'KE-FISH (*Cepola*), a genus of fishes of the Ribbon-fish (q. v.) family. The body is much elongated and compressed. The bones are little more solid than a mere fibrous net-work, and everything else exhibits a corresponding delicacy, so that specimens are seldom to be obtained in an uninjured state. All the species inhabit quiet depths, and are incapable of contending with waves and currents. Their singular form, and the beauty of their colours, make them objects of great interest. One species, the Red B. (*C. rubescens*), not uncommon in the Mediterranean, is occasionally cast ashore by storms on the British coasts. It is about fifteen inches long. Its brilliant appearance, when seen moving in the water, has suggested the names of Fire-flame and Red Ribbon, by which it is known at Nice.

BA'NDICOOT (*Perameles*), a genus of marsupial (q. v.) quadrupeds, occupying in the zoology of

Bandicoot.

Australia a place somewhat analogous to that of shrews (q. v.) in Europe. Their dentition is remarkable, as they have ten cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and only six in the lower, the posterior ones of which are two-lobed: in other respects, it nearly resembles that of opossums. They have an elongated head and pointed muzzle; the hind-legs are considerably longer than the fore-legs; the thumb and little toe of the fore-feet are little more than simple tubercles, so that there seem to be only three toes; and there is a fleshy tubercle in place of a thumb on the hind-feet. Their movements are similar to those of hares or rabbits. They live on bulbs, insects, &c., make ravages in potato-fields, and devour corn in granaries. There are several species. The Long-nosed B. (*P. nasuta*) is about a foot and a half in length from the extremity of the nose to the origin of the tail, which is not unlike that of a large rat, but better covered with hair. It is chiefly found in the mountainous parts of New South Wales. *P. Gunnii* is common in Van Diemen's Land.

BA'NDICOOT, BA'NDICOOT RAT, MALABA'R RAT, or PIG-RAT (*Mus giganteus*), the largest known species of rat. The name B. is a corruption of the Telinga *pandikoku*, literally signifying pig-rat. The animal inhabits many parts of India, and is plentiful in Ceylon. It is chiefly found in dry situations, and often in hilly districts. It attains the weight of two or three pounds, and is 24–30 inches long, including the tail, which at the base is 2½ inches in circumference. The body is thick, and greatly arched, black above, grayish below. Its flesh is a favourite article of food with the coolies of India, and is said to be delicate, and much to resemble young pork. It feeds chiefly on grain and roots, and is very destructive in gardens. 'Its nests, when rifled, are frequently found to contain considerable quantities of rice, stored up against the dry season.'—Sir J. E. Tennent's *Ceylon*.

BANDIE'RA, ATTILIO and EMILIO, two brothers well known for their tragic fate, were descended from a distinguished aristocratic family of Venice, which had once held a place in the red book of the republic. They were lieutenants in the Austrian navy, their father being rear-admiral; but, instead of sharing the pro-Austrian sentiments of their parent, they cherished enthusiastic dreams of the free and

united republic of Italy. In the year 1842, they entered into correspondence with Mazzini, whom they regarded as almost a demigod. Their glowing and enthusiastic patriotism breathes in every line of their letters. Both were noble spirits, ready for any sacrifice, but unfortunately impressed with the delusive idea that their native country could be saved by means of a conspiracy. Emilio, the younger, of a stronger bodily frame, but of a lighter disposition, was under the influence of his graver and more thoughtful brother. In the year 1843, they believed that the time was come for a revolution by force of arms; but their premature appeal finding no practical response, they fled to Corfu in March 1844, where they endured many bitter disappointments and much misery. Hope alone inspired them with life; but at length, misled by false rumours of a rising in Naples, with which it is supposed the Neapolitan police had something to do, they ventured to land with twenty companions at the mouth of the small river Nieto, in Calabria, believing that their appearance would be the signal for a general insurrection. The Neapolitan government expected them; one of their companions, a certain Boccheciampe, had betrayed them. They were attacked by an overwhelming force, and were nearly all taken prisoners at once. One only fell on the spot, and two escaped. Nothing was ever allowed to transpire respecting the trial of these unfortunate men. Attilio and Emilio were shot along with seven of their comrades in the public square of Cosenza, on the 25th July 1844. They died joyfully, exclaiming 'Viva l'Italia!' The public mind had not then become accustomed to hear of bloody deaths for political causes. A cry of indignation resounded through Europe at this 'kingly revenge,' as it was called in a conservative paper of the day. A year later, their remaining companions were pardoned. The fate of the brothers B. attracted much attention in England, from the circumstance that letters of M. Mazzini, then in London, had been opened in the post-office by authority of government, which was accused of giving such information to the Italian governments as enabled them to entrap the insurgents.

BANDINE'LLI, Baccio, the son of a famous goldsmith of Florence, and one of the best sculptors of his time, was born at Florence in 1487. His first instructions were probably received in the workshop of his father, for in those days goldsmiths wrought from their own designs. He was afterwards a pupil of Rustici, and the friend of Leonardo da Vinci. He was an angry and jealous rival of Michael Angelo, whose grandeur of conception he strove to equal, and who is said to have retaliated his enmity by contempt. It must be admitted, however, that we have only prejudiced sources from which to draw our information regarding him. Benvenuto Cellini, whose language is generally passionate and hyperbolical, is his chief accuser, although Vasari also speaks of his proud and envious disposition. Whatever may have been his moral infirmities, it is impossible to deny that, as a sculptor, he was in his day second only to Michael Angelo. His feuds with his brother-artists do not appear to have injured him in the opinions of persons of distinction. He was patronised by Cosmo de' Medici, Charles V., Francis I., Clement VII., and other powerful friends. Clement even bestowed on him an estate. He died at Florence, 1559—1560.

His best works are bassi-rilievi, among which are those that adorn the choir of the Duomo at Florence. On the high-altar in the same building is to be seen his Corpse of Christ, supported by an angel, with God the Father, over it. His most ambitious work is Hercules with Cacus at his feet. In the Medicean Gallery are his copies of the group of the Laocoon—a masterly imitation of the antique, in which he boasted that he excelled even the ancients themselves. He also executed statues of some of his patrons; all his works exhibit power, vigour, and skilful drawing, but it is alleged, apparently with considerable truth, that 'he was too fond of the terrible graces of composition.'

BA'NDIT, a word originally signifying a 'banished' or outlawed person; then one who, because outlawed, wages war against civilised society; and finally, a highway robber. The bandit, or banditti, formed in Italy in earlier times, as it were, a separate community or guild, who submitted to their own stringent laws, carried on both open and secret war with civilised society, and kept up a certain romantic idea of honour. By means of the severe measures which were adopted in 1820 by the papal government against the banditti and their abettors, their bands were broken up. Those who still occasionally disquiet the frontiers of Naples are in general people settled on the spot, who regard robbery and murder as equally a branch of their trade with agriculture. Peter the Calabrian, one of the most famous B. chiefs in 1812, assumed the titles of 'Emperor of the Mountains, King of the Woods, and Lord of the Highroads from Florence to Naples.' The government of Ferdinand I. found themselves obliged to conclude treaties with him. The banditti must be distinguished from common robbers, who were called *Malviventi*. In later times, the banditti were joined by adventurers of all kinds, to such an extent, that the Austrian troops who occupied Naples were obliged to make frequent expeditions against them. In Sicily, the banditti are most numerous in the Val Demone. They formerly acquired so much power there, that the Prince of Villafranca, as a piece of policy, declared himself their patron, and treated them with much confidence. In the years 1841—1843, political fugitives united with robbers and adventurers of all kinds in the Abruzzi, Calabria, and Romagna, and since then they have never been entirely extirpated. The revolutions of 1848—1849 added greatly to their numbers, and in several districts of Italy, especially in the States of the Church, between Ferrara and Ancona, they reached an unheard of degree of boldness, notwithstanding the Austrian army of occupation. Under the command of one Bellino (known by the name of 'Il Passatore'), a daring and talented man, who died in March 1851, they kept the country in terror, and even burned several villages to the ground. They also carried on a real guerrilla warfare against the military forces of the country. Recent events in Italy, have, it is said, recalled numbers of these banditti to a more honourable course of life.

BANDOLEE'R, or BANDALEE'R. Two centuries ago, soldiers' muskets were provided with *matchlocks*, a very slow and ineffective contrivance for firing. The musketeers were furnished with gunpowder in small cylindrical boxes made of wood, tin, or leather, each containing sufficient for one charge. Twelve of these little boxes were fixed to a belt called a *bandoleer*, worn over the left shoulder. In what way these were superseded by a superior arrangement, will be found noticed under Cartridge.

BA'NDOLINE is a mucilaginous substance used for stiffening hair, and keeping it in shape or form. It is much used by ladies in the present prevailing mode of wearing the hair, and by gentlemen, to dress their moustaches. The usual receipt for making the B. sold in the shops is to boil Carragen

v.) or Irish-moss with water till a thick mucilage obtained, which is afterwards scented with *Eau* ...*gne* or other perfumed spirit; a second mode preparing B. is to soak quince-seeds in cold water ... a day or two, then strain, and add perfume; and a third process is to heat gum tragacanth with water, and when a mucilage is obtained, add the scent.

BANDON, a town of Ireland, county Cork (q.v.).

BANDO'NG, a commercial town on the west coast of Java, in the vicinity of the volcano Gunong Guntour, by an eruption of which eighty villages were destroyed in 1822.

BANDS, MILITARY, consist each of a body of ...d musicians, attached to a regiment in the ... service. According to military regulations, ... indispensable instruments are drums, fifes, ... and trumpets, all of which are employed to ... als on the march or in active service, either ... in ...try or for cavalry. To supplement this musical establishment, however, the officers ...nents organise, chiefly at their own cost, ... military bands, who use a variety of instru- ...-such as flutes, clarionets, bassoons, horns, ...ides, big drums, cymbals, triangles, &c. This ... ment has assumed almost the force of ... ...tion; for officers above the rank of subaltern ...bliged to contribute a sum not exceeding ...ive days' pay in the course of a year, and an ... sum when promoted, to the band fund. The ...ers of these bands are selected from the ranks; ... band-master, though in uniform, is often ... n who is hired for the purpose, and who ...y refuses to accompany the regiment abroad, ... at an increased rate of remuneration. The ..., generally, are in an anomalous position; ...ast serving in the band, their pay, and ... lly their pensions, are restricted to those ... private soldier. Good musicians have at ... a tendency to quit the B.; their better ...prospects as teachers, and players in orchestras and ...concerts, induce them to obtain release by paying ... amount of compensation prescribed by regulation. ...mpt made by the Duke of Cambridge in 1856, ...e the commissioned officers of part of the ... entailed upon them by the present system, ... and matters remain as they were. In most ... regiments of the line, the band consists of a ... ...ster and about fifteen musicians; but in the ...choice corps the number is often much larger. When ...a regiment consists of two or more battalions, the band goes with the first. The band plays on parade at mess, as a part of regular duty. When M. ... play at festivals, concerts, &c., 'by permission of commanding-officer,' the payment goes to the ...icians; and the chance of obtaining these fees ...one of the inducements to the men to remain in a ...e which has very few attractions in relation to ... d regular amount of pay. The bands of the ...e regiments of foot-guards—Grenadier, Cold- ...eam, and Scots Fusilier—are very frequently engaged in this way during the London season.

BA'NEBERRY. See ACTEA.

BANFF (pron. Bamf), the capital of Banffshire, a seaport in the north of the county, on the left bank of the mouth of the Doveran, 45 miles by road, and 50 by rail, north-north-west of Aberdeen. It forms a higher or inland town, and a lower or sea town, on the Moray Firth. On a height between the towns are some remains of a royal castle, on the site of which is now a large house - the 'Castle.' To the east of B. is Duff House, the seat of the Earl of Fife, with a large park. The harbour is liable to be sanded up. A seven arched bridge over the Doveran unites B. with the seaport of Macduff, half a mile to the east. The chief exports are corn, cattle, salmon, and herrings. In 1872, 429 vessels of 70,386 tons, entered the port. Pop. (1871) 7439 in B., and 3407 in Macduff. In 1873—1874, valued rental, £9947 in B., and £5021 in Macduff. B., with Elgin, Cullen, Inverury, Kintore, and Peterhead, sends one member to parliament. Robert II., in 1372, made B. a royal burgh. Archbishop Sharp of St Andrews was born here in 1613. Macpherson, a noted robber, was executed here in 1700. Some houses and much property in B. were destroyed by the August flood in the Doveran in 1829.

BA'NFFSHIRE, a county in the north-east of Scotland, bounded N. by the Moray Firth; E., S.E., and S. by Aberdeenshire; W., by Elgin and Inverness shires. It stands fifteenth among the Scotch counties in size, and fourteenth in population. Its greatest length is about 68 miles, its greatest breadth about 32 - average 12; its extent of sea-coast about 30; estimated area, 686 square miles. The surface, especially in the south and south-east, is mountainous, interspersed with fertile valleys and fine pastures; but the surface near the coast is comparatively level. The chief mountain-ranges, rivers, and strike of the stratified rocks, run from south-west to north-east, and the whole county is an extensive slope in the same direction, from the Grampians to the Moray Firth, into which the rivers flow. The coast is rocky, but not high, except to the east of Banff. The highest peaks are the North Cairngorm, 4090 feet; Ben-a-Main, 3874; Ben Rinnes, 2763; Corryhabbie, 2569; Knock, 1416. Ben Muicdhui, 4296 feet, is partly in Banffshire. The chief rivers are the Spey, which bounds a third of the county on the west; and the Doveran, 60 miles long, and mostly included within the county. The predominant rocks are granite, quartz rock, mica-slate, clay-slate, syenitic greenstone, graywacke, graywacke-slate, old red sandstone with fossil fishes, metamorphic limestone, and serpentine. The serpentine near Portsoy has long been famous as the 'Portsoy Marble.' Beryl and rock-crystal occur on Cairngorm. Lead, iron, antimony, and plumbago occur in small quantity. The soil in many parts is very fertile, and highly cultivated. In 1873, a third of the surface of B. was in crop, the chief crops being oats, turnips, and grass. The breeding of cattle is the chief object of the farmer. In 1873, B. had 6994 horses, 43,595 cattle, 47,699 sheep, and 2880 pigs. The chief manufactures of B. are weaving, bleaching, tanning, distilling, and artificial manures. Glenlivet whisky has long been celebrated. The chief exports are grain, meal, and cattle. There are twelve fishing towns and villages along the coast. The herring-fishery is extensively carried on. The salmon-fisheries of the Spey and Doveran are very valuable, the Spey ranking after the Tweed and Tay as a salmon-river. B. is divided into the districts of Enzie, Boyne, Strathisla, Strathdoveran, Balveny, Glenlivet, and Strathavon. The chief towns and villages are Banff, Macduff, Portsoy, Keith, Cullen, Buckie, Dufftown, and Tomantoul. Pop. in 1871, 62,023, with 107·7 females to every 100 males; 84·79 per cent. of the children between the ages of 5 and 13 were receiving education. There are 23 civil parishes in the county, and 81 places of worship (of which 33 belong to the Established Church, and 24 to the Free Church). Valued rental of county, £295,919. The parliamentary constituency in 1873–1874 was 2418. B., along with the counties of Aberdeen and Elgin, enjoys the Dick Bequest (q. v.) for parochial education. Two-thirds of B. belong to four landed proprietors. The county returns one member to parliament, and Banff and Cullen unite with Elgin, Inverury, Kintore, and Peterhead in returning another. B.

contains numerous remains of antiquity, the most remarkable being the old churches of Gamrie and Mortlach. The former, built in 1010, and used for public worship till 1830, is called the 'Kirk of Skulls,' the bones of the Norsemen who fell on the neighbouring field of Bloody Pots having been built into its walls. Mortlach was for a century the seat of a bishop, but David I., in 1139, incorporated the see with that of Aberdeen.

BANGALO'RE, a fortified town of Mysore, situated 70 miles to the north-east of Seringapatam, in lat. 12° 58′ N., and long. 77° 38′ E. It is the chief military station of the British in the territory. It has a manufacture of silk; but that of cotton is, or has been, far more important, having been at one time estimated to employ 3000 looms. The population of B. was (1872) 142,513. As the place is 3000 feet above the level of the sea, the thermometer, during six successive years, is said to have risen only twice above 90°, and then only to 92° and 93°. During the same period of time, the lowest temperature was 61°. B. was a favourite residence of Hyder Ali; and, in 1791, it was stormed by the British under Lord Cornwallis. Water is good and abundant; and the usual vegetables of Europe come to maturity in the gardens.

BANGKO'K, the capital city of Siam, is situated on the banks of the Meinam, about 20 miles from the mouth of that river, in the Gulf of Siam, and in lat. 13° 38′ N., and long. 100° 34′ E. The population is about 500,000, about half of whom are Chinese,, in whose hands is centred nearly all the trade of B., which is large, as is shewn by the commercial returns. The exports in 1871 were 6,132,913 dollars; in 1872, 6,684,390 dollars. The imports in 1871 amounted to 4,509,461 dollars; in 1872, to 5,247,729 dollars. For their right to trade here, the Chinese pay a poll-tax of about three dollars on entering the kingdom, and a similar sum is collected from them every three years. The payment of this tax exempts them from the half-yearly servitude which all other oriental strangers resident in Siam are required to give. The approach to B. by the Meinam, which can be navigated by ships of from 200 to 300 tons burden, is exceedingly beautiful, the banks being skirted by fine trees full of gay birds. As the town is neared, numerous temples present themselves, and floating-houses become common; and finally, the whole city, with its rich gardens, and shining temples and palaces, bursts full upon the view. A large number of the houses float on rafts, and can be transferred from one place to another at pleasure. There are a few houses in the city built of brick and stone, but the greater part are of wood. There are usually in each house a division for males and one for females. The land-houses are raised upon piles, 6 or 8 feet from the ground, and are reached by rude ladders—the daily flow of the tides and the annual inundations rendering this plan necessary. The floating-houses are made of bamboo-boards, wicker-work, or palm-leaves, and have generally a verandah in front, with a small wing at each end. The circumference of the walls of B., which are 15 feet high and 12 broad, is said to be 6 miles. The internal traffic of B. is chiefly carried on by means of canals, there being only a few passable streets in the whole city. Horses and carriages are rarely seen except in the neighbourhood of the palaces. The chief interest of the kingdom of Siam, according to Sir John Bowring, concentrates itself in Bangkok. B. is the constant residence of the two kings of Siam and their respective courts. The palace of the first king is surrounded by high walls, and is nearly a mile in circumference. It includes temples, public offices, accommodation for some thousands of soldiers, with their necessary equipments, a theatre, and rooms for about 3000 females, 600 of whom are the wives of the king. The sacred white elephant has also a place within the palace. Throughout the interior are distributed the most costly articles in gold, silver, and precious stones. The palace of the second king, whose functions are not very clearly defined, is nearly as large as that of the first king, but not so ostentatious. See SIAM. The temples of B. are innumerable, and decorated in the most gorgeous style, the Siamese taking a pride in lavishing their wealth on them. Some of them, according to the Catholic bishop Pallegoix, have cost more than 4,000,000 francs (£160,000). In the neighbourhood of B. are iron-mines and forests of teak-wood. The chief exports are sugar, pepper, cardamoms, ivory, feathers, hides, fine woods, rice, salt and fish. By the treaty concluded by Sir John Bowring in 1855, the Siamese reserve the right to prohibit the exportation of salt, rice, and fish, in cases of threatened scarcity. The imports are tea, manufactured silks and piece-goods, opium, hardware, machinery, and glass wares. In 1872, 336 vessels of 132,012 tons entered, and 294 of 136,148 tons, cleared the port. See Sir John Bowring's *Siam*.

BA'NGOR, an episcopal city, borough, and seaport town in the north-west of Caernarvonshire, North Wales, on the south-east bank of the Menai Strait, 2½ miles from the Britannia Bridge, and 59¾ west of Chester. It consists chiefly of a narrow crooked street, a mile long, stretching south-west through a narrow fertile valley, bounded on the south by steep precipices. The grandeur and beauty of the surrounding scenery has long made it a favourite resort, and the opening of the Chester and Holyhead Railway, on the great line of communication from London to Dublin, has greatly promoted its prosperity. The town has of late years been greatly improved, and mostly rebuilt. Its chief trade is derived from the great slate-quarries of Llandegai, 6 miles distant, and employing 2000 men. The slates are exported to all parts of the world, and also manufactured at B. into tables, chimney-pieces, &c. Pop. 9838. B. unites with Caernarvon, Conway, Criccieth, Nevin, and Pwllheli, in sending one member to parliament. B. is a place of great antiquity. In 525, St Deiniol founded a college here. It was raised to a bishopric in 550, the founder being the first diocesan. The cathedral founded by him was destroyed by the Saxons in 1071, rebuilt in 1102, and again destroyed by fire in 1402. The present edifice, built between 1496 and 1532, is a plain embattled cruciform structure, 214 by 60 feet, with a pinnacled tower 60 feet high. Several Welsh princes and distinguished ecclesiastics are buried here. B. bishopric is the oldest in Wales.

BA'NGOR, a small seaport town in the north-east of Downshire, on the south side of the entrance to Belfast Lough, and 12 miles east-north-east of Belfast, with which it is connected by rail. Pop. (1871) 2356. It has linen and cotton manufactures, and the embroidering of muslin is carried on. Cattle and provisions are exported. Coal is found in the neighbourhood. It is a favourite watering-place of the middle classes of Belfast. St Cungall, in 555, founded Bangor Abbey ('Ban-choir,' the 'White Choir,' whence the name Bangor), of which the ruins still remain. From this abbey, Alfred selected professors when he founded the university of Oxford. In the 9th c. it had 3000 inmates.

BA'NGOR, a city in the state of Maine, 221 miles north-east of Boston, on the right bank of the Penobscot, about 60 miles from its mouth, and at its confluence with the Kenduskeag, which intersects the

city, and affords an extensive supply of water-power. At spring-tides, which here rise 17 feet, the harbour is accessible from the sea for the largest vessels, and as the navigation cannot go higher, B. is one of the largest lumber depots in the world, absorbing and monopolising the trade of the heavily timbered basins of the Penobscot and its tributaries. About 2000 vessels are annually employed in the trade. B. possesses several churches, a theological seminary, foundries, planing and sawing mills, &c. There are 2 daily and 4 weekly newspapers. Steam-boats run between B. and the adjacent ports of Portland and Boston, and it is a station on the Penobscot and Kennebec Railway. Pop. (1870) 18,290.

BANGO'RIAN CO'NTROVERSY. Dr Benjamin Hoadley, Bishop of Bangor, in a sermon preached before George I., March 31, 1717, on the text, 'My kingdom is not of this world,' advanced opinions regarding the constitution of the church which excited strong opposition from the zealous advocates of ecclesiastical authority. A controversy ensued, which was carried on with great heat for many years, and resulted in a ponderous collection of pamphlets. See HOADLEY.

BA'NGOR-ISCOE'D (Bangor below the Wood), an inland village, beautifully situated, in a fertile and richly wooded country, on the right bank of the Dee, on the borders of Flint and Denbigh shires, North Wales, 5 miles south-east of Wrexham. Pop. between 500 and 600. It was once the seat of one of the largest monasteries in Britain. This monastery was founded before 180 A.D., and contained 2400 monks in the time of St Augustine, in the end of the 6th c., when they distinguished themselves in resisting the claims of the papal see. Ethelred, king of Northumbria, in 593, devastated the monastery, and massacred 1200 of the monks.

BANIALU'KA, a fortified town of Bosnia, European Turkey, situated on the left bank of the Verbas, with a manufactory of gunpowder, and numerous bazaars and public baths. Pop. 8000.

BA'NIAN or **BANIA'N** (from the Sanscrit *banij*, a merchant), a word used in India to designate a merchant or trader generally. It is more particularly applied to the great merchants in the west of India, especially in the seaport towns of Bombay, Surat, Cambay, &c., who carry on a very extensive trade by means of caravans, with the interior of Asia, even to the borders of Russia and China. Contrary to the general custom of the Indian people, these merchants travel much, and the establishments and counting-houses of Indian Banians are to be found in almost every commercial town of any note in Asia. The banians form a class or division of the caste (q. v.) of the Vaisya, adopt a peculiar costume, and are strict in the observance of fasts and in abstaining from the use of flesh.

BA'NIAN DAYS, a sailor's phrase, nearly equivalent to the *jours maigres* of the French. The term denotes the days when no meat is served out to a ship's crew. How far this is likely to occur in the royal navy, or the mercantile marine, will be found noticed under VICTUALLING. The term is derived from the practice of the Banian (q. v.) traders.

BA'NIAN-TREE. See BANYAN.

BANIM, JOHN, a celebrated Irish novelist, born 1800, whose pictures of manners, in the form of tales, have excited considerable interest in England. His aim was to become for Ireland what Scott had been for Scotland. He has given proof of vigorous intellectual grasp and vivid fancy, in a series of pictures of life, in which he delineates the peculiarities of the Irish character in strong light and shade, and appeals forcibly to the national feeling. His *Tales of the O'Hara Family* (London, 1825) were followed, in 1826, by a second series, which did not disappoint the high expectations excited by the first. Of these, several have been translated into German by Lindau. Next appeared *The Battle of the Boyne*, *The Croppy* (1828), *The Denounced* (1830), *The Smuggler* (1831), *The Mayor of Windgap*, *Father Connell*, &c. In 1837, general sympathy having been attracted towards B.'s privations, occasioned by disease that precluded all literary exertion, a pension of £150 per annum from the civil list was awarded him by government, which was afterwards further increased by £40 for the education of his daughter, an only child. He died in poverty on the 1st August 1842, at Windgap Cottage, near Kilkenny.

B. failed in his attempt to portray the manners and frivolities of the higher classes; but none of his predecessors, such as Edgeworth, Morgan, and Crofton Croker, have succeeded in depicting so vividly and truly the Irish peasant, with his picturesque peculiarities in his sufferings and errors. Although generally happy in the plot and development of his story, he is too much disposed to dwell on the horrible. His denunciations may be well founded, but they disturb the poetic effect. B. was also not quite free from a somewhat tiresome minuteness of description, and his imitation of Scott is frequently very palpable.

BA'NISHMENT, excepting in the penal sense of Transportation (q. v.), with which it is popularly synonymous, can only now be said to have a legal meaning historically. Formerly, in England, parties who were required to *abjure the realm*—that is, renounce and depart from the country—were, so to speak, *banished*; but the word appears to have a more technical and precise significance in the Scotch law than in the English, and in Scotch law-books, is defined as the punishment of exile from Scotland inflicted on persons convicted of certain offences for which that punishment is provided. But as a punishment, it has either been abolished in that country by express enactment or become obsolete by disuse. See TRANSPORTATION, PENAL SERVITUDE.

BA'NISTER, a corruption of Baluster (q. v.).

BANJERMASSI'N, a large kingdom on the south-east of Borneo, has an area of 7880 square miles, and a pop. of about 150,000 souls, chiefly Mohammedans. Since 1860, it is governed by the Dutch Resident for the south and east of Borneo, who has an assistant at Martapura, where the sultans formerly lived. B. is watered by large rivers and intersected by a chain of mountains, in several parts rising to 3000 feet. Excellent small-arms are manufactured. The products are pepper, wax, edible nests, rattans, benzoin, dragons' blood, coal, iron, diamonds, and gold dust.

B., the capital of the residency, is built on the island Tatas, about 12 miles from the mouth of the Banjermassin or Barito; pop. 35,000. In 1871, the pop. of the residency numbered 326 Europeans and 847,846 natives. There is a considerable trade in native products, and the imports are piece-goods, gunpowder, rice, sugar, Chinese porcelain, silks, and a few horses from Java.

BANK, BANKING. A banker is the custodier of the money of other persons. Such is his business, viewed in its simplest aspect. A banker, if he hoarded the money deposited with him, would be simply a cash-keeper to the public; his bank would be literally a bank of *deposit*. Even were the business of banking limited to the keeping of deposits, it would be of no small advantage to society: the depositors would be relieved from the care of their money, and in many cases, from the trouble of handing

it to those to whom they required to make a payment. If the person to whom the depositor wishes to pay money intend also to deposit it, a transfer in the books of the banker from the one to the other, made on the order or *cheque* of the depositor, would effect the payment. The money itself would lie undisturbed. The Bank of Amsterdam, as it existed in the 17th c., was a bank of deposit, pure and simple. But the business of receiving money on deposit has almost always been, and is now, universally, combined with that of lending it out. A banker does not hoard all the money deposited with him—he gives the greater portion out in loan. The lending of money is as much a part of his business as the receiving of deposits. The advantages accruing to society from the operations of banking are thus immense. A million of money lent out to be used, and which otherwise would have lain dead, either in small portions in the repositories of the owners, or in one large hoard in the coffers of the banker, makes the world one million the richer—or at least prevents it from becoming one million the poorer; for money, so long as unused, serves no end as a means of exchange. With the money thus lent out, manufacturers can purchase raw material to be worked up, and procure food and clothing for their workmen; and traders can go into the markets and purchase commodities for resale. Commodities are thus more quickly turned to useful purposes, and a stimulus is given to the production of more. But a banker deals not with the money only of others; he uses money belonging to himself. This is his *capital*. Few would be found to deposit their money with a person known to possess none of his own. If he should lend deposits to those who fail to repay them—that is, *make bad debts*—he has the means from his capital of replacing the deposits thus lost. Such, then, are the simple functions of a banker: he borrows and lends.

But for the money he lends he receives interest from the borrowers; and in this interest he is paid for his trouble in taking charge of the deposits, and for his risk of bad debts. The services that a banker performs as the cash-keeper of his depositors are very great. In the case of persons not themselves in business, it is quite usual for a banker to make all their money-payments, beyond their small daily expenditure, and to receive the money payable to them. The money transactions of such persons are thus contained in their banker's books. This is effected by the depositor giving a cheque or order on his banker for the sums he has to pay; and by handing to him all the *cheques* or orders the depositor receives for sums payable to himself. Suppose a person's income derived from dividends on government stock: he sends a *power of attorney* or authority to his banker to uplift the dividends for him. These are received by the banker as deposits, and are drawn out by the depositor as occasion occurs, by cheques issued by the depositor to those to whom he requires to pay it away. So he may receive money due to him by a cheque given to him by his debtor. This cheque he sends to his banker, who will obtain payment. If both persons deal with the same banker, a simple transfer in his books will carry through the transaction; and if the bankers be different, and each has had received, in the course of his business, as is always happening, a cheque on the other, there will be a set-off between them; and two payments will be made as well as two deposits, without trouble to the persons concerned, and without the employment of any money. But this mode of managing one's pecuniary transactions is not confined to the case of those not engaged in business; on the contrary, it is followed on a scale out of all proportion greater in carrying through the money transactions of those in business or trade in the principal industrial countries.

Besides thus performing the function of cashiers to their depositors, in consideration of the profit made on their deposits, many banks allow their depositors interest on their deposits. The rate allowed is, of course, always less than that received by the banker. Frequently a depositor bargains with the banker not to draw out his deposit without previous notice, longer or shorter as may be agreed on; and in this case the banker will allow a higher rate of interest than when the deposit is repayable *on call*—that is, at any time, without previous notice. The practice of allowing interest on deposits always obtained in Scotland, but in England is of later growth. It has led there, of late years, to a great increase in the amount of deposits, especially, it is believed, of small sums. Where banks allow interest on deposits, it is quite common for persons to lodge their money with them, solely for the sake of the return received in the shape of interest from the banks. These persons prefer the low rate of interest which banks give, to the higher rate which may be obtained from individual borrowers, or to the greater return which may be received if they traded on their money. The low rate of interest is compensated for by the greater security, and the absence of trouble and labour to the depositor.

Occasions are always occurring for withdrawing deposits, as well as making them. Traders and commercial men, for example, day by day, deposit with their bankers the drawings or sums of money which they receive in the course of their business; and, on the other hand, day by day, draw out such sums as they require to pay away in purchases of goods, in wages, rent, and other expenditure. A bank, therefore, while continually receiving deposits, is continually repaying deposits; and the amount uncalled for is subject to a daily fluctuation. At one period of the year, or in a certain condition of trade, the amount of deposits may be high; at another, low. As it is a principle, at the very root of banking, that money deposited shall be returned, either on demand, or punctually at the expiry of a stipulated notice, it follows that banks must always have in their coffers as much of the money deposited with them as there is the least likelihood of being called for by depositors. When business is in its ordinary condition, a bank can, after some experience, approximate pretty nearly to the amount of the greatest demand for a return of deposits throughout the year, and provide accordingly. But sometimes the credit of a bank becomes doubted, either from causes peculiar to itself, or on occasions of a *panic* or general distrust, when all who own money wish to have it in their own possession. In these cases, there is a run on the bank for repayment of its deposits, and the amount called for may be far beyond the maximum demanded in ordinary times. If the bank has not retained as much of the deposits in its coffers as meet the demand, it is said to *suspend payment*, and, as a general rule, it must wind-up its business; the confidence of the public that it will in future restore its deposits on demand being now destroyed. There are two prime rules in safe banking: the one is, that the bank shall lend its deposits only on good and undoubted securities, however low the profit; and the other is, that the bank shall retain a sufficient amount of its deposits—and this is called the *reserve*—to meet the possible demands of the depositors, even in cases of a run, although there may be no reason to expect a run or unusual demand; for when a run comes, it seldom casts its shadow before. But it is evident that the greater the *reserve* of a bank, the less the amount of deposits

which it is lending out and drawing interest for; hence the temptation which banks lie under of imprudently lending out a too great proportion of their deposits; and it is their yielding to this temptation which almost always precipitates the failures of banks.

The *reserve* of the banking department of the Bank of England is always in coin, or, what is the same thing, in notes against which there is coin lying in what is called the *issue* department of the Bank. In the case of all other banks in this country, the reserve is only partly in coin; sometimes the proportion of coin is very small. A great portion of the reserve is generally in Bank of England notes, equivalent, of course, to coin. These other banks also hold a portion of what is truly their reserve, in the shape of government stock, in which they have invested it. In this way, the banks obtain a return on this last portion of their reserve, in the dividends or interest paid by government on the stock—this return being less, indeed, in the usual case, than if the bank had lent out the money in the ordinary course of business, but better than no return at all, as must be when the coin or notes are lying idle. The reason why government stock, in Great Britain, is a safe reserve is, that it is sure to command a purchaser at all times. If there be a run on a bank, it immediately finds a purchaser for the stock, and with the price, whether paid in gold, or in Bank of England notes, the only other legal tender, it meets the demands of its depositors. Sometimes, a bank has its reserve in the form of a deposit at the Bank of England; or, if a provincial bank, with some London bank which has its own reserve there. From the Bank of England being the channel through which, directly or indirectly, payments are made, and moneys received, by other banks, it is more convenient for them to have their reserve lying as a deposit in it, than lying as gold within their own walls. In the case of a demand on their reserve, the banks will draw out their deposits, in notes, or, if gold be in demand, in gold, from the Bank of England. Whether, therefore, the reserve of a bank is invested in government securities, or is deposited in the Bank of England, or is in Bank of England notes, it is from the coin in that bank that the gold comes in the case of a run. It is apparent from this that it is essential to the stability of all banks in this country, so long as they themselves do not keep a sufficient reserve of coin in their coffers, that the Bank of England shall always be possessed of coin, and never be unable, on demand, to pay its depositors in gold, or to give gold in exchange for all its notes that may be presented to it. It may be added, that while banks gain, through the annual dividends, in keeping their reserve in government stock, they run the risk of a loss in the event of their requiring to sell it in the time of a panic. For at such a time, when many securities and stocks become unsaleable, and all of them suffer depreciation in value, government stock itself falls in price, although less so than the others. Banks often invest portions of their reserve in other stocks than government stock. The higher return obtained on these other is, however, outweighed by the greater risk of depreciation in their value, whether continued unsold or thrown into the market for sale in times of panic.

We have hitherto been treating banks as banks of *deposit* and *loan*; but many of these banks, in all countries where banks are known, are also banks of *issue*. Banks of deposit, as has been mentioned, make loans from their capital and deposits. If from capital, the banker has no greater profit by the transaction than if he had lent out his money in any other way, equally safe, and involving the same amount of trouble. If from deposits, the interest he receives, in so far as it exceeds the interest, if any, paid to the depositors, and a rateable proportion of the expense of carrying on the business of the bank, is pure gain to him. But a banker may give the loan from his own notes, and in that case his gain is still greater. A bank-note is simply a written promise by the bank issuing it, to pay to the bearer, on demand, a sum of money—that is, in coin of the realm. Of course, the borrower would not accept a loan from a bank in its own notes, unless he believed that it could redeem its promise of paying in coin, and that the public were of the same opinion; for the moment that a suspicion arises that the promise will not be made good, the note will cease to pass from hand to hand as coin, or to perform all the functions which coin performs. But when the loan is accepted in a bank's own notes, it is evident that the interest which the bank draws for the loan of its promises to pay is pure profit, except the rateable proportion—as in the other cases—of the expense of carrying on its business, and the expense of the paper and printing of the notes with the government stamp-duty. In other words, a bank which can get people to pay to it interest for the loan of its promises to pay, draws the same income- barring the comparatively trifling expense of manufacturing the written promises—as a bank does which has to provide itself with gold for making its loans. The motive which a bank has to extend its issues on loans is therefore apparent, so long, of course, as it is not compulsory on it to retain unemployed in its coffers as much in gold as it issues in notes.

But it by no means follows that when a bank makes a loan in its own notes for a definite period, it will really obtain the benefit of the interest on it for that period; for the borrower does not apply for the notes that he may keep them beside him, but that he may pay them away in making a purchase, or in liquidating a debt, and this, most commonly, on the very day he receives them. If the person to whom the notes are thus paid by the borrower has himself no purchase to pay for, or no payment to make, he may, the moment he gets them, return them to the bank that issued them, to be there on deposit. If the bank pays interest on deposits, as most banks do, then out of the interest drawn by it on the original loan, it will have to pay interest to the depositor of the notes; in other words, the loan is no longer a loan of its notes, but a loan from its deposits. Or, the person receiving the notes from the borrower, may immediately present them to the issuing bank for coin, instead of depositing them. Here, too, therefore, the loan that was made in notes is now converted into a loan of coin, that was in reserve from previous deposits, or that was part of the bank's own capital; in which cases, the bank obtains no advantage whatever in having made the loan originally in its notes. It might equally well, so far as profit is concerned, have originally made it in gold from its reserve of deposits or capital. Notes generally find their way back to the bank that issued them through other banks, into which they have been paid as deposits, or for the liquidation of debts due to them. These banks suffer the loss of profit or interest on the amount of the notes thus received by them so long as they keep them; they therefore immediately present them to the issuing bank for gold, to replenish their own reserves, or to lend out; or, what is the same thing, they present them to the

issuing bank for government stock, or other securities bearing interest, and which that bank has had to provide from its capital and deposits.

It will now be apparent to the reader that there are two checks which prevent a bank issuing notes to any extent it pleases. In the first place, there must be a demand for its notes by borrowers. It is only to people in good credit, and likely to make a profitable use of them, that a bank will lend its notes, and such people will not take an increase of loans unless trade be increasing, and new opportunities be presenting themselves for profitably employing the notes borrowed. True, banks, when imprudently conducted, or when deceived in the character of their customers, frequently lend their notes to reckless persons, who overtrade with them, and become bankrupt. But banks commit this error, when they do commit it, to a far greater extent by loans of their deposits and capital, than by loans of their notes. In the second place, the immediate return of the notes, chiefly through other banks for gold, or for other portions of the reserve of the issuing bank, is a check to its issuing more notes than it has a reserve to meet. This return of notes through banks is called the *exchange* of notes—the notes issued by a bank being returned to it in exchange for the notes held by it of another bank.

Besides issuing its notes in loans, a bank may issue them in repayment of deposits. In this case, there is the same profit to the bank as in the other case. The bank gets the profit which it makes on the money which was originally deposited or lodged with it, without having to pay interest to the persons who made the deposit or lodgment; the deposit, or money lodged, having now been repaid in its notes. But here, too, these notes are equally liable to be returned to the issuer as when they are issued on loans.

Of all the notes issued, in whatever way, by banks, a certain amount is not returned to them, but is kept in circulation, being what is required by the necessities of the public for use as money, passing from hand to hand. It is of course on this portion that the banks make their profit; and, in consequence of this profit, they are able to afford banking facilities to the public more cheaply than they could otherwise do. The profit is just the interest on the notes in circulation—less the expense of manufacturing the notes, a rateable proportion of the expenses of conducting the banks, and the loss of interest or profit on an unemployed reserve kept from prudence, or by the requirement of law, to meet a return of notes. This interest is paid by the persons who originally borrowed these notes from the banks, and who have not repaid them; or if the banks have repaid deposits with the notes, the interest is paid by those to whom they lent what was originally these deposits. The amount of the bank-notes in circulation varies at different periods of the year: at term-times and quarter-days, when more payments than usual are made, there is a greater quantity of money required by the public than at other times, and the notes in circulation increase in amount. This addition to the circulation is drawn from the banks by depositors or borrowers. After it has served its purpose, this additional quantity gradually returns to the banks as deposits or in repayment of loans. If the credit of an issuing bank is at any time suspected, the holders of notes will present them for gold, just in the same way as its depositors will call for a return of their deposits; and a bank requires to provide itself with a reserve—on which, of course, it makes no profit—to meet a *run* from its note-holders, as well as a *run* from its depositors. It has been generally imagined that when issuing banks suspend payments on a run, the run is one on the part of their note-holders; but this is only a popular error. In a well-established bank, the amount of its notes in circulation is almost nothing compared to its deposits; and though the holders of small sums in notes may be more apt than depositors to take alarm and rush in a panic to the bank for gold for its notes, a small proportion of its depositors suddenly demanding a return of their money in gold, as effectually drains a bank of its reserve, as if its whole circulation were to be at once presented to it for gold.

Banks make their loans chiefly in the form of *discounts;* that is, upon bills of exchange. Commodities in the wholesale market are generally sold on credit. The buyer promises to pay the amount at a certain date to the seller, and his promise is contained in a bill of exchange. The seller transfers it to a bank, which, on the faith of it, advances the amount in loan to him, less *discount*, that is, interest of the money till the bill be due. This is called *discounting*. But banks lend on other securities. A holder of government stock, for example, will obtain a loan on the security of his stock; the banker being entitled to sell it, and repay the loan from the price, if the borrower fail to make punctual payment. So also, the holder of stock or shares in any public company, as a railway company, or of a debenture or bond due by such, will, where the company is believed to be in a sound condition, or the security is saleable, obtain a loan from a bank. The owners of commodities lying in a public warehouse, may obtain a loan on depositing with the bank the *warrants* or certificates of ownership. Loans, too, are occasionally made for short periods on the mere note of hand of the borrower, when the banker is satisfied of the ability of the borrower to repay the money. It is seldom in this country that banks lend on mortgages over land. Borrowers, in these cases, generally take loans to lie unpaid for a few years; but to have his money locked up in that way does not suit the trade of a banker. Where a banker finds the security which he has received to be insufficient, and repayment of the loan is not forthcoming, he will, of course, like any other trader, to avoid making a bad debt, take any other security the debtor can give him—such as a manufactory or a mine. Banks have in this way frequently become involved in manufacturing transactions, in their attempts to make more money of the securities than they would have done by an immediate sale of them; they have become manufacturers and miners, and suffered great loss in consequence. And it is not to be supposed that banks always abstain from making loans when the security is known to be doubtful; far from it: banks, like other commercial establishments, have been, in many occasions, recklessly managed. In trying to push business, they have made loans on insufficient security, and banks are under strong temptation, to which they frequently yield, when a trader largely indebted to them is approaching bankruptcy, to sustain his credit by additional advances, in the hope that he may retrieve his affairs, and pay in full both the old and the new advances. The result is often the loss of both. Conduct of this kind has been the ruin of many banking establishments in England, of two or three in Ireland and Scotland, and elsewhere.

Bankers perform another very important function: they *remit* money from one place to another. One illustration will serve to explain how this is managed. A debtor in Edinburgh makes a payment to his creditor in London in this way: he pays the money to a banker in Edinburgh, who, for a small charge, called the *exchange*, gives him a draft for the amount on a banker, his correspondent, in London.

The debtor transmits the draft to his creditor, who presents it to the London banker, and receives the money from him. No actual transmission of the money, however, takes place, for there are debtors in London requiring to pay money to creditors in Edinburgh, and these debtors effect the payment by paying the money to the London banker, and obtaining his drafts on the Edinburgh banker. The one set of drafts are thus set off against the other. Not only may remittances between two places be thus made without the use of money, but the payments to and by the parties in both places may also be made without it. The debtors may pay for the drafts by cheques on the banker who grants them, and the creditors may receive the money by drawing cheques on the banker by whom the drafts are made payable.

The large amount of money transactions carried through without the intervention of coin or bank-notes, in a country like England, is inconceivable to those not engaged in business pursuits. The manner in which these transactions may be effected without money, would be at once apprehended, if all persons in the same locality dealt with the same bank, and if all the banks scattered throughout the kingdom were only branches of the same establishment. But in practice, matters are so managed as if this were the case. The cheques, bills, or other drafts which come into the hands of a banker, drawn on (that is, payable by) other bankers, are set off and liquidated by drafts, which they have received, drawn on him. The balance or difference only is paid in money. In London, the centre of the money-world, there is an establishment called the Clearing-house (q. v.), of which most of the London banks are members. There, at a fixed hour daily, attendance is given by a clerk from each of these banks, who presents all the drafts immediately payable which his bank holds on the others; the balance or difference, on the whole, for or against each bank is ascertained; and the bank which holds a less amount of drafts on others than they hold on it, pays the difference by cheques on the Bank of England. The lowest weekly clearing during 1873, was £79,207,000, and the highest £161,770,000. There are clearing-houses in some of the provincial towns, conducted on a similar principle.

Bank of England.—This institution, which is the largest and most important banking establishment in the world, was projected by William Paterson, a Scotsman, and received its charter of incorporation July 27, 1694. It was constituted as a joint-stock association, with a capital of £1,200,000, which sum was lent at interest to the government of William and Mary, at the time in a state of embarrassment. From its very outset, therefore, the Bank of England was a servant of government; and in a lesser or greater degree, it has enjoyed this character through all the stages of its subsequent history. At first, the charter of the Bank was for eleven years only; but in consequence of the great services of the institution to government, its charter has been at various times renewed. The last renewal was in 1844, and the charter of that year still subsists, its term being subject to modification or revocation by the legislature at pleasure. By the act or charter of 1844, the Bank was divided into two departments—the *issue* and the *banking*. What led to the division was this: it was supposed that, when a foreign drain of gold from us set in, it would, if the currency or circulation in this country had been purely metallic, have produced a contraction of the circulation, and a consequent fall of prices, and, as an ultimate result, the cessation of the drain. It was further supposed that banks could issue their notes to any extent they pleased; that their excessive issues increased the currency, and therefore increased prices, which in their turn led to foreign drains; and that, on the occasions of these drains, the continued issues prevented the natural and desirable contraction of the circulation, and aggravated the commercial convulsions occurring at such periods. The object of the act of 1844 was to prevent issues of notes beyond a certain amount, unless against an equal amount of gold held by the issuing bank, so that the mixed currency of notes and coin might thus expand and contract like a self-acting metallic currency. Experience, however, has shewn, that when these foreign drains occur, the gold exported is taken chiefly from the reserves in the Bank of England, being withdrawals of deposits or loans by the Bank; and that the amount of notes in the hands of the public has not been affected by the legislation of 1844. In practice, whenever there are signs of a foreign drain, and the reserve of the Bank is diminishing, the Bank counteracts the tendency to a drain by raising the rate of discount and restricting its loans; the purchasing power of the public is thereby limited, and prices kept down; and, at the same time, gold is attracted to this country for investment. The circulation is in reality not interfered with. It was also intended by the act of 1844 to add to the security of bank-notes by insuring a supply of gold to meet the payment of them at all times. But the solvency of the Bank of England is undoubted; its notes would at any time be taken as gold; and this effect of the act of 1844, and the supplementary act of 1845, has in the case of the notes of other banks been hitherto inappreciable.

In the *issue* department of the Bank of England, its sole business is to give out notes to the public. Before the separation of the departments, the government was due to the Bank £11,015,100. This sum was declared to be now a debt due to the issue department, and for the issues of notes to that amount, no gold requires to be held by it. This was just the same thing as if the Bank had originally lent £11,015,100 of its notes to government, and these notes had found their way into circulation. The Bank was also allowed to issue additional notes on securities—that is, to lend them to a limit which at present amounts to £3,984,900, and this also without holding gold. The amount of notes which may thus be issued, without gold being in reserve against it, is £15,000,000. All notes issued above that amount can be issued only in exchange for gold. At the passing of the act in 1844, the limit of notes to be issued against the government debt and securities was fixed at £14,000,000—past experience having shewn that there was not the least risk of there being at any time less than that amount of Bank of England notes in the hands of the public. The addition of the £1,000,000 is an extra issue, authorised by the act, in consequence of certain issuing banks having since ceased to issue. The Bank has to account to government for the net profit of this issue loan of notes of £1,000,000, and the profit the Bank derives from its issue department is the interest received on the £14,000,000 of government debt and securities, which, at 3 per cent., is £420,000 yearly. But out of this the Bank pays to government, for its banking privileges, and in lieu of stamp-duties, £180,000. If we assume the expense of the issue department to be £160,000, the net profit upon it would be £80,000. The Bank also makes a profit upon bullion and foreign coin. These are brought to the Bank for notes; they are worth £3, 17*s.* 10½*d.* per ounce; but the Bank is obliged by its charter to purchase them at £3, 17*s.* 9*d.* The holders prefer taking this price to having their bullion and foreign coin coined, free of charge, at the public mint, as the delay in the

coining is equal to a loss of interest of 1½*d.* per ounce. The amount of notes in the hands of the public averages about £25,000,000; but the amount issued by the *issue* department is greater. The difference is the amount lying in the *banking* department, and represents the reserve of gold of that department; that is to say, the banking department retains only a half or three-fourths of a million of coin, and transfers the bulk of its reserve to the issue department, in exchange for notes. We therefore require to regard the reserve of the banking department as gold, though lying in the shape of notes issued by the other department.

Viewed in its *banking* department, the Bank differs from other banks in having the management of the public debt, and paying the dividends on it; in holding the deposits belonging to government, and in making advances to it when necessary; in aiding in the collection of the public revenue, and in being the bank of other banks. For the management of the public debt, the Bank receives about £247,000, against which there has to be set £124,000 of charges. The remaining profits of the Bank are derived from its employment, like other banks, of its deposits, on which it allows no interest, and of its own capital. The capital was originally £1,200,000; in 1816, it reached £14,553,000—the present amount. There is besides a rest of above £3,000,000. During the year 1873, the public deposits varied between £16,730,000 and £3,880,000, and the private deposits between £22,960,000 and £16,490,000.

In 1797, the Bank found itself likely to be obliged to suspend payments, and its notes were declared by law a legal tender, although no longer convertible into coin. This state of matters continued till 1821. The notes during this interval not having been convertible into coin on demand, there was no check upon the Bank in the amount of its issues; and the currency became depreciated—that is, a £5 note would not exchange for five sovereigns; and every man to whom £5 was due, was thus obliged to accept payment in a £5 note, not worth £5. It is, however, said that the value of gold at the time was enhanced owing to absorption by hoarding and by military-chests, and that the depreciation was more apparent than real. The export of gold following on a rise of prices occasioned by an issue of bank or government notes is unlimited, except by exhaustion, if these notes are not payable in coin on demand, and are issued without any check from without or self-imposed. But as prices estimated in these notes rise, the price of bullion, like other commodities, rises too, and the price of coin which can be converted into bullion, or be used abroad at its previous purchasing power, rises also. Since 1821, the Bank has been oftener than once on the verge of a suspension of payments, owing to foreign drains of gold. The separation of the Bank into two departments is regarded by many as having a tendency to produce a suspension in times of panic, when the reserve is reduced by withdrawals to supply a foreign drain, or to meet an internal run. Before the separation, the Bank, in the case of withdrawals of gold, had the whole amount of gold within the Bank to meet them; but now it loses the command of all the gold in the issue department. It cannot get that gold unless in exchange for notes, but, its reserve being reduced or exhausted, it has none to spare. The restriction of credit consequent upon the approach to an exhaustion of the reserve of the banking department, is so great, that the fear of it occasions a panic; and in 1847, 1857, and 1866, on the possible suspension of payments by the banking department, owing to a reduction of its reserve, being apparent, the government of the day took the responsibility of authorising the Bank to lend additional notes, not represented by gold, which was an indirect way of getting at the gold in the issue department, where the object of the borrowers was to obtain gold. In 1857, it was found necessary to take the benefit of this authorisation.

The Bank of England is situated in the centre of London; but it has a branch in the west end, and several branches in the provinces.

Joint-stock Banks in England and Wales.—There are 120 of these banks, of which 56 in the provinces are entitled to issue notes to the extent of £2,730,669, without its being compulsory to hold any gold in reserve against them. Their actual issue is considerably less. The deposits of the joint-stock banks in London are above £90,000,000. All of them, except the Cheque Bank, allow interest on deposits. The Cheque Bank, which was recently established, receives deposits without doing any other banking business. For the amount lodged by a depositor, it supplies to him blank forms of cheques for sums limited from £1 to £10 each, to be issued by him, as if money. The receiver of one of those cheques, is, from its nature, assured that funds have been lodged in the Cheque Bank to meet it when presented.

Private Banks in England and Wales.—Of these, there are 255, of which 57 are in London. Of the provincial banks, 117 have a fixed authorised issue of £3,874,621.

In the case of all these banks, whether issuing or non-issuing, their profits are chiefly derived from the use of their deposits.

There are also in London 58 foreign, Indian, and British colonial joint-stock banks.

Banks in Scotland.—The earliest banking institution in North Britain was the Bank of Scotland, instituted by a charter of incorporation from the Scots parliament in 1695. The original capital was £1,200,000 Scots, or £100,000 sterling. The amount was raised by shares differing in extent, from £1000 Scots, or £83, 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling, to £20,000 Scots. In 1774, the amount of stock was extended to £200,000 sterling: now it is £1,000,000 sterling, and the shares £100 sterling.

The Bank of Scotland continued to be the only bank in the country till the year 1727, when a new and similar establishment was constituted under the title of the Royal Bank of Scotland, whose advanced capital is now £2,000,000. In 1746, another association was formed, and incorporated by royal charter, with the title of the British Linen Company. The object of this association was at first to encourage the linen manufacture of Scotland, but gradually it fell into the course of common banking business. From £100,000, its capital has increased to £1,000,000. Besides these three banks, there are in Scotland other nine joint-stock banks, with capitals varying from £1,000,000 to £120,000. There are now no private banks. The amount of deposits is above 75 millions, on which interest is allowed. Their authorised issue of notes is £2,749,271, but their actual issue is about double that amount. The Western Bank, with a capital of £1,500,000, a circulation of above £400,000, having 1300 shareholders, and about 100 branches, suspended payments in 1857. The shareholders, however, being under unlimited liability, neither the depositors nor the note-holders sustained any loss. The solvency of the shareholders, as a body, being undoubted, the other banks at once paid off the Western Bank deposits, and redeemed its notes, by which they became its creditors at a remunerating rate of interest. Another Scottish establishment, called the Edinburgh and Glasgow Bank, had about the same time to wind up its affairs, with the entire loss of its capital. Both cases of stoppage arose from a

sily profuse system of discounting bills. In nd and Ireland, the creditors of bankrupt banks generally found great difficulty in recovering a dividend on their deposits and notes; but otland, the loss on such occasions has fallen ly on the shareholders, as in the case of the ·n Bank. In consequence of allowing interest posits, the banks in Scotland may be said to he whole capital of the country, minus only ency passing from hand to hand. This wide l system of depositing is greatly aided by the ishment of branches from the parent-banks; se branches are found in every small town in ngdom. The entire number of branch-banks otland, in 1874, was upwards of 800, having ased by 252 in the course of fourteen

At these branch-banks, the agent (usually pectable person in business) discounts bills certain limits, issues letters of credit, and out notes, and also gives cash on demand for though, strictly, the notes of a bank are only le on demand at the head-office. By a strict n of supervision, Scottish branch-banks are y well conducted, and are of great service in department of trade. For one thing, they powerfully contributed to extinguish burglary ighway robbery, as no one thinks of keeping , except to a trifling amount, either in his or about his person. At all the great fairs, rs attend to receive deposits, and to pay es. Forgeries of Scottish bank-notes are now wn.

banks in Scotland, like the banks in Ireland, nlike the provincial banks in England, are l to issue notes beyond their fixed issues, lding gold equal in amount to the extra issue. e the gold thus retained is, like the other n reserve, liable for all the deposits, as well the whole circulation of a bank, if it should he security of the establishment is increased n a small degree by this arrangement, which, from the loss of profit to the bank on the nemployed, is attended with inconvenience at seasons when the circulation is extended. In nd, and Ireland also, banks can issue one- notes; the English banks are not permitted ulate notes of less value than £5.

ides employing money in discounting bills, Scottish banks grant loans of fluctuating nt, called *cash-accounts* or *cash-credits*. By a ccount is signified a process whereby an lual is entitled to draw out sums as required, ipulated amount, and by an implied condition ke deposits at his convenience towards the ation of the same. On entering into this ement, he finds security to the bank that ll repay to the bank, whenever called on, dance of sums drawn out, less those paid in, he interest that may be due. These accounts lanced yearly like current or deposit accounts. nly difference between the latter and a cash- nt on the face of them is, that if the credit sl on the cash-account is being made use of, alance is in favour of the bank; whereas, on her kind of accounts, the balance is in favour bank's customer.

ks in Ireland. There are nine joint stock , having 382 branches and sub-branches. Their ·ised issue is £6,354,494; the actual issue is a sometimes above, and sometimes below that it. Of the authorised issue, £3,738,428 is that Bank of Ireland. It is a national bank, lend- ,630,769 of its capital to government. It was shed in 1783, with privileges resembling those Bank of England. Its capital is about ,000, and its rest £1,077,000. It allows no interest on deposits. The capitals of the other banks vary from £250,000 to £1,500,000. Five of them are issuing banks. There are also three private banking firms in Dublin.

Foreign and Colonial Banks.—On the continent of Europe, there are both national or incorporated banks and private banks. The national banks are, to a greater or less extent, government establishments, managing the public debt and finances, and, unlike the Bank of England, subject to government influence or interference. In India and the British colonies, there are joint-stock banks and private bankers. The joint-stock banks of Australia are establishments of magnitude. The United States of America are overrun with banks. Insufficient capital, reckless management, and the smallness of the reserve kept, have frequently led to the suspension of payments of these banks. As a means of securing the note-holders, the law in some states requires the banks to deposit with the state government securities against the notes issued. At all times, the number of forgeries of bank-notes in the United States is very considerable, and great caution requires to be exercised in accepting notes as payment.

BANK-NOTES, MANUFACTURE OF. The chief object in the manufacture of B. is to render forgery impossible, or at least easy of detection. This is sought to be effected by peculiarity of paper, design, and printing, or by a combination of these means. See PAPER-MAKING. The main reliance has been on mechanical design the writing, the emblems, and the ornaments being so combined as to render forgery difficult. The ink, too, is peculiar (see INK-MAKING), being the blackest and most indelible of inks. As a further security against forgery, a self-registering machine was contrived by Messrs Oldham. Copperplate printing was the only printing in use for bank-notes till 1837, when a great improvement was made by Messrs Perkins and Heath. This was the reproduction of designs by the mill and die by mechanical pressure. The pattern is engraved on a soft steel plate, which is then hardened, to transfer the pattern by pressure to a soft steel roller, on which, of course, the pattern is produced in relief; the roller or mill is then hardened, to reproduce the pattern in the plate from which the printing is to be done; and thus almost any number of plates for all common purposes can easily be produced.

This system of siderography continued in use for bank-note printing in the Bank of England till 1855, when electrotype printing was introduced by Mr Smee, with the assistance of the mechanical officials (see ELECTROTYPING); and since that time, the notes of the Bank of England have been all produced by surface-printing by the electrotype.

The usual production of notes equals a value of about £24,000,000 per week; it being the policy of the bank to renew the notes before the paper loses that peculiar crispness which distinguishes it from all other paper, and is a safeguard against forgery.

There are seventy or eighty kinds of Bank of England notes, differing in their denominations or values, but similar in the mode of printing. The paper is expressly made for the purpose, by one firm only, and is remarkable for its strength, lightness, and difficulty of imitation. The Bank of Ireland notes are printed on the copperplate plan, not by surface-printing; but the use of delicate mechanism enables this to be done with great accuracy and celerity; the Bank of France notes are produced from plates, the result of photography, electrotyping, and steel-plate printing. Zincography and lithography are employed by some banks; and also *aciérage*, a mode of hardening copper electrotypes with a thin surface of steel.

BA'NKRUPTCY. See INSOLVENCY.

BANKS, in Navigation, are elevations of the bottom of the sea; when tolerably smooth at the top, they constitute *shallows*, *shoals*, and *flats*; but when rocky, they become *reefs*, *ridges*, *keys*, &c. Pilots and captains of ships require to be intimately acquainted with the B. along their route; and a chart, if properly prepared, always defines them by means of small dots, if sands, and small crosses, if rocky. In war-time, small vessels often escape capture by running into shallows where larger vessels dare not follow them. The Newfoundland and the Bahama B. are well-known examples of this kind of sea-bottom.

BANKS LAND, an island in the Arctic Ocean, 70 miles to the south-west of Melville Island. It is intersected by the parallel of 74° N., and by the meridian of 116° W.

BANKS, SAVINGS'. See SAVINGS' BANKS.

BANKS, SIR JOSEPH, a zealous naturalist, was born, according to some accounts, at Revesby Abbey, in Lincolnshire, according to others, in London, in January 1743, and died June 19, 1820. He was descended from a family of Swedish origin, which had been settled in England for about 200 years. To this family belongs also John Banks, who made his name known as a writer of tragedies, in the latter half of the 17th c. B. was educated at Eton and Oxford. In 1763 he made a voyage to Newfoundland and Labrador, collecting plants; and from 1768 to 1771, he sailed with Cook round the world in the capacity of naturalist, and wrote the botanical descriptions for the first voyages. In the year 1772 he visited the Hebrides and Iceland, whence he brought back a rich treasure of specimens for his studies in natural history. Before this voyage, Staffa was hardly known beyond its immediate vicinity. It was carefully examined by B., and through him its wonders were made known to the public. In 1777, he was elected President of the Royal Society, an office which he held for 42 years; and in 1781 he was created a baronet. He deserves particular credit for founding and managing the African Association; and the colony of Botany Bay owed its origin mainly to him. Through his efforts, the bread-fruit tree was transferred from Otaheite to the West Indies, and the mango from Bengal, as well as many of the fruits of Ceylon and Persia. Many naturalists and travellers—Blumenthal, Hornemann, Burckhardt, Mungo Park, and others, were indebted to him for zealous and disinterested assistance in their labours. During the French war, B. did much to alleviate the sufferings of all captive men of science, and used his influence with government to procure the restoration of their papers. Cuvier, in his *éloge* on him before the French Academy of Science, states that no less than ten times had collections, captured by the English, been restored to the Jardin du Roi at Paris through the instrumentality of B. No man of science appealed to him in vain for pecuniary assistance; and his splendid library of natural history was at the service of those who desired to consult it. With the exception of articles in magazines, and contributions to the publications of learned societies, especially to the *Philosophical Transactions*, B. has written nothing but two small works—*A Short Account of the Causes of the Diseases in Corn called Blight, Mildew, and Rust*, which was printed for his friends in 1803, and for the public in 1805; and *Circumstances Relative to Merino Sheep* (London, 1809). He left a valuable library, of which an excellent catalogue was made by his friend Dryander; and a rich collection of specimens in natural history, both of which he bequeathed to the British Museum.

BANKS, THOMAS, born in Lambeth in D... ticed to a landscape ... soon abandoned the... imaginative one of ... In ...70, ... was successful candidate ... gold prize of th... Royal Academy, established two years before. I... 1772, with an allowance of £50 a year from th... Academy for three years, he went to Rome to stud... the master-pieces of art there. After a residence ... several years in Rome, duri... which he ... two of his finest works, 'Ca... cus Ple... Claudius,' and 'Psyche ... t ...ly, gained much fame bu... ...he ... England. Here his refi... ... little appreciated in comparis... ... inferior performances of some of ... and after two years, he went to Russia, ... was well received by the Empress Cathar..., purchased his Psyche, and gave him a commis... for a group called 'Armed Neutral.' Hav... executed this, he returned to E..., where ... completed perhaps his finest work... Achilles,' now in the British L... ... received several commissions, ...le ... member of the Royal Academy. The ... of Sir Eyre Coote in Westminster Abbey, ... Captains Burgess and Westcott in St Paul's ... dral, were among his last works. He died Fe... 2, 1805. It was in purely imaginative works ... most excelled; in practical subjects, his introduction of the ideal was incongruous and inartistic, rendering them far less valuable than those of some of his rivals.

BA'NKSIA, a genus of Australian shrubs of the natural order *Proteaceæ* (q. v.), named in honour of Sir Joseph Banks. A few of the species become small trees. They have hard dry leaves, generally white or very pale green beneath, and present a remarkable appearance from the umbellate arrangement of their branches, which bear towards their extremities oblong heads of very numerous flowers. The flowers secrete much honey. Some of the species are now frequent ornaments of ... houses in Britain. They are abund...

Banksia littoralis in flower.

Fruit and Leaf of Banksia.

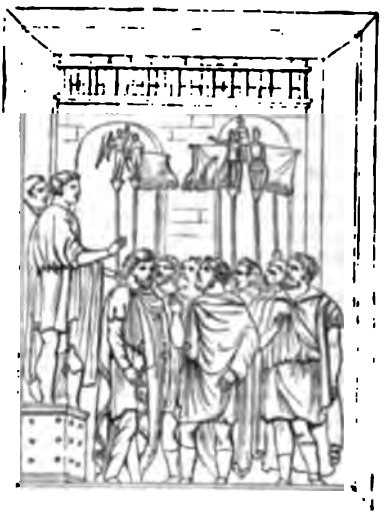
of Australia, forming, indeed, a charac... of its vegetation, and are called Hon...

media, found at Swan River, exceeds all the
[the genus in size, attaining a height of 50

NN, the name of two rivers in the north-east
land; the one, the Upper B., flowing into, and
ner, the Lower B., out of Loch Neagh. The
B. rises on the north side of the Mourne
ains, in the south of Downshire, and runs
es north-north-west through the counties of
and Armagh, successively in a granite, silurian,
and tertiary basin, into the south side of
Neagh. It passes Banbridge, Gilford, and
own. At the latter place the Newry Canal
. The Lower B., strictly the continuation of
pper, issues from the north-west corner of
Neagh, and flows 40 miles north-north-west,
h Lough Beg, and dividing the counties
trim and Londonderry. It runs past Port-
e and Coleraine, into the Atlantic Ocean 4
south-west of Portrush. One mile above
it falls over a ledge of rock 13 feet high.
surplus waters of Lough Neagh to the
... has important salmon and eel-fisheries.
f 200 tons can reach Coleraine by the river,
from the ocean.

ATYNE CLUB, a literary club deriving
e from George Bannatyne, to whose industry
indebted for the preservation of much of the
h poetry of the 15th and 16th centuries. The
as instituted in Edinburgh in 1823 by Sir
Scott, with the assistance chiefly of Mr David
of the Signet Library, Mr Archibald Con-
and Mr Thomas Thomson. The object of the
ion was to print rare works illustrative of
h history, topography, poetry, miscellaneous
re, &c., in a uniform and handsome manner,
t the expense of the club, or as the contribu-
individual members. As a general rule, the
of copies of each work printed was limited
number required for distribution among
rs, but in some instances a few were printed
. The club originally consisted of 31 mem-
ly, who paid an annual contribution of five
; but, owing to the anxiety of many eminent
become members, the number was gradually
ed to 100, where it was definitively fixed, the
annual payment being still required. Its
resident was Sir Walter Scott, who was
ed by Mr Thomas Thomson, and Lords Cock-
nd Rutherfurd; and its first secretary was
rid Laing, who continued to its close to dis-
the duties of the office. The club had annual
gs in December, which were of a very con-
character, so far as can be judged from an
t of their first meeting published in the *Edin-
literary Gazette* of February 1824—afterwards
ed by the club itself—which suggestively
nat the *Bannatyne Garland*, No. 1, a song
ed by one of the members, was sung 'to the
Four Bottles more.' These meetings, how-
ere given up, and the club itself, which, in
umbered about eighty members, was finally
ed on 27th February 1861. Since its com-
ent it numbered among its members many
most distinguished Scotsmen, and printed 116
some valuable as they are rare, and all bring-
h prices at sales.

NER, a piece of cloth attached to a pole,
ually bearing some warlike or heraldic device,
onal emblem. In this sense B. is a generic
ncluding many species, such as standard,
pennon, flag, &c. Banners have been used
e earliest times, and in all countries, for the
of directing the movements of troops. We
them constantly in the Old Testament, as in Numbers ii. 2, 'Every man of the children of Israel shall camp by his standard, and under the ensign of his father's house.' The earliest Roman standard was a bundle of straw fixed to the top of a spear. This was succeeded by figures of animals —the horse, the boar, &c., all of which soon gave place to the eagle, which continued all along to be the chief Roman ensign, and was afterwards assumed by the German, and latterly by the French emperors of the Napoleon dynasty. In addition to the eagle, each Roman cohort had a B., generally a serpent or dragon woven on a square piece of cloth. The standard of the cavalry was a square piece of cloth expanded on a cross, and it was to this that the term *vexillum* properly applied. Examples of these standards are sculptured on the Arch of Constantine at



Roman Standards from the Arch of Constantine.

Rome. The top of the staff was also frequently adorned with a figure of Mars or of Victory, and in later times, with the head of the reigning emperor. After Constantine embraced Christianity, the Cross was substituted for the head of the emperor on the purple B. of Byzantium. Standards were less in use amongst the Greeks than has been usual with warlike nations; but a standard, and sometimes a scarlet flag, was employed as a signal for giving battle. On the rise of Chivalry, in the middle ages, the ordering of banners, like every other branch of military organisation, attained to something like scientific exactitude. From the B.-royal, which bore the national emblems, to the small streamer attached to the lance, with its cross or stripes, there was a regular subordination, each emblem having its place and its meaning. The pennon of the simple knight differed from the square B. of the banneret (q. v.), in being pointed at the ends. In addition to their varieties in size, shape, and colour, these banners were distinguished by the emblems which they bore. One of the earliest is the Danish raven, depicted on the standard taken by Alfred, of which Asser mentions the tradition, that 'in every battle, wherever that flag went before them, if they [the Danes] were to gain the victory, a live crow would appear flying on the middle of the flag; but if they were doomed to be defeated, it would hang down motionless.' Nor did the privilege of carrying banners belong to princes and knights alone, bishops and abbots displayed similar ensigns, which were carried before them in religious processions,

and under which their retainers fought in their defence. It was to these that the term 'Gonfalon,' a word as to the origin of which much diversity of opinion exists, was more commonly applied. In place of the heraldic emblems of the knight, the B. of the Church, and of towns and communes, usually bore the effigies of saints. Some banners, however, displayed no ensigns whatever, and were known simply by their colour. Of this the *oriflamme*, or plain ruddy flag of St Denis, was a famous example. The celebrated Bayeux Tapestry (q. v.) throws considerable light on banners, as well as on other matters connected with the warlike arrangements of the middle ages. Much curious information on this and kindred subjects will be found in Hewitt's *Ancient Armour and Weapons in Europe*. By every warlike people the B. has been regarded as the emblem of national honour, as a palladium for the defence of which the individual warrior was at all times ready to sacrifice his life. From the converse of this feeling, banners and flags taken from the enemy have always been regarded as special trophies of victory, and places of honour in churches and public buildings have consequently been assigned them. As to the flags borne by the ships of different nations, and the arrangements concerning them in peace and war, see FLAG; as to colours of regiments, see COLOURS.

The relation which banners bear to other kinds of flags, in their forms and uses will be explained under COLOURS, MILITARY; ENSIGN; FLAG; PENDANT; &c.

Banner displayed, is the term used by heralds to describe a B. open and flying.

BA'NNERET, a higher grade of knighthood conferred by the sovereign for some heroic act performed in the field, and so called because the pennon of the knight was then exchanged for the banner—a proceeding which was effected by the very simple means of rending the points from the pennon. The first B. in England is said by Froissart to have been made by King Edward I., and the last time the honour was conferred was by Charles I. after the battle of Edgehill, the recipient being an individual who rejoiced in the familiar name of John Smith. The ceremony of the creation of a Knight-B. must have been very impressive to persons filled with the ideas which were prevalent in the ages of chivalry. The king, or his general, at the head of his army, drawn up in order of battle after a victory, under the royal standard displayed, attended by all the officers and nobility of the court, received the B. elect, who was not necessarily a knight previously, led between two knights of note, or other men famous in arms, carrying his pennon in his hand, the heralds walking before him and proclaiming his valiant achievements, for which he deserved to be made a Knight-B., and to display his banner in the field. The king, or general, then said to him: 'Advance, Banneret!' (*Advances toy Banneret*), and caused the point of his pennon to be torn off. The new knight, with the trumpeters sounding before him, and the nobility and officers bearing him company, was sent back to his tent, where a noble entertainment was provided by the king. Some attempts have been made to revive the title in recent times, as when George III., at a review of the navy at Portsmouth in 1773, conferred it on Admiral Pye and several other officers.

BA'NNOCK, a cake of home-made bread, common in the country parts of Scotland, but now less so than formerly. It is usually composed of pease-meal or of pease and barley meal mixed; prepared without any leaven, it is baked on a circular plate of iron, called a girdle. When made of mixed meal, it is called a mashlum bannock. 'Bannocks of barley-meal' form the theme of a popular Scottish song. A superior kind of B., called a Selkirk B., from the place where it is made, resembles the finer and lighter species of tea-cakes prepared by bakers. The word B. is from the Gaelic *bonach*, a cake. In the west of Scotland, it is pronounced *bunnock*. There is an amusing fairy-tale called *The Story of the Wee* (little) *Bunnock*. The B. is doubtless of great antiquity, being, in fact, the primitive cake, only varied in material, of every country.

BA'NNOCKBURN, a village in the east of Stirlingshire, three miles south-south-east of Stirling, on the Bannock rivulet, which falls, a few miles below this, into the Forth. Near this was fought the great battle of B. on Monday, 24th June 1314. Robert Bruce, with 30,000 Scotch, gained a signal victory over Edward II., with 100,000 English, and secured his throne and the independence of Scotland. The English are said to have lost 30,000, and the Scotch 8000 men. The 'Bore Stone,' on which Bruce is said to have fixed his standard on that eventful day, is still to be seen on an eminence near the scene of the fight. On the south-east of the field of B., at Sauchie Burn, James III. was defeated in 1488 by his rebellious subjects, and assassinated after the battle in a mill where he had taken refuge. B. is now an important seat of the woollen manufactures, especially those of tartans and carpets. It has long supplied the tartan worn by the Highland regiments. Tanning is carried on to some extent, and the neighbouring villages are noted for the manufacture of nails. Coal abounds in the vicinity. Pop. (1871) 2258.

BANNS, or BANS, in the law of England, means a proclamation, or public notification, or summons, in which general sense, however, it may be said to have become obsolete. It is now chiefly, if not solely, used in the publication of intended marriages, as to which, see next article.

BANNS or BANS OF MA'RRIAGE. This is one of three alternative preliminary forms now essential to the legal celebration of marriage in England. The other two are marriage by licence, and marriage by a registrar's certificate. B. of M., like many of our ecclesiastical regulations, has its origin in the ancient practice of the Roman Catholic Church, which our reformers wisely refrained from abolishing. By the publication of these B. is meant the legal proclamation or notification within the parish, district, or chapelry, and in the proper church or chapel, of the names and descriptions of the persons who intend to be there married; the object being the notoriety of the solemn act, so that all who have objections to the marriage may be enabled to state them in time. According to the old English canon law, the publication of B. might be made on *holidays*; but a change was made to *Sundays* by the first important Marriage Act, the 26 Geo. II. c. 33; and although that act was afterwards superseded by the 4 Geo. IV. c. 76, the regulation as to Sundays has been since continued. Seven days' notice at least must be given to the clergyman before publication of bans. The other acts in force are the 6 and 7 Will. IV. c. 85, the 1 Vic. c. 22, the 3 and 4 Vic. c. 72, and the 19 and 20 Vic. c. 119. The law, as contained in these acts of parliament, is as follows: By the 4 Geo. IV. c. 76, s. 2, it is enacted that all B. of matrimony shall be published in an audible manner, according to the rubric prefixed to the marriage-service in the *Book of Common Prayer*, upon three Sundays preceding the ceremony, during the time of morning-service, or of evening-service (if on the day of publication there shall be no morning-service) immediately after

cond lesson. The rubric referred to is in llowing terms: 'I publish the banns of ge between M. of - - - and N. of . If you know cause or just impediment why ersons should not be joined together in holy ony, ye are to declare it. This is the first l, or third] time of asking.' By the 22d of the same act, all marriages celebrated t such publication of B., or without licence e, under the 6 and 7 Will. IV. c. 85, s. 42, t a Registrar's certificate), are declared to be ıll void. By the 26th section of the last-med act, the bishop, with consent of the and incumbent, may license chapels for the ation of marriages in populous places; and by d section of the 1 Vic. c. 22, B. may be publ in such chapels. By section 9 of the 4 V. c. 76, it is provided, that if the marriage celebrated within three months after publ n of B., the marriage shall not take place the B. shall have been republished on three Sundays, unless it be a marriage by licence, by certificate, which two latter alternatives, er, must also be availed of within the three s. It only remains to be added on the law, ained in these marriage acts, that by section ne last of them, the 19 and 20 Vic. c. 119, it ided, that in every case in which one of the intending marriage without licence shall in Scotland, a certificate of proclamation of cotland, under the hands of the session-clerk parish in which such proclamation shall have nade, shall, when produced to any person uthorised under the provisions of this act emnise a marriage, be as valid and effectual thorising such person to solemnise such ge as the production of a certificate for ge of a superintendent registrar of a district gland would be in reference to a party t within such district.

purpose of the law is to secure public knowf intended marriages, and therefore, although Geo. IV., following in this respect the 26 H., declares that marriages shall be void t publication of B. (where, of course, that chosen preliminarily, it is not necessary that ublication should be made in the real baptismal of both or either of the parties; it is sufficient he B. be published in the names by which rties are *known*, or either of them. Nay, it ppears that where the baptismal names have discovered, having been previously concealed nown, it is better, if not necessary, that publ should be made in the names by which the are familiarly known in the district, by indeed, they may be said to be known to rld. There are numerous cases decided in nd from which such doctrine necessarily fol-

As the publication of banns invites people ect, if the parent or guardian express dissent, e duty of the clergyman, when such objections ered, to proceed no further; and if he, notanding, marry the parties, he will be liable re penalties by the ecclesiastical law, though ll not be liable to an indictment. Again, on her hand, if he refuse, without cause, to perhe marriage, he is liable to an action. It has en decided, that a fraudulent knowledge of a name in the publication of B. will not void arriage, unless the fraud should be on *both*

Scotland, B. have the same Roman Catholic as in England. Indeed, Mr I . . of est authoritative Scotch legal w a opinion, that the Scotch borrows the decrees of the *Council of*

recent able writer (see *Fraser's Domestic Relations*, vol. i. p. 113) considers this opinion erroneous, and shews that B. were first sanctioned in Scotland by councils which were held in that country long before the time of the Council of Trent. After the Reformation in Scotland, the practice of proclaiming B., as the phrase is in that country, was continued. They are described in the Scotch Act 1661, c. 31, 'as a part of the laudable order and constitution of the kirk;' and they have since been mentioned in various acts of parliament applicable to Scotland, such as the 10 Anne, c. 7, and the 4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 28. By the first of these acts, the privilege of publicly celebrating marriage was extended to the Scotch *Episcopalian* clergy, but with a proviso that the B. should be duly published three Lord's Days, not only in the Episcopal churches which the parties frequent, but also in the parish church or churches. Should the parish minister, however, neglect or refuse to publish the B. of such parties, the act declares that it shall be sufficient to do so in any Episcopal congregation alone. The 4 Will. IV. c. 28, puts other dissenting bodies in Scotland in the same position as the Episcopal Church there; but there is this little difference, that publication of the B. of such dissenters is required to be made in the *parish* church alone. There is one other regulation of the Scotch law on this subject which is deserving of notice for popular information namely, that when both of the parties have their *domicile* (q. v.) within Scotland, and enter into marriage in England or Ireland, they must have their B. proclaimed in the parish church of their domicile in Scotland, otherwise they are liable to the penalties of clandestine marriage. Such is the express enactment of the Scotch statute 1661, c. 31.

The Scotch law differs from the English in regard to the effect of non-publication of banns. In England, in some cases, the consequence is to render the marriage absolutely void. In Scotland, however, marriage, without proclamation of B., is valid; but in such case the parties, celebrator, and witnesses are liable in the above penalties. See MARRIAGE, SPECIAL LICENCE, REGISTRATION OF BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES.

BANQUETTE, in Fortification, is a raised ledge or step beside the parapet of a rampart, of such a height that musketeers, when standing on it, may be able to fire over the crest of the parapet without too much exposure to the enemy. It is about 4 feet wide, and 4 or 4½ feet below the crest. The musketeers ascend to it from the rampart either by a few steps or by a sloping path.

BANTAM, a seaport, now decayed, in a district of the same name, which forms the west end of Java. It is 40 miles to the west of Batavia, lies in lat. 6° 2′ S., and long. 106° 11′ E. It was founded by the Dutch in 1602, being their earliest establishment in the island. The district contains 362,242 inhabitants.

BANTAM FOWL, a well-known variety of the common Domestic Fowl (q. v.), originally brought from the East Indies, and supposed to derive its name from Bantam, in Java. It is remarkable for small size, being only about a pound in weight, and for a disposition more courageous and pugnacious than even that of a game-cock. A bantam cock will drive to a respectful distance great dunghill cocks five times its weight, and has been described as 'a beautiful example of a great soul in a little body.' There are several subvarieties of the bantam. Most of them have the legs much feathered. The flesh and eggs are good, although the eggs are of course small; and the bantam lays well in winter.

BANTENG (*Bos Banteng* or *B. Sondaicus*), a species of Ox (q. v.), a native of Java and Borneo, which, in colour, shape, horns, and want of dewlap bears some resemblance to the Gaur (q. v.) of India, 'but in the skeleton of the gaur, the sacrum consists of 5 vertebræ, and the tail of 19, while in the skeleton of the B., the sacrum consists of but 4 vertebræ, and the tail of 18.' The B. is black, with white legs. The hair is short and sleek, the limbs slender. The muzzle is sharp. The back rises into a high arch immediately behind the neck. The B. inhabits forests, and has been generally described as untamable, but this opinion rests on no satisfactory authority.

BA'NTRY, a seaport town in the south-west of Cork county, Ireland, in a cove opposite Whiddy Isle, at the head of B. Bay, and 44 miles west-south-west of Cork. The two chief streets converge into an open space towards the sea, and mountains, 933 feet high, rise behind the town. The chief trade is the export of agricultural produce. A little fishing is carried on. In last century, there was an extensive pilchard-fishery here; but the pilchard has now deserted the coast. Many tourists resort to B. in summer. Pop. between 2000 and 3000.

BA'NTRY BAY, a deep inlet in the south-west extremity of Ireland, between Crow Point and Sheep's Head Point, in Cork county. It is 25 miles long, running east-north-east, with a breadth of 3 to 5 miles. It is one of the finest harbours in Europe, affording safe and commodious anchorage for ships of all sizes. Near the entrance on the north side is a fine large sheltered harbour, formed by Bear Island, with a safe passage on both sides. At the head of the bay are two harbours: the one to the south, or the landlocked roadstead of B. harbour, is formed by Whiddy Isle, opposite B. town; the other to the north, or Glengariff harbour, is also sheltered by an island, but is small, and narrow at the entrance. The coast around B. B. is rocky and high, consisting of Devonian strata, and exhibiting some of the finest scenery in the kingdom. On the north side, 17 miles west of B. town, is the great cataract of Hungry Hill, where three lakes, at the heights of 1011, 1126, and 1360 feet above the sea, discharge their waters, by almost continuous cascades, into Adrigoole Creek. Near the opening of B. B. a skirmish took place, in 1689, between a small English fleet under Admiral Herbert (afterwards Lord Torrington), and the French fleet, which conveyed James II. to Kinsale. Several ships of the French invading expedition under General Hoche anchored here in 1796.

BANX'RING (*Tupaia*), a genus of insectivorous quadrupeds, remarkably differing from the other *insectivora* (q. v.) in their habits, as they climb trees with the agility of lemurs or squirrels. They are also remarkable for their very elongated muzzle. They have soft glistening fur, and a long bushy tail. The few species known are all natives of the Indian archipelago.

BA'NYA (NEGAY), or **NEU'STADT**, a town of Hungary, province Szathmar, with a royal mint, and productive mines of gold and silver. Pop. 9082.

BA'NYAN, or **BA'NIAN** (*Ficus Indica*), a tree, native of India, remarkable for its vast rooting branches. It is a species of FIG (q. v.); has ovate, heart-shaped, entire leaves, about five or six inches long; and produces a fruit of a rich scarlet colour, not larger than a cherry, growing in pairs from the axils of the leaves. The branches send shoots downwards, which, when they have rooted, become stems, the tree in this manner spreading over a great surface, and enduring for many ages. One has been described as having no fewer than 350 stems, equal to large oaks, and more than 3000 smaller ones, covering a space sufficient to contain 7000 persons. The branches are usually covered with monkeys, birds, and enormous bats. The monkeys eat both

Banyan-Tree.

the fruit and leaves. The vegetation of the B. seldom begins on the ground. The seeds are deposited by birds in the crowns of palms, and send down roots which embrace and eventually kill the palm. As the B. gets old, it breaks up into separate masses, the original trunk decaying, and the props becoming separate trunks of the different portions. The wood of the B. is light, porous, and of no value. The bark is regarded by the Hindoo physicians as a powerful tonic, and is administered in diabetes. The white glutinous juice is used to relieve toothache, and also as an application to the soles of the feet when inflamed. Bird-lime is also made from it. Gum-lac is obtained in abundance from the B.-tree. The B.-tree is beautifully described by Southey in his poem *The Curse of Kehama*.

BANYULS-SUR-MER, a town of France in the Pyrénées Orientales, with a fishing-port on the Mediterranean. The celebrated wines of Grenache and Rancio are produced in this district. Near the town are four old towers, one of which marks the division between France and Spain. B. was the immediate scene of many encounters between the French republicans and the Spaniards during the first French Revolution. Pop. (1872) 2227.

BANYUWA'NGY, or **BANJOUVANGY**, an important and populous seaport town and military post belonging to the Dutch, on the east coast of Java, capital of district of same name.

BA'OBAB. See ADANSONIA.

BAPAUME, a fortified town of France, [illegible] ment of Pas-de-Calais. A portion of the [illegible] troops advanced to this place after [illegible] French to abandon their fortified [illegible] retreat behind the Scarpe, in August 1

BA'PHOMET is the name [illegible] symbol, which was in use amo[illegible] the [illegible] According to the oldest and mo[illegible] pretation, the word is a corrupti[illegible] to whose faith the members [illegible] accused of having a leaning. [illegible] of a small human figure cut [illegible] two heads, male and female, [illegible] body purely feminine. It [illegible] serpents, and astronomi[illegible] with inscriptions for [illegible] Specimens are to be [illegible] collections of Vienna and [illegible] however, in his *Fundgruben* [illegible] B. from Gr. *baphē*, baptism;

wisdom. He charges the knights with a depraved Gnosticism, and makes the word signify the baptism of wisdom—the baptism of fire; in short, the Gnostic baptism—a species of spiritual illumination, which, however, was interpreted sensually by later Gnostics, such as the Ophites (an Egyptian sect of the 11th c.), to whose licentious practices he declares them to have been addicted. But this explanation is generally discredited.

BA'PTISM (Gr. *bapto*, to dip or wash, or to stain with a liquid), one of the sacraments (q. v.) of the Christian Church, deriving its name from the outward rite of washing with water, which forms an essential part of it. B. is almost universally acknowledged among Christians as a sacrament, and is referred to the authority of Christ himself, whose express commandment is recorded in the gospels (Mat. xxviii. 19; Mark xvi. 16). B. is frequently mentioned in the New Testament as a divine ordinance.

The name and the rite were not, however, altogether new when the ordinance was instituted by Christ. Religious meanings were early attached to washings with water, both by heathens and Jews; they were among the ordinances of the Jewish law; and it is not necessary to go beyond that law to find the origin of the custom of washing or *baptising* proselytes upon their admission into the Jewish Church. Washing with water was requisite for the removal of ceremonial uncleanness, and every proselyte must have been regarded as, prior to his admission into the Jewish Church, ceremonially unclean. John the Baptist baptised not proselytes upon their renouncing heathenism and entering the Jewish Church, but those who, by birth and descent, were members of it, to indicate the necessity of a purification of the soul from sin—a spiritual, and not a mere outward change.

One of the most important of the controversies which have agitated the Christian Church as to B., is that concerning the proper subjects of B., whether adults only who profess faith in Christ are to be baptised, or if this ordinance is to be administered to their infants also. See BAPTISTS, and BAPTISM, INFANT. The B. of adults was certainly more frequent in the apostolic age than it has ordinarily been where the B. of infants has prevailed; for which an obvious cause presents itself in the fact, that the first members of churches were converts from Judaism or from heathenism. It is, however, generally held by those who advocate the B. of infants, that it was the practice of the apostles and of the church of the apostolic age to baptise the infants of Christians; which, on the other hand, is as stoutly denied, and infant B. is alleged to have crept in along with other corruptions. For neither opinion can any positive historical proof be adduced, the arguments on both sides being purely inferential.

It is admitted, on all hands, that at an early period in the history of the church, B. was administered to infants, although, according to Neander, even after 'it had been set forth as an apostolic institution, its introduction into the general practice of the church was but slow.' He finds 'the first trace' of it in Irenæus. It was opposed by Tertullian about the end of the 2d c.; and was advocated by Cyprian, and acknowledged as an apostolic institution in the North African Church and in the Alexandrian and Syro-Persian Churches in the 3d c.; but it was not until the 5th c. that it became fully established as the general practice of the Christian Church. It has unquestionably continued to be the general practice from that period to the present day; feebly opposed by some of the sects of the middle ages, and more vigorously by some of those who have adopted the general principles of the Reformation. See BAPTISTS.

Both the practice of infant B., and the neglect of it in the early ages of the church, were connected with particular views of religious doctrine, and of the nature and purpose of B. itself. The prevalence of the Augustinian doctrine of original sin is generally regarded as a principal cause of the prevalence of infant B.; but Pelagius, whilst opposing that doctrine, maintained the necessity of infant B., apparently upon the ground that the kingdom of heaven can be attained by human beings only through God's grace. No little influence in favour of infant B. must be ascribed to the growing belief of the absolute necessity of B. to salvation, and of a sort of mysterious efficacy in the rite itself. It is certain, on the other hand, that the belief in the forgiveness of sins in B. led to a practice of deferring it as long as possible, that all sins might be blotted out at once; thus the Emperor Constantine the Great was baptised only a short time before his death. The approach of a war or pestilence caused many to rush forward in haste to be baptised, who had previously delayed.

Two modes of B. are practised: by immersion or dipping, and by aspersion or sprinkling, concerning which there has been much controversy in the early period of the church's history, as well as in recent times. Affusion, or pouring, the common practice of the Church of Rome, may be regarded as essentially the same with sprinkling. The advocates of sprinkling universally admit the validity of B. administered in the other mode, but the advocates of dipping generally refuse to acknowledge that B. by sprinkling can be true Christian baptism. The opponents of infant B., almost without exception, insist upon immersion; whilst aspersion or affusion of water is general, except in the Eastern churches, wherever the B. of infants prevails. The argument upon which Baptists depend most of all is from the word B., and the verb *baptizo*, to baptise, which also, in classic Greek, signifies to immerse. On the other side, it is contended that a strict limitation to this sense does not well accord with its character as a 'frequentative' form of *bapto;* and instances are adduced from the New Testament itself, in which this signification cannot easily be attached either to the noun or to the verb, as 1 Cor. x. 2, where Paul says that the Israelites were 'baptised unto Moses in the cloud and in the sea;' and Heb. ix. 10, Mark vii. 4, and Luke xi. 38, where both verb and noun are employed concerning the *washings* of the Jews, and the noun even of their washing of 'cups, and pots, brazen vessels, and of tables.'—To the argument in favour of immersion, derived from the phrases employed when B. is mentioned in Scripture, as when we are told (Mat. iii. 6) that John the Baptist baptised 'in Jordan,' that our Lord after his B. (Mat. iii. 16) 'went up out of the water,' that Philip and the Ethiopian eunuch (Acts viii. 38) 'went down both into the water;' it is replied that all the passages of this description, even if their meaning were certainly as precise and full as Baptists suppose it to be, are insufficient to sustain the weight of the conclusion as to the necessity of a particular mode of B.; that, however, it is far from being clear that these passages must be interpreted or the meaning of the Greek prepositions so strictly defined as the argument requires; and further, that there are instances mentioned in Scripture which afford a presumptive argument in favour of another mode of B., as where we are told of great numbers added to the church in one day; whilst we have nowhere any

intimation of converts being led to any pond or river to be baptised. To the argument drawn from the language of Paul in Rom. vi. 4, Col. ii. 12 (see BAPTISTS), it is replied that it depends upon a fanciful interpretation of these texts.—According to most of the advocates of B. by sprinkling, the great error of their opponents is that of attaching too much importance to the question of the mode of baptism.

It is, however, indisputable that in the primitive church the ordinary mode of B. was by immersion, in order to which *Baptisteries* (q.v.) began to be erected in the 3d, perhaps in the 2d c., and the sexes were usually baptised apart. But B. was administered to sick persons by sprinkling; although doubts as to the complete efficacy of this *clinic* (sick) B. were evidently prevalent in the time of Cyprian (middle of 3d c.). B. by sprinkling gradually became more prevalent; but the dispute concerning the mode of B. became one of the irreconcilable differences between the Eastern and Western Churches, the former generally adhering to the practice of immersion, whilst the latter adopted mere pouring of water on the head, or sprinkling on the face, which practice has generally prevailed since the 13th c.; but not universally, for it was the ordinary practice in England before the Reformation to immerse infants, and the *fonts* (q. v.) in the churches were made large enough for this purpose. This continued also to be the practice till the reign of Elizabeth; and the change which then took place is ascribed to the English divines who had sought refuge in Geneva, and other places of the continent, during the reign of Mary. To this day the rubric of the Church of England requires, that if the godfathers and godmothers 'shall certify him that the child may well endure it,' the officiating priest 'shall dip it in the water discreetly and warily;' and it is only 'if they shall certify that the child is weak,' that 'it shall suffice to pour water upon it,' which, however, or sprinkling, is now the ordinary practice.

B. was accompanied, from an early period in the history of the church, with various forms and ceremonies, besides the simple rite of washing with water and the pronouncing of the formula which declares it to be 'in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost.' These ceremonies are almost all retained in the Church of Rome, and also generally in the oriental churches, but have been entirely or almost entirely laid aside by Protestants. The Church of England retains the sign of the cross made upon the forehead after B., but the other Protestant churches in Britain reject it. It was an ancient custom that the *catechumens*, as candidates for B. were called whilst receiving instruction with a view to that sacrament, when they were to be baptised, publicly made a profession of their faith and a renunciation of the devil and all his works. The profession of faith is still retained by Protestant churches as the formal ground of the administration of B.; the renunciation of the devil and his works is required by the Church of England of the person baptised, if an adult, or of the *sponsors* or 'sureties' of a child. Sponsors (q.v.) were early admitted to answer for those who could not answer for themselves, and particularly for infants. The belief in the absolute necessity of B. to salvation led even to B. of the dead among the Montanists in Africa, in which sponsorship was also introduced. Presbyterian and Independent churches generally reject all sponsorship, and regard the profession made by parents as simply a profession of their own faith, which entitles their infants to baptism. The ancient practice of exorcism (q. v.) immediately before B. has been rejected as superstitious by almost all Protestant churches; as have also that of immersing three times (*trine immersion*), or sprinkling three times, with reference to the three persons of the Godhead—that of breathing upon the baptised person, 'to signify the expulsion of the devil,' and to symbolise the gift of the Holy Spirit—that of anointing with oil (*chrism*, q.v.), to symbolise the same gift, or to indicate that the baptised person is ready, as a wrestler in the ancient games, to fight the good fight of faith—that of giving him milk and honey, in token of his spiritual youth, and of his reception of spiritual gifts and graces—that of putting a little salt into his mouth, to signify the wisdom and taste for heavenly things proper to a Christian—that of touching his nostrils and ears with spittle, to signify that his ears are to be ever open to truth, and that he should ever feel the sweet odour of truth and virtue—and that of clothing him after B. with a white robe (*the chrysome*), in token of the innocence of soul which by B. he was supposed to have acquired. The white robe and the anointing with oil were retained in the Church of England for a short time after the Reformation.—The giving of a name in B. (see the article NAMES) is no essential part of it, but is a custom apparently derived from that of the Jews in circumcision (Luke i. 59—63).—The Church of Rome prefers the use of holy-water (q.v.) in B., but regards any water as fit for the purpose in case of necessity.—According to an ancient usage, long obsolete, the ordinary administration of B. was limited to the two great festivals of Easter and Whitsuntide.—Whether B. may be administered in private, has been much debated, both in ancient and modern times. The administration of B. in private houses, and not in the presence of a congregation, was one of the things earnestly contended against by the Presbyterians in Scotland in the first half of the 17th c.; their opposition being grounded, not only upon hostility to what they deemed usurpation of authority, but upon the danger of superstitious views of baptism. And apparently upon this latter ground, B. in private houses is also discouraged, even while it is allowed, if there is 'great cause and necessity,' by the Church of England; yet it has become very frequent both in the Church of England and among the Presbyterians of Scotland.

Some of the most important questions concerning B. will be most appropriately noticed in the article SACRAMENT, particularly those relating to its place in the Christian system and among the means of grace. The opinions early became prevalent, that forgiveness of sins is obtained in B., and spiritual life begun, and that it is indispensably necessary to salvation—exception being only made, if any was made at all, of the case of believers, adult persons, who desiring B., were prevented from being baptised, and particularly of those who suffered martyrdom, which was generally held to be equivalent to baptism. The Church of Rome still owns, as supplying the place of B. by water, these two—B. by desire, and B. by blood—i. e., in martyrdom.—According to the general doctrine of the Protestant churches, B. is 'a sign and seal' of the covenant of grace, representing as a sign the blessings of the covenant, and as a seal, confirming the covenant. As a sign, it is generally held to represent in its rite of washing, the removal both of guilt and corruption, by the blood and by the Spirit of Christ, and as to relate equally to pardon and regeneration, although some have limited its symbolic reference to regeneration alone. One of the most important points disputed concerning B., is that of baptismal regeneration. See REGENERATION.

Some early Christian sects appear to have rejected B., on grounds somewhat similar to those on which it is rejected by Quakers (q.v.) at the present day,

in the passages which relate to it symboli-
insist that a spiritual B. is the only real
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e maintained that B. is not an ordinance
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Wherever there is a recognised ministry in
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he necessity of the transmission of *holy*
apostolical succession is asserted, the more
lso would exclusiveness be manifested with
he right of the *clergy* to administer B. But
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nd, lay B. was at first permitted in the
Church of England; but the prevalence
iews led to a kind of formal restriction of
of administering it to 'lawful ministers,'
in practice the validity of lay B. is still
recognised.
question much agitated in the church
times, is that concerning the validity of
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of bells is a custom supposed to have been
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substituted for B.; but the rite itself
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with holy-water, anointing 'with the
chumens' and 'with chrism,' a formula of
on 'in the name of the Father, Son, and
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a name to the bell consecrated, and even
sponsorship as by godfathers and god-
in baptism. This custom has no doubt
ntered the notion of an efficacy in the
bells for protection in storms, and for
efits; indeed, it is expressly avowed that
are blessed, to turn off storms and tempests
faithful.'
ISM, Infant. The chief arguments in
infant B. are based upon the proposition
church is one throughout all changes of
on. From this it is argued that as infants
they still must be included in the visible
It is maintained that in all covenants
d has made with men, their children have
uded; that the covenant with Abraham
ewed revelation of the covenant of grace,
oral promises made to him being connected
greatest spiritual promises; that circum-
s a seal of the covenant with respect to
which the children of Christians have the
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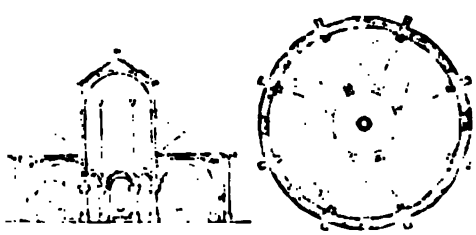
r of the place of infants in the church
according to which they are entitled to baptism. The passages which connect B. with faith are regarded as exclusively relating to adults, like the passages which connect salvation with faith and repentance. In reply to the argument that there is no express command for infant B., it is argued that the state of the case rather demands of those who oppose it the production of an express command against it, without which the general command must be held to include it; the words and actions of our Saviour (Mark x. 14) with respect to children are quoted as confirming the opinion that the place of infants in the church is precisely what it was under the Jewish dispensation; and it is contended that it would have been a very great restriction of privilege in the new dispensation if infants had been excluded from a place which they held before, as entitled to a seal of the covenant, whereas it is evident that the new dispensation is characterised not by restriction but by enlargement of privilege.—Those who hold the doctrine of infant B. are styled Paedo-baptists.

The Roman Catholic and Lutheran Churches regard the B. of infants as admitting them into the church, and making them members of Christ's body. The Reformed (q. v.) Churches hold that the children of Christians are included in the visible church from their birth, and therefore entitled to baptism. These are the natural starting-points of very different systems.

BAPTISTERY (Gr. *baptisterion*, a large vase or basin), the name given sometimes to a separate building, sometimes to the portion of the church itself in which the ceremony of baptism was performed. In the latter case, the B. was merely the enclosure containing the font, to be seen in most English churches. According to the earlier arrangements of the Christian Church, however, the B. seems usually to have been a building standing



Section and Plan of Baptistery at Asti.

detached from, though in the immediate vicinity of the church to which it appertained. Baptisteries, at first, were either hexagonal or octagonal, but afterwards became polygonal, and even circular. The B. of St Giovanni in Fonte, at Rome, commonly known as the B. of Constantine, is octagonal, whilst the church of St Constantia, which was originally a B., is circular.

The celebrated B. of Florence is an octagonal structure, measuring about one hundred feet in diameter. It stands detached from, but in the immediate vicinity of the cathedral. It is built of black and white marble, in the style which Giotto is said to have introduced, and which is still peculiar to Florence. Internally, a gallery, which runs nearly round the whole building, is supported by sixteen large granite columns, and the vaulted roof is decorated with mosaics by Andrea Tafi, the pupil of Cimabue. But the magnificent bronze doors, with their beautiful bas-reliefs, are the most remarkable feature of the baptistery. The most celebrated of these was executed by Lorenzo Ghil

the work of Andrea of Pisa. Fifty years were required for their completion; and it is remarkable that the contracts for their execution are still preserved. Next in importance, and of even greater size, is the B. of Pisa. It is circular in form, the diameter measuring 116 feet. Externally, it is divided into three stories, the two under ones being surrounded by columns, of which the upper are smaller and more numerous than the under. The building is raised from the ground on three steps, and terminates in a pear-shaped dome, which is famous for its echo, the sides acting as whispering-galleries. The largest B. ever erected is supposed to have been that of St Sophia, at Constantinople, which was so spacious as to have served on one occasion for the residence of the Emperor Basilicus.

BAPTISTS (sometimes called *Antipædobaptists*, as opposed to *Pædobaptists*, or those who advocate Infant Baptism*). This denomination of Christians refuse to acknowledge any great name as founder of their sect. They trace their origin to the primitive church itself, and refer to the Acts of the Apostles and their Epistles as affording, in their opinion, incontestable evidence that their leading tenets had the sanction of inspiration. When Christianity became corrupted by the rise of Antichrist, they point to the maintenance of their scripture practice among the Cathari and Albigenses and other sects of the middle ages, who, in the midst of surrounding darkness, continued to hold fast the apostolic testimony. They sprung into notice in England under Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. They were persecuted under both reigns, but they received freedom to meet for worship from James II., and complete religious liberty under William III. Ever since, they have diffused their principles extensively in Great Britain and North America; many of their ministers have done good service to the cause of science and literature, and, both as preachers and writers, have taken a position of eminence in society.

The B. hold the plenary inspiration and supreme authority of the Holy Scriptures as a revelation from God; the equal deity of the Son and the Holy Spirit in the unity of the ever blessed Trinity. But, as a condensed view of opinions cannot be expected in this work, it may be as well to state that the denomination are distinguished by almost all the shades of belief which exist in other bodies. They have among them Calvinists both *hyper* and moderate, also high and low Arminians, diverging off in every variety of shade from a common centre. The great body of them in Britain and America hold the doctrine of Calvinism in a modified form; that is to say, they maintain the *sufficiency* of the Atonement for *all men*, the limitation for which some have pleaded, they consider, lies in its *application* to the sinner by the sovereign grace of God through faith. They maintain the necessity of regeneration and holiness of life as essential to true religion, and that 'without holiness no man shall see the Lord;' and their conduct, in general, will bear a comparison with any class of their co-religionists.

Particular B., so called because holding that Christ died for an elect number, and *General* B., who maintain that he died for all men, constitute the two leading roots into which the body is divided. *English* B., in their church order and government, are the same as Congregationalists, the rite of baptism excepted. *Scotch* B., properly so called, insist on a plurality of pastors in every church, and the exercise of mutual exhortation by the members in their public assemblies. There are Baptist churches in England, however, who are *Scotch* in their order, and English B. in Scotland who are *English* in theirs. Seventh-day B., we believe, are to be found almost wholly in America, who observe not the first day of the week, but the seventh, as a day of rest. There are, besides these great divisions, various small associations of B. scattered over Great Britain, America, and the continent of Europe, whose opinions cannot be gathered up into systematic arrangement, and who would not approve of being identified with any of the sectarian designations here set down.

The particular tenet which characterises B. among their fellow-Christians is, that baptism is an ordinance the validity of which depends on an intelligent faith on the part of the recipient. Their views on the matter of baptism may be reduced to two heads—the *subjects* and *mode* of baptism. The subjects of the baptismal rite they hold to be believers in the Lord Jesus Christ. They ground their faith in this matter on the following positions—namely: 1st, The Lord in his commission to his apostles associates teaching with baptism, and *limits* the administration of the rite to *the taught*. 2d, The Acts of the Apostles shews how they understood their Master, for they baptised none but believers, or such as appeared to be so. 3d, That the kingdom of Christ as it appears in this world is restricted to credibly converted persons, as is shewn in his discourse with Nicodemus: 'Except a man be born again, he cannot see the kingdom of God;' and his subsequent statements on to the hour when he emitted his memorable confession before Pilate, 'My kingdom is not *of* this world,' uniformly proves that its subjects and institutes form a distinct and separate community from the Jewish theocracy, which embraced parents and children in nonage in one commonwealth. 4th, They maintain that the ordinance, as explained in the New Testament, always points to a moral and spiritual change, apart from which it were indeed a meaningless ceremony.

As respects the *mode*, the B. hold that only immersion in water *is* baptism. They argue, that the original term *baptizo* conveys this meaning, and no other; that nothing less can possibly answer to the apostle's explanation in Rom. vi. 4, 5, and Col. ii. 12, 'buried with him in baptism, wherein also ye are risen with him;' that the many allusions in the epistles to the churches manifestly bear out this interpretation; and, finally, that the fact of John baptising at a spot selected for the purpose '*because* there was *much water* there,' is perfectly conclusive.

Their form of church-government is congregational. They maintain that the only order of officers remaining to the church, since inspiration ceased, are pastors (otherwise called elders and bishops), deacons, and evangelists; that the number of official persons in each of the apostolic churches cannot be ascertained from the record, but must of necessity have depended—and always must depend—on circumstances; that each church is possessed of the power of self-government under its exalted head, Jesus Christ, subject to no foreign tribunal or court of review; that discipline is to be exercised by the rulers in presence, and with the consent of all the members, and parties received or excluded at their voice.

The B. are divided among themselves regarding communion—one portion receiving communicants Pædobaptists to the Lord's table and membership

* The Baptists of Great Britain and America reject the name of Anabaptists, as expressing only an accidental circumstance of their tenets, viz., the re-baptising of converts from other sects, who happen to have been baptised in infancy, and also associating them with the scandals of the German Anabaptists (q.v.) of the 15th c., from whom they claim to be historically distinct. From the same feeling, the modern sect in Germany and Holland style themselves *Taufgesinnte*.

the other refusing this privilege to any but Baptists. The churches of the former are called open communionists; the latter, strict communionists.

Next to the Moravians, the B. were earliest in the field of missions. They have been honoured to plant Christian churches in many parts of continental India, in Ceylon, in the Bahamas, the West Indies, Africa, and China. No mission band has arisen in any denomination, within the century, who have surpassed the agents of the Baptist Missionary Society in ardent zeal, patient perseverance, and invincible fortitude, in carrying out their Lord's commission to preach the gospel to every creature. The names of Carey, Marshman, Ward, and Knibb will be had in grateful remembrance by all succeeding generations; and their footsteps are now being trod by a long list of Christian missionaries of all evangelical persuasions, who are 'the messengers of the churches and the glory of Christ.'

This section of the Christian church was probably less zealous than their brethren, at one time, in preparing their ministers for their work by a sound course of study in theology and general literature; but this reproach has been long rolled away. They have schools of learning inferior to none for training young men of piety for pastoral duties, presided over by men of great ability. At Bristol, Bradford, Regent's Park (London), Pontypool, Haverfordwest, and Nottingham, there exist seminaries of learning which are entitled to give certificates qualifying for matriculation at the university of London; and many of the students have already taken degrees and honours there.

In 1870, the B. of the United States had 17,745 churches, and 1,419,493 members. In 1872, the B. in England had 4013 churches and chapels, and 177,321 members; in Wales, 1072 churches, and 55,855 members; in Scotland, 216 churches, and 7036 members; in Ireland, 77 churches, and 1492 members; in Canada, 74,220 members; in the West Indies, 23,980; in Germany, &c., 19,393.

BAR is any elongated piece of wood, metal, or other solid substance. In the iron manufacture, B. is a rod either round or square shafted. The round ones are made by drawing the iron red-hot through a bore or hole in a plate, and the square ones by passing it likewise red-hot through a roller-mill between two rollers counter-grooved, with their triangular-grooved faces forming the square opening for the passage of the iron. Railway and knee iron are made in the same manner. See the article Iron.

BAR, in Hydrography, is a bank opposite the mouth of a river which obstructs or *bars* the entrance of vessels. The B. is formed where the rush of the stream is arrested by the water of the sea, as the mud and sand suspended in the river-water are thus allowed to be deposited. It is thus that deltas are formed at the mouths of rivers. The navigation of many streams (as the Danube) is kept open only by constant dredging or other artificial means.

BAR, in Music, is a line drawn across the stave, to divide the music into small portions of equal duration; each of these small portions is itself called a *bar*.

BAR, or **BARR**, in Heraldry, one of those more important figures or charges in heraldry which are known as *ordinaries*. By the heralds of this country, the ordinaries, or, as, by way of eminence, they are called, the 'honourable ordinaries,' are commonly reckoned as ten in number, the sub-ordinaries, or minor charges, being greatly more numerous. The B., like the Fess (q.v.), is formed by two horizontal lines passing over the shield, but it differs from it in size, the fess occupying a third, the B. only a fifth part of the shield. There is this further difference between these two ordinaries, that the fess is confined to the centre, while the B. may be borne in several parts of the shield. There is a diminutive of the B. called the Closet, which is half a B.; and again of the closet, called the Barrulet, which is half a closet, or the fourth part of a bar.—BAR-GEMEL is a double bar, from the French *jumeau*, f. *jumelle*, a twin.

Bar.

BAR, in Law. This word has several legal meanings; thus, it is the term used to signify an enclosure or fixed place in a court of justice where lawyers may plead, or perhaps more correctly, where they can address their advocacy on behalf of their clients. A veiled-off space within the Houses of Parliament is similarly called the B. See PLEADING. The dock, or enclosed space where persons accused of felonies and other offences stand or sit during their trial, is also called the B.; hence the expression, 'prisoner at the bar.' This word is likewise applied to the gate or rail thrown across a turnpike road for the levying of the toll-duties. It has also a general meaning in legal procedure, signifying something by way of stoppage or prevention. There is also a trial at B., that is, a trial before the judges of a particular court, who sit together for that purpose *in banc* (q.v.). See the following articles: BAR OF DOWER, PLEA, TRIAL AT BAR, TOLL, FELONY, TREASON, BARRISTERS, ADVOCATE.

BAR OF DOWER. Dower, the estate or provision which, by the law of England, a widow is entitled to out of the lands and tenements of her deceased husband, may be barred or defeated by her elopement, her divorce on the ground of her own adultery, the treason of her husband, and other disabilities, and by detaining the title-deeds or evidences of the estate from the heir until she restores them. A woman might also, while fines and recoveries were in force, be barred by these assurances, as she now may by the new method of conveyance appointed by the statute 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 74, in substitution for a fine or recovery, in the case of a married woman. And another method of barring dower is by jointure, as regulated by the statute 27 Henry VIII. c. 10.—Stephen's *Commentaries*, vol. i. p. 273. See DOWER, JOINTURE, WIDOW, and FINE OF LANDS.

The term corresponding to Dower in Scotch law is TERCE (q.v.), which may also be barred or excluded in various ways; as, for instance, by the widow's express discharge or renunciation, by the deeds of the husband affecting his real estate, by the husband's conviction for treason, by the wife's express acceptance of a different provision in lieu of the terce, and by her divorce on the ground of adultery.

BAR, PLEAS IN. See the articles PLEADING and PLEA.

BAR, TOLL. See TOLL.

BAR, TRIAL AT. See TRIAL AT BAR.

BARABA', a steppe of Siberia, extending between the rivers Obe and Irtish, and occupying more than 100,000 square miles, and covered with salt lakes and marshes. It was colonised by the Russians in 1767, who have since cultivated parts of it.

BARACOA, a seaport town on the north-east coast of Cuba, belonging to the Spaniards. Lat. 20° 22' N., long. 74° 30' W. In its vicinity is a remarkable mountain called the Anvil of Baracoa.

BARAGUAY D'HILLIERS, LOUIS, a distinguished general of the French empire, was born in

Paris in 1764. After serving under Custine and Menou, he received an appointment in the army of Italy from Napoleon, and was a sharer in all the success of the campaigns of 1796—7. He was made a general of division; and in virtue of Napoleon's treaty with the Venetian Republic in May 16, 1797, commandant of Venice. B. accompanied the expedition to Egypt; and afterwards successively held appointments in the armies of the Rhine, and the Tyrol, and in Catalonia. He headed a division in the Russian campaign of 1812; but on the retreat, he incurred the displeasure of Napoleon. He was sent as governor to Berlin, where he soon after died of grief and exhaustion.

BARAGUAY D'HILLIERS, ACHILLE, a French general, the son of the preceding, was born in Paris on the 6th of September 1795. He rose rapidly through the inferior military grades, and obtained, in 1832, the appointment of governor in the military school of St Cyr, where he suppressed a republican conspiracy that threatened to break out in the institution. After he had served with various success in more than one campaign in Algeria, he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, on the 6th of August 1843; and in 1847, he was made inspector-general of infantry. After the revolution of February 1848, he was chosen a member of the National Assembly, in which he joined the party of reaction, and was in favour of the restriction of the press. In the beginning of November 1849, he went to Rome, as commander-in-chief of the French army sent to sustain the authority of the pope. He returned in 1850; and in January 1851 obtained the command of the army of Paris, in the place of Changarnier. B. concurred in the policy of the *coup d'état* of December 1851, and was made a member of the Consultative Commission. During the Crimean war, he received the command of the French expeditionary corps of the Baltic, and co-operated with the British fleet in the capture of Bomarsund. He was afterwards made a Marshal of France, and commanded in the Italian war of 1859 with distinction. In Oct. 1871, he was made president of the Court of Inquiry appointed to investigate the conduct of the French generals who surrendered fortified places during the late war.

BA'RAS KHOTU'N, or BARS KHOTAN, a ruined city on the banks of the Kherlon, one of the head-streams of the Amur, in the Mongol country. Some suppose it to have been built by the Emperor Kublai; others, that it was erected by Toghon Timur in the 14th c., after the expulsion of the Mongols from China. The remains of the mud-walls shew that the city had been 5 miles in circumference.

BARB, the designation of a noble breed of horses cultivated by the Moors of Barbary, and introduced by them into Spain. Barbs are less remarkable for their beauty and symmetry, than for their speed, endurance, abstinence, and gentle temper.

BA'RBACAN. See BARBICAN.

BARBA'DOES, the most easterly of the Caribbees, and the residence of the governor-general of the British Windward Islands. See ANTILLES. The lat. and long. of its capital, Bridgetown, are 13° 4′ N., and 59° 37′ W. Its area is about 166 square miles, or 106,240 acres—the unprecedented proportion of 100,000 being under cultivation. Besides the capital, B. contains 3 other towns, all more or less in a state of decay—Jamestown, Speights-town, and Oistin. B. affords no harbours, being almost encircled by coral-reefs, which here and there extend as much as 3 miles to seaward. Inside of the coral-reefs, the coast, excepting at two points, presents long lines of sandy beach—one of the most remarkable being Carlisle Bay with its exposed roadstead, on which Bridgetown stands. Setting aside occasional attacks of yellow fever, the climate is healthy. In 1844, the fall of rain was 72 inches; and the temperature is said to have ranged only between 76½° and 83½° F. Shocks of earthquake are sometimes felt, and thunder-storms are frequent and severe. But hurricanes are the great scourge of Barbadoes. In 1780, one of them destroyed 4326 persons, and property to the value of £1,320,564 sterling; and in 1831, another destroyed 1591 persons, and property to the value of £1,602,800 sterling. Of the former of these, the violence appears to have surpassed all belief—the winds and the waves between them having carried a 12-pounder gun a distance of 140 yards.

In 1834, the commencement of the apprenticeship under the imperial act of emancipation, the population was 102,231; by 1871, it had increased to 162,042, being an average of 976 inhabitants to every square mile. The trade and the revenue bear a similar testimony to the benefits of emancipation. Between 1833 and 1870, the revenue had increased from £20,975 to £101,932; the imports from £481,610 to £1,069,868; the exports from £408,363 to £973,829; the total tonnage entered and cleared in 1870 was 278,517 tons. During that year, sugar was exported to the value of £594,690; molasses, valued at £98,383; and wheat, at £71,298. Being universally cultivated in regular plantations, the island affords no room for the squatting of negroes on unreclaimed lands, as in Jamaica and other West-India possessions. On this account, if from no other cause, the negro population have been compelled to labour diligently for hire, and are generally in a condition most creditable to their industry and prudence—contrasting, in this respect, with the improvidence and indolence of some of the lower classes among the whites. Altogether, however, the Barbadians are a shrewd and clever people, nor are they deficient in a due appreciation of their own power and importance. B. is the see of a bishop. It contains also many well-endowed seminaries—Codrington College, in particular, having a revenue of £3000 a year. It was first colonised by the English in 1625, having previously been depopulated by the Spaniards.

BARBA'DOES CHERRY, the name given in the West Indies to the fruit of two small trees, *Malpighia urens* and *M. glabra*, which are cultivated for its sake. Clusters of fruit are produced from the axils of the leaves. The fruit of *M. urens* is small, that of *M. glabra* is like a Mayduke cherry in size and appearance, but inferior in flavour. Each fruit contains three triangular seeds. The leaves of *M. urens* have stinging hairs on the under-side. See MALPIGHIACEÆ.

BARBA'DOES GOOSEBERRY (*Pereskia aculeata*), a pleasant West Indian fruit, produced by a plant of the natural order *Cactex* (q. v.), with a round stem, thick flat alternate leaves, and large strong spines. The fruit has expectorant properties.

BA'RBARA, SAINT, who suffered martyrdom at Nicomedia, in Bithynia, about 236, or, according to other accounts, at Heliopolis, in Egypt, about 306, was of good birth, and well educated by her father, Dioscorus. To avoid disturbance in her studies, he had a tower built for her, where she spent her youth in the deepest solitude. While in this retirement, she was led, through Origen, as is said, to embrace Christianity. Her father, a fanatic heathen, learning his daughter's conversion, and failing to induce her to renounce Christ, delivered her up to the governor, Martianus, to be dealt with by the law. Martianus, struck with the intelligence and beauty of the maiden, attempted first by arguments to make her

relinquish Christianity, and when that failed, had recourse to the most exquisite tortures. At last, the blinded father offered himself to strike off his daughter's head. Scarcely was the deed done, when he was struck with lightning. Hence St B. is to this day prayed to in storms. For the same reason, she is the patron saint of artillery, and her image was at one time frequently placed on arsenals, powder-magazines, &c. The powder-room in a French ship of war is to this day called Sainte-Barbe. St B.'s day is the 4th December.

BARBAREA. See CRESS.

BARBARIAN (Gr. *barbaros*), among the Greeks, as early as the time of Homer, signified one who could not speak the Greek language; and this restricted signification was not wholly obsolete even in the age of Plato, for the latter divides the entire human race into *Hellenes* and *Barbaroi*. The origin of the word is unknown, if it be not artificially formed, on the principle of imitation, to represent a meaningless babble of sound, such as the Greeks conceived all foreign languages to be. It first began to acquire its secondary and invidious signification at the period of the Persian wars. The Greeks, who always exhibited a proud consciousness of their superior intellect and privileges, employed the term to designate the character of their enemies. It then meant whatever was opposed to Greek civilisation, freedom, or intelligence; but it could not yet have attained the degraded sense in which it is now used, for the Romans in the time of Plautus accepted the appellation, and called themselves *Barbari*. Subsequently, when Rome, under Augustus, became the mistress of the world, the word was applied to all the Germanic and Scythian tribes with whom she came into contact. In modern times, B. signifies savage, uncivilised, or ignorant.

BARBAROSSA. See FREDERICK I.

BARBAROSSA, ARODJE or HARUJ and KHAIR EDDIN, two brothers, renegade Greeks, natives of Mitylene, who, as Turkish corsairs, were the terror of the Mediterranean during the first half of the 16th c. They made themselves masters of Algeria (q. v.) and Tunis, and brought these countries under the sovereignty of the Turkish sultan.

BARBAROUX, CHARLES, one of the most distinguished and energetic of the Girondists, was born at Marseille in 1767. The new ideas of equality and fraternity found in B. a warm advocate, and he did much to promote their spread. He was elected the special delegate of Marseille, to attend the Constituent Assembly at Paris. There he opposed the court, and took part with the minister, Roland, then out of favour. After the events of the 10th of August, he returned to his native town, where he was received with enthusiasm, and was soon after chosen delegate to the Convention. In the Convention, he adhered to the Girondists, and belonged to the party who, at the trial of the king, voted for an appeal to the people. As B. boldly opposed the party of Marat and Robespierre, and even directly accused the latter of aiming at the dictatorship, he was, in May 1793, proscribed as a royalist and an enemy of the republic. He wandered about the country, hiding himself as he best could, for thirteen months, when he was taken, and perished at Bordeaux by the guillotine, June 25, 1794. B. understood the revolutionary crisis much better than the most of his party. Had the Girondists generally possessed anything like his energy and sagacity, the Jacobins must have succumbed, and much bloodshed and horror would have been spared to France and the world.

BARBARY, an extensive region in Northern Africa, comprising the countries known in modern times under the names of Barca, Tripoli Proper, Fezzan, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco, together with the half-independent province of Sus; and in ancient times, under those of *Mauritania, Numidia, Africa Propria*, and *Cyrenaica*. It stretches from Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean, and from the Mediterranean to the Desert of Sahara, or between long. 10° W. and 25° E., and lat. 25° 37° N. The north-west of this region is divided by the Atlas Mountains into two parts: the northern comprising Morocco, Algeria, and Tunis; the southern, a half-desert region, called Beled-el-Jerid, the country of dates. Though pertaining geographically to Africa, B. is not specially African in any of its characteristics; but in climate, flora, fauna, and geological configuration, belongs to that great region which forms the basin of the Mediterranean. It is watered by many small streams, which either flow into the Mediterranean or into the salt-lakes on the edge of the Desert, according as they rise on the northern or southern slopes of the Atlas Mountains. A large portion of the country is capable of cultivation, and sandy or rocky tracts are rare, except on the southern margin. During the times of the Carthaginians, Greeks, and Romans, it was richly fertile, and all the natural conditions of its ancient productiveness still remain.

For an account of the climate, geology, productions, &c., see the various countries.

Among the people, besides the French and other Europeans, seven distinct races may be enumerated: Berbers (or Kabyles), Moors, Beduins, Jews, Turks, Kuluglis, and Negroes. The Berbers and Beduins inhabit the open country, while the Moors, on the other hand, reside in the towns. Most of the Berber tribes are either wholly free, or subject to the mere nominal jurisdiction of native chiefs, kaids, judges, &c. The Beduins luxuriate in equal liberty. Jews had settled here in ancient times, but the greater number of that race immigrated when the Moors were expelled from Spain. The Turks entered B. in the 16th c. They form the dominant race in Tripoli and Tunis, but never established themselves permanently in Morocco. Their sway in Algeria was brought to an end by the French. The Kuluglis (the children of Turks by native mothers) are excluded from the possession of all the paternal rights and privileges. The negroes are not natives of B., but are brought thither as slaves, principally from Sudan and Guinea. They are for the most part domestic slaves. The population, exclusive of Jews and Christians, is about 10,000,000, all Mohammedans. Arabic is the language of commerce and not of course, and in Morocco, the language of government, and the mother-tongue of Beduins, Moors, and even Jews; but in Tunis and Tripoli, where, as we have said, the Turks are still dominant, the language of government is Turkish. The Berbers Proper, or Kabyles, especially in the highlands, to which they have been driven by foreign conquerors, use a peculiar speech among themselves.

In the oldest historical times, we find the Mauri (the ancestors of the modern Moors) mentioned as residing in the north-west of B., the Numidians in the interior and eastern parts, and the Phœnician colonies on the coast. These last people formed settlements and founded cities among them at Utica, Hippo, Hadrumetum, Leptis, and afterwards Carthage, about 1000 B.C. It does not appear that they ever penetrated far into the interior. Confining themselves to the coast between the Great Syrtis and the Straits of Gibraltar, they maintained commerce with the people of the interior and the seaport of the Mediterranean. In the 7th c. B.C., the Greeks founded Cyrene, considerably to the east of Carthage, and colonised the plateau of Barca, now styled Jebel-el-Achdar by the Arabs. While the

Phœnician colonies held sway on the coast, the Mauri and the Numidians were divided into several independent tribes, and, like their neighbours the Getuli, were wholly uncivilised. After the second Punic war, the Romans extended their sway over Carthaginian Africa, which became a Roman province at the close of the third Punic war, when the city of Carthage was sacked and destroyed. Numidia was 'annexed' after the victory over Jugurtha, and Mauritania after the defeat of King Juba, the ally of Pompey's party. The son of Juba, bearing the same name, was allowed to reign as a nominal sovereign by Augustus; but Mauritania was, in fact, a Roman province. Thus, the Romans had acquired a territory in Africa extending from the Great Syrtis to the Atlantic (corresponding to the modern states of B.), which formed some of the largest and most flourishing provinces of their vast empire. Everywhere they built large towns, whose extensive ruins are still to be seen scattered over the whole land, even to the verge of the Desert; as, for instance, those at El-Haman, in the regency of Tunis, at Sava, Musulupium, and especially the splendid city of ruins, Lambasa, not far from the Desert of Sahara. The Romans had, in general, only two legions, numbering 24,000 men, in their African provinces; nevertheless, their authority was uncontested, and they were enabled to undertake important works, such as the cisterns and aqueducts at Rusicada, Hippo, and Cirta, and the temples and amphitheatres of Calama and Anuna, which clearly shew that the inhabitants enjoyed the benefits of a safe and powerful civilisation.

Under Constantine, North Africa was divided into the several provinces, Mauritania-Tingitana, Mauritania-Cæsariensis (on the east of the former), Mauritania-Sitifensis, Numidia, Zeugitania, Byzacium, Cyrenaica, and the Regio Syrtica. At the division of the empire, the whole of these provinces, with the exception of the last, fell to the share of the Western Empire. About this time, Christianity was promulgated in Africa, and with such success, that in the three Mauritanias there were more than 160 dioceses. As Roman power declined in Europe, the consequences were severely felt in the African provinces. Religious disturbances, native revolts, and the ambitious aspirations of the Roman governors after independence, loosened the political bands which bound the provinces together, and made them an easy prey to the Vandals, who landed in Africa, in 429 A.D., under the ferocious Genseric, and in an incredibly short space of time overran the country, which they savagely misgoverned until 533, when they were defeated by Justinian's great general, Belisarius. Meanwhile the Numidians and the Mauri had made themselves masters of the interior and of the coast of Mauritania-Tingitana, and the Greek-Roman territories were restricted to the neighbourhood of Carthage and some points on the coast. The whole country of B. was thus made an easy prey for the Arabs, and in 647, Abdallah-ben-Said, with 40,000 fanatical Mohammedans from Egypt, defeated and slew the Greek prefect, Gregorius, at Tripoli. He did not, however, follow up his victories; but in 665—670 A.D., the Arabian general, Akbah, conquered the coast-towns of Tripoli, founded Cairo, and extended his sway almost to the Desert. Hassan, the general of the Calif Abd-el-Malek, in 692, stormed, plundered, and destroyed the new Carthage, and, in fact, annihilated the Greek-Roman dominion in Africa. In the course of less than a century, the greater part of the native tribes were converted forcibly to the faith of Islam. In 789, the western provinces separated themselves from the others, and Edris-ben-Abdallah founded there the dynasty of the Edrisites. After 800, when the governor, ben-Aglab, declared himself independent, founded the dynasty of the Aglabites. A lost to the califs. From this time down the changes of dynasty in B. were so frequent we cannot here describe them in detail. The were, that independent states arose in Algeria, Bugia, Tenez, &c. About this time, also, reaction of the Christian world against danism in North Africa and Spain. St took an expedition against Tunis. The by and by, expelled from Spain, and selves on the coast of Northern Africa, begin that course of piracy by which they odious to Europe, first as a fierce retaliation their Christian persecutors, but ultimately barbarous profession. As early as the Ferdinand the Catholic, the Spaniards check their insolent ravages, and landed on several occasions, capturing the Melilla, Oran, Bugia, the island befo Tripoli. The Portuguese landed on Marocco, where at first they had great they were ultimately compelled to leave After various changes of fortune, Algiers, Tripoli were brought under the governm sultan. Since 1830, however, the first of ALGERIA) has been under French sway. many years the other two have been dependent on the Turkish ruler. A a much earlier period, befell the wes where the successors of the Arabian Mehemed, overthrew the kings of Mar and established the Sherif dynasty, which the present day over these lands.—Shaw's *and Observations relative to several Parts* Mauroy, *Du Commerce des Peuples de l Septentrionale* (Par. 1845).

BA'RBARY APE, PI'GMY APE, a small species of ape or tailless monkey, as the only one of the monkey-race which in Europe. The only European locality, how which it occurs is the Rock of Gib said to have been originally br t of Africa. It inhabits the pre Rock, inaccessible to human foot, measure of protection from firearms is the amusement afforded by its manners garious, and large numbers are often seen the females carrying their young upon their In some parts of the north of Afri

Barbary Ape.

extremely abundant, inhabiting rocky and woods. It displays great agility in p tree to tree, and its bands often plunder of their number keeping careful watch on fruits, roots, &c.; and its fondn supposed to have given rise to

the battle of the pigmies and the cranes. It is of a greenish-gray colour, paler underneath; and in size resembles a large cat. The characters agree with those of the genus *Macacus* (Wanderoo Monkey, q. v., &c.), except that the tail is reduced to a mere tubercle. The muzzle is somewhat elongated, although not nearly so much as in the baboons, with which this ape has sometimes been classed, and the facial angle is much higher than in them. The face is almost naked, and somewhat wrinkled. The ears are in form not unlike human ears. The eyes are round, reddish, and of great vivacity. The B. A. is one of the monkeys most frequently to be seen in captivity, at least in Britain; and possessing a considerable degree of intelligence, is capable of being trained to many tricks. In order to this, however, it must be taken young, as the older ones are often sullen and mischievous. It usually walks on four feet, although it can be trained to stand or walk, in a more awkward manner, on two. It is filthy in its habits.

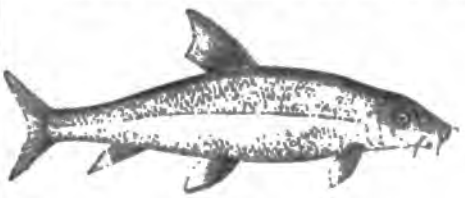
BARBASTE'LLE. See BAT.

BARBA'STRO, a walled town of Spain, in the province of Aragon. It is situated on the Vero, has a cathedral with some paintings by Antonio Galceran. Pop. 6500.

BA'RBAULD, ANNA LETITIA, an English authoress, was born at Kibworth-Harcourt, in Leicestershire—where her father, the Rev. John Aikin, a dissenting clergyman, kept an academy—on the 20th June 1743. Her private education, the religious influence of her home, and secluded life in the country, were well fitted to develop early her natural taste for poetry; but it was not until 1773 that she was induced to give her effusions to the public, who appreciated them so highly that four editions were called for during the year. Encouraged by this, she the same year, conjointly with her brother, published *Miscellaneous Pieces in Prose* (Lond. 1773), which also passed through many ions. In the following year, the poetess married Rev. Rochemont Barbauld, a dissenting minister Palgrave, in Suffolk, in which village the newly ied pair opened a boarding-school for boys. literary fame and the assiduity of Mrs B. soon e it celebrated. During the ten years Mrs B. engaged in the duties of tuition here, she pub- ed *Early Lessons for Children*, and *Hymns in Prose*, works which have been often reprinted in England for youthful readers, and translated into several languages. Her *Devotional Pieces* was also published during this period. In 1792, she commenced with the brother previously mentioned—who wrote the most of them—the well-known series, *Evenings at Home*, which were completed in three years. In 1795 she edited Akenside's *Pleasures of Imagination*, and Collins's *Odes*, prefixing to each a critical essay. In 1804, she began to edit a selection from the *Spectator*, *Guardian*, *Tatler*, &c.; and in 1810 published a collection of the British Novelists, the task of editing which she had undertaken to divert her mind from the loss she had sustained two years previously in the death of her husband. *The Female Spectator* (Lond. 1811) contains a selection from her writings. Her last poetical effort was an ode, entitled *Eighteen Hundred and Eleven* (Lond. 1812). All her compositions are characterised by simplicity of feeling, an easy, flowing style, and pure and elevated sentiment, and give token of a mind well versed in classical literature. She lived in quiet retirement till her death, which happened on the 9th March 1825. The life of Mrs B. has been written by Lucy Aikin, also known as an authoress, and prefixed to the collection of the *Works of A. L. Barbauld* (2 vols., Lond. 1825). The same lady also published from the posthumous papers of the authoress, *A Legacy for Young Ladies* (Lond. 1826).

BA'RBED AND CRE'STED, heraldic terms, by which the comb and gills of a cock are designated, when it is necessary to particularise them as being of a different tincture from the body. The common English term is *Wattled and Combed*, gules, or whatever else the tincture may be.

BA'RBEL (*Barbus*), a genus of fishes of the family of the *Cyprinidæ* (q.v.), differing from *Cyprinus* (Carp, Gold-fish, &c.) in the short dorsal and anal fins, in having one of the rays of the dorsal fin strong and serrated, and the mouth furnished with four soft barbules (whence the name B., from Lat. *barba*, a beard), two near the point of the snout, and one at each angle of the mouth. The



Barbel.

upper jaw also extends considerably beyond the lower. The species are numerous. Like the other Cyprinidæ, they are all inhabitants of fresh water, and generally of muddy ponds and rivers, where they seek food by ploughing up the mud with their snouts, like swine, and are said often to seize the small fishes which come to share with them the worms and insects of the mud. They also feed upon the leaves and roots of aquatic plants.—The Common B. (*B. vulgaris*) is abundant in many of the rivers of the temperate parts of Europe. It is the only species found in Britain, and only in some of the still and deep rivers of England. It is very abundant in the Thames, frequenting the weedy parts of the river in shoals in summer, and seeking the deeper water in winter, becoming so torpid during cold weather, that the fishermen sometimes take it with the hand, or by pushing it with a pole into a small net fastened to an iron hoop. It grows to a large size, sometimes 3 feet in length, and 15 to 18 pounds in weight; it is rather of a long shape, in section nearly circular; the general colour of the head and upper part of the body, greenish brown, becoming yellowish green on the sides, the belly white, the tail somewhat forked, and of a deep purple colour. It affords sport to anglers, but is a very coarse fish, and little used for food except by the poor, who often boil bacon with it to give it a relish. The larger barbels are esteemed the best. The roe has poisonous qualities, although its effects are disagreeable rather than permanently injurious.

Another species, called the Binny, or B. of the Nile, is very abundant in that river; attains a very great size, 70 lbs. or upwards; is much esteemed for food; and is taken by hooks baited with dates steeped in honey. A number of baited hooks, each attached to a separate strong line, are enclosed in a mass of clay, flour, dates, &c., which is sunk in the river, and to which, as it begins to dissolve, the binnies are attracted; when boring into it with their snouts, and devouring the dates, they are caught. The fish being generally hooked by the projecting upper jaw, is allowed to remain in the water, the line being fastened on shore, and is taken out when wanted for immediate use.

BA'RBEL, ANGLING FOR. The B. is a ground-feeding fish, grubbing on the bottom for his sustenance.

The baits principally used to capture him are worms and maggots, greaves, and cheese; and the means of angling for him are chiefly with a dead-line, called a ledger, or with float-tackle. The ledger is a perforated leaden bullet; through this the line runs freely. To prevent its slipping down on the hook, a large shot or other substance is fastened on the line, about a yard above the hook. The hook (about No. 5 or 6 in size) is baited either with a lob-worm or greaves, and the lead is cast into the water, and remains motionless on the bottom. When a fish bites, the angler feels the tug, and strikes smartly; as the fins of the B. are large, and his muscles powerful, he frequently offers considerable resistance. The rod used for ledger-fishing is short and stiff. In float-fishing for B., the tackle is finer, and the hook smaller. A cork-float suited to the depth and rapidity of the river is used, and it is fixed at such a height upon the line that the bait just touches the bottom. The instant the float disappears, the angler strikes, but not so forcibly as in ledger-fishing. Previous to angling for B., it is desirable to bait the place to be fished, for the purpose of drawing the fish together. This is accomplished by chopping up and casting into the water from 500 to 1000 lob-worms, and it should be done 18 or 20 hours before fishing. In float-fishing for B., the float should be allowed to travel down a considerable distance of water, at least 30 or 40 yards, in order that no spot where a portion of the worms may have lodged should be missed. This is sometimes done by the use of a float called a slider, which is not fixed on the line, but by the management of the angler, accommodates itself to the depth of the water. In this fishing, the bait trails along the ground, and the rod should be at least 14 or 15 feet in length, and the line very light and fine. B. will sometimes take a spinning bait, and are often caught by the angler while trout-fishing; but this is by no means a certain method of angling for them. The B. may be said to be gregarious; he spawns in May or June, choosing some gentle shallow for that purpose. He soon recovers his strength again, however; and about the end of July, he seeks the deep rapid streams, and may be seen vigorously springing from the water in his endeavours to rid himself of the parasitical insects which attach themselves to him during his quiescence. Here he remains the greater part of the summer and autumn. Frosty weather renders the B. torpid, and he takes shelter under some large stone or weed, where he can lie up during the winter. Although the B. is by no means an estimable fish for the table, it is much used by the Jews in their fasts and festivals.

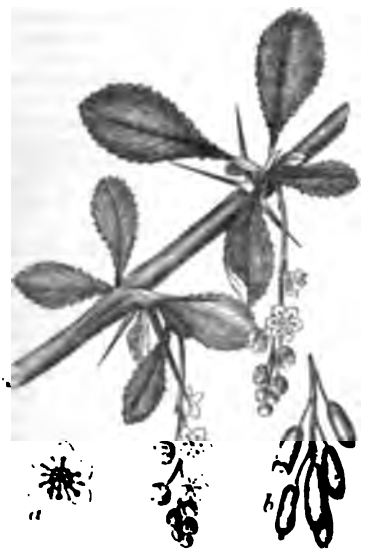
BARBER (Lat. *barba*, the beard), a shaver of the beard, and who ordinarily includes hair-cutting in his profession. Barbers are of great antiquity, if not for the shaving of the beard, at least for shaving a portion of the head. The office of the B. is referred to by the prophet Ezekiel: 'And thou, son of man, take thee a barber's razor, and cause it to pass upon thine head and upon thy beard.' —Ezek. v. 1. In all oriental countries, including China, the shaving the whole or part of the head continues to be performed by barbers. In every part of the world, the professional B. and hair-dresser is celebrated for his garrulity and general obliging qualities, such being required by those who place themselves in his hands. The amusing character of the B. in one of the tales in the *Arabian Nights Entertainments*, and also of the B. in Rossini's opera of *Figaro*, will readily occur to recollection. As will be seen from the succeeding article, barbers at one time acted as a kind of surgeons, and accordingly occupied a higher social position than they now enjoy. Latterly, on account of the simple mode of trimming the hair, and of the prevalence of private shaving, the business of the B. in England has greatly declined, and his services are chiefly confined to the humbler classes. In the United States, the business of the B. is almost exclusively in the hands of the coloured population. Anciently, one of the utensils of the B. was a brass basin, with a semi-circular cup in one side to compass a man's throat, by which means, in applying the lather to the face, the clothes were not soiled. Readers will recollect that Don Quixote crazily assumed a barber's basin as a helmet. At the end of a pole, the brass basin is still hung out as a sign at the door of the B. in Great Britain, France, and other countries.

BARBER-SURGEONS. In former times, as stated in the foregoing article, barbers acted as a kind of surgeons, or at least phlebotomists, and such appears to have been the case in all countries. To this day, on the pole on which the barber's basin is suspended, there is represented a twisted or spiral ribbon, which symbolises the winding of a fillet round the arm previous to blood-letting. In London, Edinburgh, and elsewhere, the B. formed corporations with certain privileges. The surgical duties of these bodies now pertain to the corporations of surgeons. The existence of B. as professors of the healing art, in England, can be traced as far back as the reign of Edward IV. in 1461, when they were first incorporated; and from then till the reign of Henry VIII., when they were united with the surgeons, until the time of George II., when the B. ceased to be anything but barbers, as we now understand the term. In the latter reign, an act was passed, the 18 Geo. II. c. 15, from the preamble of which we learn that not till then had the discovery been made that the business or trade of a barber was 'foreign to, and independent of, the practice of surgery;' and it therefore proceeds to dissolve the connection between the two bodies, and to remit the B. to the more humble functions they now perform. But this is done with an express saving of all their privileges as a company or corporation, and as such they exist to the present day. See an interesting account of them in Knight's *History of London*, vol. ii. pp. 177—192, which concludes with the following curious extract from the list of officers to Heriot's Hospital in the statutes of that charity compiled in 1627: 'One chirurgeon barber *who shall cut and pole the hair of all the scholars of the hospital*; and also look to the *cure* of all those within the hospital who *anyway* shall stand in need of his *art*.' And see the Report of the Royal Commissioners appointed to inquire into the corporations of London, and printed in 1837, in which all particulars relating to the government and working of this c[illegible] the present day are given. The report [illegible] the company exists 'for using and exe[illegible] and mystery of barbers, which inc[illegible] within the suburbs and liberties [illegible] it concludes as follows: 'The c[illegible] extensive powers for the regul[illegible] but in practice none are exercis[illegible] except [illegible] of compelling all persons using the trade [illegible] of barber (which, as before mentioned, include dressers) within the city to become free [illegible] company.' The barbers still retain their ancie[illegible] —which they possessed before the [illegible] disunited from them—in Monkwell [illegible] gate, in the city of London. See [illegible] SURGEONS, TRADE CORPORATIONS.

BARBERINO-DI-MUGELLO [illegible] Tuscany on the Siere, 11

a population of 9000, engaged in the manufacture of straw-hats. The royal villa of Caffegiolo, the ancient residence of the Medicis, stands in the environs.—B. Di Val-d'Elsa, a village in the same district, with a beautiful situation on the ridge between the valleys of the Pesa and Elsa, and celebrated as the place where Pope Urban VIII. was born. One of the palaces of the Barberini is here.

BARBERRY (*Berberis*), a genus of plants, of the natural order *Berberideæ* (q. v.). All the species, which are numerous, and found in temperate climates in most parts of the world except Australia, are shrubs with yellow flowers, having a calyx of six leaves, a corolla of six petals, and six stamens, which, when touched at the base, display a considerable degree of irritability, starting up from their ordinary position of reclining upon the petals,



Common Barberry (*Berberis vulgaris*): *a*, a flower; *b*, ripe fruit.

and closing upon the pistil, apparently a provision to secure fecundation. The fruit is a berry with two or three seeds. Not a few of the species are evergreen. They are divided into two sub-genera, sometimes ranked as genera; those with simple leaves forming the sub-genus *Berberis*, and those with pinnate leaves the sub-genus *Mahonia*, or Ash-leaved B.—The Common B. (*B. vulgaris*) is a native of most of the temperate parts of Europe, Asia, and North America. It produces its flowers and fruit in pendulous racemes; has obovate, slightly serrate, deciduous leaves; and numerous straight three-forked spines. It is a very ornamental shrub, especially when covered with fruit. Its berries are of an elongate oval form; when ripe, generally of a bright red colour, more rarely whitish, yellow, or almost black. They contain free malic acid. The fruit of the ordinary varieties is too acid to be eaten, but makes excellent preserves and jelly. Malic acid (q. v.) is pretty extensively prepared from it in France. A yellow fungus, *Æcidium Berberidis*, is very general upon the under-side of the leaves of the B.; and a notion prevails that it produces *rust* in corn, which is erroneous, the rust (q. v.) of corn being a totally different fungus, which, like this, is apt to appear in humid weather. The prevalence of this notion, however, appears to have prevented the general employment of the B. as a hedge-plant, for which it is admirably adapted, hedges made of it being easily kept free from gaps, and becoming more and more impervious by new shoots thrown up from the root. The yellow root of the B. is used for dyeing yellow, and especially the inner bark of it, and also of the stem and branches. The bark is capable of being employed for tanning leather. In like manner, *B. glauca*, *B. ilicifolia*, *B. tomentosa*, and *B. lutea* are used for dyeing in Chili and Peru; *B. tinctoria* by the inhabitants of the Neilgherry Hills, and *B. aristata* in Nepaul; and a strong similarity of properties appears to pervade the whole genus. *B. Lycium*, a native of the north of India, is characterised by great astringency, and an extract prepared from it is valuable in ophthalmia. Most of the species are more or less spiny, and some of the evergreen species might be very ornamentally employed for hedge plants; as *B. dulcis*, now frequent in shrubberies in Britain. This species, sometimes called the Sweet B., is a native of the south-west coast of America. Its leaves much resemble those of the common B.; it has solitary flowers on rather long stalks, and globose black berries about the size of a common black currant. The fruit is produced very copiously in Britain, is quite sweet when fully ripe, and makes excellent jelly. When unripe and very acid, it is used for tarts. Pleasant fruits are produced also by *B. aristata* and *B. Asiatica*, the berries of both of which are dried in Nepaul, after the manner of raisins; *B. concinna*, also a Himalayan species; *B. microphylla*, found in the southern parts of South America; and *B. trifoliata*, found in Mexico. Those of some of the other species are either disagreeable or insipid, which is particularly the case with most of the ash-leaved barberries, natives of North America and the north of India.—Numerous species of B., both from the Himalaya and South America, are daily becoming more frequent in Britain as ornamental shrubs.

BARBET (*Bucco*), a genus of birds generally placed by ornithologists in the family of the *Picidæ*, or Woodpeckers (q. v.), but regarded as the type of a very distinct sub-family, exhibiting points of resemblance to the cuckoos. They have a large conical beak, surrounded with tufts of bristles directed forwards - a characteristic from which the name B. is derived (Lat. *barba*, a beard). They prey on insects, and some of them also on young birds; some are at least partially frugivorous. They inhabit warm parts both of the eastern and western hemispheres, and most of them are birds of gay plumage. The Linnæan genus has been subdivided, and includes, besides the true barbets, the Barbacoas (*Monasa*), South American birds - the Barbicans (*Pogonias*) of Africa and India - the American Puff-birds (*Tamatia*), &c. The Puff-birds are remarkable for erecting their plumage till they resemble a round ball. Being birds of short wing, both they and the true barbets wait for their prey, generally sitting with great patience on some withered branch till it comes near them, when they suddenly dart upon it. They often choose positions close to human habitations, and shew little fear.

BARBETTE, an earthen terrace inside the parapet of a rampart, serving as a platform for heavy guns; it has such an elevation that the guns may be fired over the crest of the parapet instead of through the embrasures, to give them a freer scope by swivelling round into different directions.

BARBICAN (Ital. *barbacane*), a projecting watch-tower, or other advanced work, before the gate of a castle or fortified town. The term B. was more specially applied to the outwork intended to defend the drawbridge, which in modern fortifications

is called the *tête du pont*. 'To begin from without, the first member of an ancient castle was the B., a watch-tower, for the purpose of descrying an enemy at a greater distance' (Grose's *Antiquities of England and Wales*), and, to the same effect, Camden, speaking of Bedford Castle, says it was taken by four assaults; in the first was taken the B.; in the second, the *outer* balia. See BAILEY. See also Parker's *Glossary of Architecture*. There are

Barbican.

a few perfect barbicans remaining in England, as at Alnwick and Warwick; but the best examples of it, as of the other parts of the fortification of the middle ages, are probably to be seen in the town of Carcassone (q. v.). A very curious and minute account of the siege of Carcassone in 1240, in the form of a report to Queen Blanche by the seneschal who defended it, preserved in the archives of France, has been published in Hewitt's *Ancient Armour* (p. 355, *et seq.*), in which the uses of the B. are fully illustrated. The street called Barbican in London, near Aldersgate Street, marks the site of such a work, in front of one of the gates of the old city.

BARBITON, or BARBITOS, a stringed instrument of the ancient Greeks, made of ivory, in the form of a lyre, with seven strings, and said to have been invented by Anacreon.

BARBOU, the name of a celebrated French family of printers, the descendants of John B. of Lyon, who lived in the 16th c. From his press issued the beautiful edition of the works of Clement Marot in 1539. His son, Hugh B., removed from Lyon to Limoges, where, among other works, his celebrated edition of *Cicero's Letters to Atticus* appeared in 1580. Joseph Gerard B., a descendant of the same family—who in the beginning of the 18th c. settled in Paris—continued in 1755 the series of Latin classics in duodecimo—rivals to the Elzevirs of an earlier date—which had been begun in 1743 by Coustelier, at the instigation of the learned Lenglet Dufresnoy. This series of classics, which is much prized for its elegance and correctness, was purchased, along with the rest of the business, by Delalain, from the heirs of Hugh B., who died in 1809. There is a complete set of the B. classics in the Royal Library of the British Museum.

BARBOUR, JOHN, an eminent Scottish poet of the 14th c., regarding whom history has not much to record beyond the production of the national epic, entitled *The Bruce*. Nothing is known of his parentage, and of his birth it can only be conjectured to have been about 1320. The ascertained facts of his life are few. We are informed only that in his own age he was accounted a man of great learning and worth; that he was Archdeacon of Aberdeen as early at least as 1357, and held that office till his death in 1395; that in 1357, he travelled into England, accompanied by three scholars, for the purpose of studying at Oxford; that he repeated his visit to England for purpose in 1364; that in 1365, he ob[tained] port 'to travel through England with [two] on horseback towards St Denis and [other] places;' that in 1368, he again received [permission] to travel through England with two servants [and] two horses, on his way for scholarly purposes [to] France; that in 1373 he was Clerk of Audi[t] the household of King Robert II., and one [of the] auditors of Exchequer; that in 1375, [the] poem was more than half finished; [and] he had a gratuity of ten pounds from [King Robert] II.; that in 1378, he received from the same prince a perpetual annuity of twenty shillings, which in 1380 he bequeathed to the dean and chapter of Aberdeen, under the condition that they should a yearly mass for the rest of his soul; that in 1381 he had a gift from the crown of the [wardship of] a minor, whose estate lay within the parish [where] he was rector; that in 1383, and [again] in 1388, was one of the auditors of Exchequer; that King Robert II. granted him a [pension] of ten pounds a year; and that he died between March 1394 and Whitsunday 1395, probably on [the] 13th March of the year last named, his anniversary [being] celebrated in the cathedral of Aberdeen being celebrated on [that] day until the Reformation. Besides *The Bruce*, B. wrote another poem, now lost, called *The Brut*, in which he recounted the origin and [early] history of the royal house of Stuart. *The Bruce* is [remarkable] by great purity and clearness of style, [considerable] and versification contrasting advantageously with those of any contemporary English poet, not excepting even Chaucer. His imagery is not rich, but [what] is seldom other than lively, simple, and energetic. Fortunate in the choice of a noble theme, he has depicted, in rough but faithful outlines, the manners, and deeds of a truly [great] given to his country, not only the [first] literature, but the earliest history of her [greatest] greatest king.—The best edition of *The Bruce* accessible to the public, is that of Dr James [Cumming] (Edin. 1820); but a superior one, under the care of Mr Cosmo Innes, was produced for the Spalding Club in 1856.

BARBU'DA, one of the British Caribbees, lies 30 miles to the north of Antigua. Of its [two] end, the lat. and long. are 17° 33' N., and 61° [48'] Its area is estimated at 75 square miles. [The] number of its inhabitants in 1871 was 8[000]; proportional density, therefore, of population [only] about ⅛ of that of Barbadoes (q. v.). In [1871] island, small as it is, has never been cleared [for] cultivation, the greater part of the interior [being] dense forest interspersed with patches of [scrub]. The agriculture, such as it is, is confined [to] rearing of stock and the growing of provisions. [The] is of coral formation, and is beset with reefs. [It has] a roadstead, but no harbour.

BA'RBY, a walled town of Prussia, on the left bank of the Elbe, 15 miles [N.] Magdeburg. It is well built, [and has some] Pop. 5212, chiefly engaged in the manufacture of woollens and linens.

BA'RCA, a country in the north of Africa, 26°—33° N., and long. 20°—25° E., lying [on] Great Syrtis (now called the Gulf of Sidra) [and] Egypt. It forms the eastern division of [Barbary], having the rest of that dominion on the Mediterranean Sea on the N., the Libyan Desert on the S., and it is separated from [Tripoli] E. by no definite line, but by a [tract] of independent tribes. It nearly corresponds [to] ancient Cyrenaica (q. v.). Population [is] estimated from 300,000 to 1,000,000.

ıy and agreeable in the more elevated parts, reach a height of about 1200 feet, and in exposed to the sea-breeze. There are none small streams, but the narrow terrace-like of country are extremely fertile, realising all s said of the ancient Cyrenaica. Rice, dates, saffron, &c., are produced in plenty. The es are excellent; the horses still celebrated, ancient times. But the good soil extends over about a fourth of B.: the east exhibits only rocks and loose sand. Many ruins in the western parts attest a former state of cultiva- much superior to the present. So early as the of Cyrus, B. became a state, which proved rous to the neighbouring state of Cyrene; but a single century it sank, and became subject pt. In the Roman period, its inhabitants oted for their predatory incursions. It was rards a province of the Greek empire, and had ed itself independent when the Arabs invaded onquered it in 641. The present inhabitants t of Arabs and Berbers, who profess the mmedan religion, and are subject to the Pacha ripoli, to whom each of the beys pays an l tribute.

BARCAROLLE, a species of song peculiar to ondoliers of Venice. The name is applied to al compositions for voice or pianoforte of a r character.

BARCELONA, the most important manufac- city in Spain, in the province of the same , is beautifully situated on the Mediterranean en the mouths of the Llobregat and the Besos, midst of a district as luxuriant as a garden. walled, and possessed of a citadel, which, how- is effectually commanded by the fortress of jouy on the south-west. B., like Edinburgh, ided into two parts—the old town and the new the *Rambla* (river-bed), which has been planted flowering shrubs, and formed into a beautiful nade. The streets of the old town, forming orth-west division, are crooked, narrow, and ved. Those of the new are much more spacious egular. There is a large suburb to the east of own, where the seafaring portion of the popula- chiefly reside. In 1861, the population was 0; but in 1865 it had been reduced to 167,095, y by a frightful cholera epidemic in 1865. B. see of a bishop. It has a university, and es and schools for general and special educa- purposes; public libraries, in one of which is a splendid collection of MSS.; several hos- and other charitable institutions; the finest re in Spain; and numerous ancient and elegant hes, with a cathedral which, began in 1298, is et completed. B. manufactures silk, woollens, n, lace, hats, firearms, &c., which form its ipal exports. It imports raw cotton, cotton, sugar, and other colonial produce; also Baltic r, salt-fish, hides, iron, wax, &c. Next to , it is the most important port in Spain. In- more vessels clear out of its port than out of ; but they are of smaller size, the entrance to harbour, which is itself commodious, bein active to large vessels. The number of vessels entered in 1868 was 5161, with a tonnage of 80 tons; cleared out 2887, with a tonnage of 93 tons; value of imports in 1864, 406,872,631 ; exports, 132,915,919 reals. B. is a place of antiquity, and associated with many historical s. Local tradition fixes the date of its founda- 400 years before the Romans; and it is said ve been refounded by Amilcar Barca, the father nnibal, from whom its ancient name, Barcino, lerived. An important city under the Romans, Goths, and Moors, B. in 878 became an independent sovereignty, under a Christian chief of its own, whose descendants continued to govern it, and to hold the title of Counts of Barcelona until the 12th c., when its ruler adopted the title of King of Aragon, to which kingdom it was annexed. During the middle ages, B. became a flourishing seaport, rivalled in the Mediterranean by Genoa only. To its commercial code, framed in the 13th c., much deference was paid by the whole of Europe; and it was at this time, says Ford in his *Handbook of Spain*, 'a city of commerce, conquest, and courtiers; of taste, learning, and luxury; and the Athens of the troubadour.' Columbus was received here in 1493 by Ferdinand and Isabella, after his discovery of America. In 1640, it appealed to France against the tyranny of Philip IV.; but it turned against that country in the war of the Spanish Succession, and adhered to Austria. In 1705, the fortress of Montjouy was surprised and captured by Lord Peterborough, and the city surrendered shortly afterwards. In 1714, after a most heroic defence, it was stormed by the Duke of Berwick, and given over to fire and sword. Napoleon perfidiously obtained possession of it in 1808; and with one or two reverses, and in the face of great difficulties, it was held by the French until the treaty of peace concluded in Paris in 1814. For thirteen years, B. remained quiet under the iron rule of España; but in 1827 its old turbulent spirit returned, and it rose in favour of Don Carlos. Since that time, B. has successively supported the pretensions of any party in the state whose ascendancy at the moment seemed to offer most advantages to itself.

BARCLAY, ALEXANDER, a poet and prose writer, born about the end of the 15th c., whether in England or Scotland is not certain. He studied at Oxford, and then obtained, through his patron, Bishop Cornish, an appointment as one of the priests or prebendaries of St Mary Ottery, in Devonshire. He afterwards became a monk of the Benedictine monastery of Ely, where he continued until its suppression in 1539. He died in June 1552, six weeks after he had been presented to the rectory of All-Hallows, London. His claim to notice rests chiefly upon his famous poem, *The Ship of Fools of the World*, partly a translation, and partly an imitation of the German *Narrenschiff* by Brandt—which was printed by Pynson in 1508, and since several times reprinted. It is interesting (as most satires are), as showing the manners and customs of the times satirised. He published several works besides; among others, *The Mirrour of Good Manners*, *The Castell of Labour*, *The Eclogues*, the first volumes that appeared in the English language; and also made a translation of Sallust's *History of the Jugurthine War*. In his lifetime, he was admired for his wit and eloquence, and his writings exhibit a refinement not common in that age.

BARCLAY, JOHN, a clever poet and satirist, was born about 1582, at Pont à Mousson in Lorraine, where his father, William B., a Scotsman, who died in 1605, had held the office of Professor of Law. He studied in the Jesuit College of that place; and the distinguished talents which he early displayed, caused the Jesuits to try to induce him to enter their order. On account of his rejection of their proposals, he, as well as his father, suffered much persecution. He accompanied his father to England in 1603, where he soon attracted the attention of James I., to whom he dedicated one of his works, *Euphormionis Satyricon* (Lond. 1603), a political-satirical romance, chiefly directed against the Jesuits. Next appeared his *Conspiratio Anglicana* (Lond. 1605), and his *Icon Animarum* (Lond. 1614). In

1615, he left England, and went to Rome, where he died August 12, 1621. In the same year his celebrated work *Argênis* appeared in Paris (Paris, 1621). It was written in Latin, and has been translated into several languages. There are no fewer than three translations into English; the last appeared in 1772. It is a political allegory, containing clever allusions to the state of Europe, more particularly of France, during the time of the League. *Argênis* was admired both by Cowper and D'Israeli.

BARCLAY, ROBERT, the celebrated apologist of the Quakers, was born on December 23, 1648, at Gordonstown in Morayshire, Scotland. His father was the son of David Barclay of Mathers, the representative of an old Scoto-Norman family, which traced itself through fifteen intervening generations to Walter de Berkeley, who acquired a settlement in Scotland about the middle of the 12th c.; his mother was the daughter of Sir Robert Gordon, the premier baronet of Nova Scotia, and historian of the House of Sutherland. Young B. received the rudiments of learning in his native country, and was afterwards sent to the Scotch College at Paris, of which his uncle was rector. Here he made rapid progress in his studies, and excited the admiration of his preceptors, as well as of his relative, who offered to make him his heir, if he would remain in France, and formally adopt the Roman Catholic religion, to the ceremonies of which he had been habituated during his residence there. This, however, B. refused to do; and in compliance with the wish which his mother had expressed on her death-bed, he returned home in 1664. Though only sixteen, B. was an excellent scholar, and could speak in the Latin language with wonderful fluency and correctness. In 1667, he embraced the principles of the Society of Friends, for reasons more highly respected in our day than in his. He states in his *Treatise on Universal Love*, that his 'first education fell among the strictest sort of Calvinists,' those of his country 'surpassing in the heat of zeal not only Geneva, from whence they derive their pedigree, but all the other so-called reformed churches;' that shortly afterwards, his transition to France had thrown him among the opposite 'sect of papists,' whom, after a time, he found to be no less deficient in charity than the other; and that, consequently, he had refrained from joining any, though he had listened to several. The ultimate effect of this was to liberalise his mind, by convincing him of the folly and wickedness of religious strife. In both Calvinists and Catholics, he found an absence of 'the principles of love,' 'a straitness of doctrine,' and a 'practice of persecution,' which offended his idea of Christianity, as well as his gentle and generous nature. He therefore allied himself gladly to this new sect, whose distinguishing feature was its charity and pure simplicity of Christian life, and soon became one of its most devoted adherents and its ablest advocate. In the course of his life, he made several excursions into England, Holland, and Germany, earnestly propagating his peaceful views wherever he went, and occasionally enjoying the companionship of William Penn. His first publication was *Truth Cleared of Calumnies*. It appeared in 1670, and was intended as a refutation of the charges—many of them notoriously false—made against the new sect. In 1673 appeared *A Catechism and Confession of Faith*, the answers to the questions being 'to avoid theological dogmatism in the words of Scripture. This was followed by *The Anarchy of the Ranters*, &c. In 1675, he published his *magnum opus*, elaborately entitled *An Apology for the True Christian Divinity, as the same is held forth and Preached by the People called in scorn Quakers: Being a full Explanation*, &c. It contains a statement and defence of fifteen religious propositions peculiar to the Friends. The leading doctrine which runs through the whole book is, that divine truth is made known to us not by logical investigation, but by intuition or immediate revelation; and that the faculty, if it can be technically defined, by which such intuition is rendered possible, is the 'internal light,' the source of which is God, or, more properly, Christ, 'who is the light that lighteth every man that cometh into the world.' The identity of this doctrine with that held by Mr Maurice and others of the Broad Church in the present day has been more than once remarked. In 1677 appeared his *Treatise on Universal Love*. It was the first of that long series of noble and gentle remonstrances against the criminality of war that has so honourably distinguished the Society of Friends. It was addressed to the ambassadors of the several princes of Europe, met at Nimeguen. In 1686, he published his last work, which was a defence of the doctrine of 'immediate revelation.' He died at Ury, in Kincardineshire, October 3, 1690. His estate remained in the possession of his descendants till 1854, its owner at that time being Captain Barclay, the famous pedestrian. 'The Apologist's Study,' which remained much as he left it, was long an object of pilgrimage with members of the Society of Friends; it was destroyed a few years ago, when the old house of Ury was pulled down.

BARCLAY DE TOLLY, MICHAEL, PRINCE, one of the most distinguished Russian generals, was descended from a branch of the same Scotch family to which the two preceding—Barclay the poet, and the apologist of the Quakers—belonged, some of whom had settled in Mecklenburg and Livonia. He was the youngest of three brothers, and was born in 1759 in Livonia, where his father, Gottlieb B. de T.—at one time a member of the town-council of Riga—possessed an estate. Having been adopted by General van Vermoulen, B. de T. entered a Russian regiment of cuirassiers, at first with the rank of sergeant. He fought with great bravery in the Turkish war of 1788—1789; in the campaign against Sweden in 1790; and in those against Poland in 1792 and 1794. In the year 1806, at Pultusk, as major-general, he commanded Benningsen's advanced-guard. He lost an arm at the battle of Eylau. Although much hated by the Russian national party, because regarded by them as a German, he was appointed minister of war by the Emperor Alexander in 1810—an office which he held till 1813. In 1812, he was made commander-in-chief of the army of the west. His retreat to Smolensko, and the loss of the battle fought there on the 17th of August, raised the hatred of the Russian national party to a greater height than ever, and he was obliged to yield the chief command to Kutusow. It has been maintained by many, that B. de T. was the originator of the Russian system of defence in 1812. He had indeed advised a retreat to the interior, and recommended the avoidance of a battle; but the system of defence, as a whole, originated with General Pfuel, who had left the Prussian service, and constantly accompanied the Emperor Alexander from the year 1807, without holding any distinct official appointment. At Moskwa, B. de T. commanded the right wing. After the death of Kutusow, he again obtained the chief command of the army, which he held at the battle of Bautzen, and retained till the truce. He afterwards commanded the Russian army in Bohemia, and took part in the battles of Dresden, Culm, and Leipsic. He was commander-in-chief of the Russian army in France, and in consequence of this was made a prince and a field-marshal. He died in 1818 at Insterburg, on his way to the Bohemian

Two or three years before his death, the
of Tolly or Towie, in Aberdeenshire, the old
itance of his family, was for sale, and he was
ed to buy it, but refused, on the ground that
mily had been so long expatriated that Scot-
was now to them a strange country.

ARCLAY AND PERKINS' BREWERY,
f the largest establishments of the kind in the
l, is situated in Park Street, Southwark, Lon-
the buildings covering upwards of ten acres.
brewery was founded by Dr Johnson's friend,
y Thrale, who, in 1773, according to a state-
made by the doctor on his Hebridean tour, was
g as much as £20,000 annually to the Excise.
Thrale's death, it was sold by the executors to
ay (a descendant of the author of the *Apology
e Quakers*) and Perkins, who had been Thrale's
clerk, for £135,000. So far back as the year
when described in Dodd's *Visits to Factories*,
at establishment had 24 malt-lofts, each as
a three-storied house; a brewing-room
as large as Westminster Hall; 10 coppers
g 120,000 gallons capacity each; 4 ferment-
els of 1500 barrels capacity each; a cooling-
of 1000 square yards area; 300 yeast-working
s of 300 gallons capacity each; and 150 store-
one large enough to contain 100,000 gallons.
perations consumed 2000 quarters of malt and
0 gallons of water weekly; while the convey-
of the beer to the public-houses employed 200
and drays. All these quantities have increased
; for although there has been a vast increase of
ation between 1841 and 1871, the number
rter breweries in the metropolis (of which
of Barclay and Perkins, and Truman and
ury, are the chief) remains nearly uniform.

R-CO'CHBA, SIMON, the leader of the Jews in
great insurrection against the Romans, under
mperor Hadrian, from 131–135 A.D. Three
had the oppressed Jews revolted without suc-
rom 115 to 118; and in 130, soon after Hadrian's
from Syria, a new rebellion broke out, for
they had been secretly preparing. At the
of it was one Simon, who assumed the name
r-cochba, i.e., 'Son of the Star,' pretending
he prophecy was to be fulfilled in him, 'There
come a Star out of Jacob' (Numb. xxiv. 17).
ught at first with great success against the
ns, and even obliged them to evacuate Jeru-
where he was proclaimed king, and caused
to be struck with his name. The war spread
ll the country of Palestine, and fifty towns,
s many villages and hamlets, came into the pos-
of the Jews. But on the arrival of Hadrian's
l, Julius Severus, Jerusalem was retaken; and
gust 135, Bether, the very last strong fortress
y the Jews, was stormed by the Romans. B.
the day of this bloody conquest. During the
undreds of thousands of Jews were destroyed,
were executed, and very cruel edicts were
uently issued against them. From this last
le dates the final dispersion of the Jews over
e of the earth. The Holy City was razed to
und, and rebuilt under another name. The
I retain in their liturgy hymns which they
mournful memory of this tragic event.
particular history of the struggle, see Munter's
*diache Krieg unter den Kaisern Trajan und
en* (Altona, 1821).

RD, the name, known to the Romans since
c., by which the Gauls and other Celtic
s (British, Welsh, Irish, and Scotch) desig-
their minstrels. Like the Scôps of the Anglo-
, and the Skalds of Scandinavia, the bards
ted the deeds of gods and heroes at religious
solemnities, and the festivities of princes and nobles, accompanying their recitations with the harp or chrotta (Ir. *cruit* and *clarsach*); they excited the armies to bravery, preceded them into the fight, and formed the heralds of princes, and the mediators of peace. The institution early disappeared among the Gauls, but lingered long in Wales, Ireland, and Scotland. The bards formed a hereditary order, and exercised a decided national influence. The minstrels among the Celts, as among the Germans, were the organ of the people, and the channel of all historical tradition. It is supposed that in Wales, about 940 A.D., their privileges were defined and fixed by the laws which bear the name of King Howel Dha; and in 1078 the whole order is said to have been reformed and regulated anew by Gryffith ap Conan. At Caerwys, Aberfraw, and Mathraval, there were held from time to time great competitions in minstrelsy, called Eisteddfods, at which the judges were appointed by the prince. When Wales was conquered by Edward I. (1284), the bards lost their privileges, and were, according to tradition, persecuted and put to death; but succeeding princes countenanced the institution, and Eisteddfods were repeatedly held under royal commission down to the reign of Elizabeth. Since then, exertions for the revival of national Welsh poetry and the bardic profession have been made by several societies: the Gwyneddigion, founded in 1770; the Cambrian, in 1818; and more recently, the Metropolitan Cambrian Institution. To these societies, and to the patriotism of individuals, we owe collections of the relics of the lays of the Welsh bards, none of which, it should be added, can be traced to MSS. of an older date than the 12th c. The most interesting of those relics are those of Liwarc'h-Henn, Aneurin, and Taliesin. See Jones's *Relics of the Welsh Bards* (Lond. 1794); Owen's *Myvyrian Archæology of Wales* (3 vols., Lond. 1801–1807); *Poëmes des Bardes Bretons du vie Siècle, par T. H. de la Villemarque* (Paris, 1850), &c.

In Ireland, the bards are believed to have been a hereditary guild, divided into three classes: the Filedha, who sung in the service of religion, and in war, and were the counsellors and heralds of princes; the Braitheamhain, who recited or chanted the laws; the Seanachaidhe, who were chroniclers and genealogists to princes and nobles. Their ample privileges and endowments of land gave them an exorbitant influence, which both princes and people had sometimes to rise against and curb. The great skill of the Irish bards on the harp was acknowledged everywhere. After the conquest of Ireland by Henry II., the profession began to sink. Still many of the chiefs maintained bards in their families, whose songs and legends kept up the national feeling. This occasioned several measures of the English rulers against the Irish bards; Elizabeth ordered the bards that were captured to be hanged, as the instigators of rebellion. Turlogh O'Carolan, born 1670, died 1737, is reckoned the last Irish bard; his poems were translated into English by Furlory. Other lays of the bards have been translated by Miss Brooke, *Relics of Irish Poetry* (Dub. 1789), and Hardiman, *Irish Minstrelsy* (Dub. 1831).

The bardism of Scotland may be conjectured to have been similar to that of Ireland; but nothing is certainly known of the subject beyond the fact, that there were poets or bards, of different degrees, in the Highlands down to the 17th c.

The name of B. was unknown among the Germanic nations; though a corrupt reading in some MSS. of the *Germania* of Tacitus (*barditus* for *baritus*, the 'war-cry') led Klopstock and others to write wild religious and war songs, which they called

[illegible] that they were restored [illegible]

BARD. [illegible] village of Piedmont [illegible] miles [illegible] the French passed the [illegible] offered a [illegible] which [illegible] the [illegible] The French [illegible] the [illegible] the [illegible] and were [illegible] of the [illegible] 3. was [illegible] the French and [illegible]

BARDESANES [illegible] the founder of a [illegible] was born [illegible] in Mesopotamia, and [illegible] towards the end of the 2d c. He [illegible] with the Marcionites. Of [illegible] known regarding him. It is stated that he [illegible] connection with the [illegible] year A.D. 196, [illegible] Abgarus [illegible] in the reign of [illegible] Antonius [illegible]. He was [illegible] Valentinus, who [illegible] heresy to [illegible] Syriac and wrote [illegible] in [illegible] the [illegible] their heresies. [illegible] he [illegible] on [illegible] agreement with [illegible] master. [illegible] was not purely [illegible]. He [illegible] under [illegible] the eternal [illegible] of [illegible] to [illegible] the [illegible] of a temporary [illegible] of matter in [illegible] The [illegible] though [illegible] maintained the [illegible] to be a self-existent [illegible] principle. He [illegible] the doctrine of the [illegible] of the body, and in conformity with [illegible] asserted that Christ's body was not real, but only an illusory image [illegible] from heaven. He [illegible] his opinions [illegible] the medium of hymns, of which he is [illegible] the first writer in Syria. These hymns, [illegible] of which are still extant, exhibit a [illegible] and [illegible] fancy. His followers were called *Bardesanists*. They [illegible] formally separated themselves from the [illegible] church, though they continued to exist as late as the 5th c. See Hahn's *De Gnosticis Syris commentatio Historica et critica* (Lesp. 1819).

BARDOLINO, a town of Northern Italy, with a harbour on Lake Garda, and about 14 miles west from the fortress of Verona. The battle of Rivoli was fought in its vicinity in January 1797.

BAREFOOTED (Lat. *discalceati*, i.e., shoeless), an appellation given to certain monks and nuns who abstain from wearing any covering on the feet, either entirely (as the Alcantarines, who originated at Placentia, in Spain, in 1540, but who are chiefly found at present in the kingdom of Naples), or for a specified period of the year (as the nuns of our Lady of Calvary); or who, instead of shoes, wear merely sandals, i.e., soles of wood, leather, rope, or straw fastened by thongs. They do not constitute a separate order in the Roman Catholic Church, but are to be found as a higher grade of asceticism with more or less severity of observance, among most of the orders, Carmelites, Franciscans, Augustines, Eremites, Capuchins, &c. They are, however, steadily ignored by the more dignified Dominicans, though the latter are themselves mendicant friars. The origin of this form of religious austerity is to be traced generally to the custom which prevailed among the Jews and Romans of putting off their shoes on the occurrence of public calamities, that in this condition of mourning and humiliation they might implore the divine Being for deliverance; but perhaps more particularly to the command which Christ gave his disciples (Matt. x. 10; Luke x. 4).

BARÈGES, a small watering-place in France, situated in the Pyrenees, about 18 miles from Bagneres de Bigorre. The mineral water for which it is celebrated contains principally sulphuret of sodium, with portions of carbonate, muriate, and sulphate of soda, nitrogen, and sulphuretted hydrogen. Its efficacy in the cure of wounds, rheumatism, stiffness of joints, and scrofulous complaints is said to be very remarkable. See Murray's *Hand-Book to France*.

BAREGES, mixed tissues adapted for women's dresses, called in France *Crêpe de Barèges*. The name is derived from the place noticed in the above article; in reality, however, B. were never made in that little watering-place, the seat of the manufacture being at Bagnères de Bigorre. B. are usually a mixture of silk and worsted; an inferior kind being composed of cotton and worsted. They vary in colour, and are sometimes light in tint, with printed patterns. All are of a slight fabric for summer wear. The best are still manufactured in France.

BAREGINE. Many Algæ are found growing in mineral springs, especially those of a sulphurous nature. The product of their growth is a mucus-like substance somewhat resembling the white of an egg. This deposit is particularly abundant in the hot springs at Barèges, whence the name of baregine. It imparts a flesh-broth flavour and odour to the water, which is prized, and is sometimes imitated by adding animal gelatine to the sulphur-baths where B. is deficient.

BAREILLY, the chief city of a district of the same name in Rohilcund, British India—a district which, with an area of 3023 square miles, contains 1872 1,060,801 inhabitants, and which is bounded on the S. by Oude and Nepaul. The city itself, with an estimated population of 105,649 (1872), is in lat. 28° 23' N., and long. 79° 28' E., being 788 miles to the north-west of Calcutta, and 152 miles to the east of Delhi. It is pleasantly situated in a well-wooded country on the left bank of the Jooa, an affluent of the western Ramgunga. Besides a brisk and lucrative commerce, it has considerable manufactures, more particularly in the article of ornamental chairs and tables. B. became a name of notoriety in the great mutiny of 1857. On the 31st of May, the city was a scene of rapine and bloodshed. The native garrison, without any European troops to overawe them, rose against their officers, and seized the public treasure. They murdered every European who had not the means of escaping. But fortunately, from a suspicion of the outbreak, the ladies and children of the Company's servants, both civil and military, had been sent off in safety to Nynee Tal, in the Himalaya. B. was recovered by Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde, in the May of the following year.

BARE POLES. When a ship has all her sails furled, she is said to be 'under bare poles.'

BARÈRE DE VIEUZAC, BERTRAND, a member of the French National Convention, born at Tarbes, 10th September 1755. He became an advocate at the court at Toulouse. After acting as a deputy in the National Assembly, the department of the Hautes-Pyrénées elected him to the National Convention in 1792. He is said to have been naturally in favour of moderate measures, but he was easily overawed by the influence of the party of the Mountain, with whom he generally acted, and whom he supported by his eloquence, which was so flowery and poetical in style that he came to be designated the Anacreon of the guillotine. He

was president of the Convention when the sentence was passed upon Louis XVI. He rejected the appeal to the people, and gave his vote with these words: 'The law is for death, and I am here only as the organ of the law.' His natural mildness warring with the instinct of self-preservation, made him alternately a supporter of merciful measures and an advocate of the guillotine, and his whole public conduct betokens a man much more selfish than patriotic or humane. After the death of Robespierre, in which he had concurred, B. nevertheless proposed the continuation of the Revolutionary Tribunal, for which he was denounced by Lecointre, and afterwards impeached and sentenced to transportation; his sentence, however, was not carried into effect, and he partook of the general amnesty of the 18th Brumaire. He was elected as a deputy to the Chamber in 1815, during the Hundred Days. After the second restoration, he was banished from France, and went to Brussels, where he devoted himself to literary work till the revolution of July permitted his return. In the year 1832, he was once more elected as a deputy by the department of the Hautes-Pyrénées; his election, however, was annulled, on account of errors of form, whereupon the government called him to be a member of the administration of that department, which office he continued to hold till 1840. He died on 14th January 1841. He bestowed upon the younger Carnot his *Mémoires*, which have been published (2 vols., Par. 1842). His many other political and historical writings are now of no importance.

BARETTI, Joseph, an Italian writer, born at Turin, 1716. He was intended for the law, but devoted himself to literature. In 1751, he established himself as a teacher of Italian in London, where, in 1757, he published the *Italian Library*, giving an account of the most eminent Italian authors and their works. He was about this time appointed secretary for the foreign correspondence of the Royal Academy. In 1762, he published an account of his travels through Portugal, Spain, and the south of France to Italy in *Lettere Famigliari*, which, with additions and a new title, were afterwards republished in England. B. now lived some time in Italy, and published at Venice a journal called the *Literary Scourge*, which brought upon him many prosecutions. On his return to England, he published, among other works, an Italian grammar, and an Italian and English dictionary, which have since gone through many editions. One evening, he became involved in a street-brawl in London, and stabbed with his penknife a man, who died soon after. B. was tried for murder, made his own defence, and was acquitted—Dr Johnson, Burke, and Garrick testifying to the excellence of his character. He died in 1789 in London.

BARFLEUR, a seaport town of France, in the department of La Manche, about 15 miles east of Cherbourg. It is now a place of little importance, but it is noteworthy as being the port from whence, according to report, William the Conqueror set out on his invasion of England. In the 13th and 14th centuries, B. was twice pillaged by the English.

BARGAIN AND SALE, in the law of England, is a mode of conveyance whereby property, real and personal, may be assigned or transferred for valuable consideration. It finds a chief place, however, in law-books in connection with the conveyance of real estate. In regard to personal estate, *assignment* (q. v.) appears to be the more appropriate, as it is the more usual term. B. and S., then, may be described as a conveyance, in the way of a real contract, by means of which property in lands and tenements, whether that property be in possession, remainder, or reversion, is conveyed from one person to another. In its terms, it consists of a B. and S. by the seller to the intended vendee for money; and by the statute of frauds, 29 Chas. II. c. 3, it must be in *writing;* and by the statute of enrolments, the 27 Hen. VIII. c. 16, it cannot pass a freehold, unless it be by *indenture enrolled* within six months after its date, or with a *custos rotulorum* of the county. But hereditaments lying within any city or town corporate, the officers of which have authority to make enrolment of deeds, are excepted from this statute. A B. and S. for a term of years, however, will be effectual without enrolment. But see Lease and Release.

No particular form of words is essential to the validity of a B. and S.; 'bargain and sell' are the words of transfer ordinarily used. But other words will have the same effect, and the distinctive character of the conveyance is determined by the consideration on which it is founded. This consideration, however, is held to be a mere matter of form, and sufficiently complied with if the conveyance purport to be so founded. To this end, any trivial sum may be inserted in the conveyance, though the consideration which really passes between the parties be of larger amount; or even though it be, in fact, not of a pecuniary nature. It is also immaterial whether the sum so inserted be actually paid or not.—Stephen's *Commentaries*, vol. i., pp. 535—537. See Custos Rotulorum, Possession of Property, Remainder, Reversion, Indenture, Lease, and Release.

There is no such title to land or other real estate in the Scotch law, but in that system there may be a *bargain* as to land, the evidence of which must be in writing, the Scotch law in this respect agreeing with the regulations of the English statute of frauds above referred to. The term bargain is also used by Scotch lawyers to signify a contract or agreement for the sale of personal or movable property, and to such a bargain the intervention of writing is not necessary, but it may be proved by witnesses.

BARGE, an ancient town of Piedmont, in the province of Saluzzo, 30 miles south-west of Turin. Pop. 9191, who are engaged in the manufacture of firearms and the quarrying of slate. A brisk general trade is also carried on.

BARGE. Various forms of vessel receive this appellation. The Admiralty and city of London

Barge—Royal.

barges, used on ceremonial occasions, are elegantly fitted out, and supplied with accommodation for many rowers. The B. belonging to a man-of-war, for the occasional use of the superior officers, is a well-trimmed, though not showy boat, light enough to be easily hoisted in and out of the ship. On our rivers and canals, a B. is a clumsy, flat-bottomed vessel of burden, employed either in conveying goods from one town or quay to

another, or to aid in bringing stores to and from ships. There are several kinds of this last-named craft—namely, coal-barges, sand-barges, west-country

Barge—Common.

barges, &c. For the chief points of difference between barges and other boats, see BOAT.

BA'RGE-BOARD. Where the roof, in Gothic houses, extends over the wall, the gable is generally furnished with a board, which either covers the

Barge-board.

rafter, or occupies the place of a rafter itself. These barge-boards were often very richly ornamented, particularly in the 14th and 15th centuries. The accompanying illustration is copied from Parker's *Glossary of Architecture*.

BA'RI (ancient *Barium*), a city in the kingdom of Italy, capital of a province of the same name, is situated on a peninsula in the Adriatic, in lat. 41° 8' N., and long. 16° 53' E., and about 140 miles N.N.E. from Naples. Pop. (1872) 50,524. It is strongly fortified, and defended by a massive old castle of Norman origin, nearly a mile in circumference. The city is divided into the old town and the new. The streets, with some few exceptions, are confined and gloomy. B., which is the see of an archbishop, has manufactories of cotton, silk, linen, soap, &c., and carries on an active export-trade in oil, corn, and fruit with Trieste and Dalmatia. Its harbour does not admit of the entrance of large vessels; but its quay and roadstead are good. It has some fine ecclesiastical structures, the most notable of which is the priory of St Nicholas, a noble specimen of the Lombard style of architecture, founded in 1087, and liberally endowed by the brothers Guiscard. Within the walls of this building, Urban II., in 1098, held a council of Greek and Latin bishops, with the view of settling the differences between the two churches; and Roger II. was here crowned king of Sicily. The priory contains some interesting monuments and relics, the most remarkable of which is the tomb of Bona Sforza, queen of Poland, who died in the castle in 1557. B. is one of the cities believed to have been founded by Iapyx, son of Dædalus. Its coins shew it to have been a place of considerable note among the Greeks as early as the 3d c. B.C. The Romans appear to have held it in but little repute; but it rose in esteem when, in the 10th c., it fell into the hands of the Greek emperors, who made it the capital of Apulia, and the residence of a viceroy. It was twice taken in the 11th c. by the Normans, who added to its strength and importance.

BARIGA'ZZO, a village of Modena, province of Lunigiana, remarkable for the streams of fire which issue out of the soil to a height of several feet, and which continue to burn for days without intermission.

BARI'LLA, an impure carbonate of soda, procured from plants which grow in salt-marshes or other places near the sea, and which forms a considerable article of commerce, being used in the manufacture of soap and of glass, and for other purposes in the arts. The greatest quantities of B. are produced in Spain and the Balearic Islands; but the Canary Islands, Italy, and France, also contribute a part. It is procured by burning the plants, much in the same way that sea-weeds are burned upon the coasts of Scotland to procure kelp. The Spanish B. is most esteemed, especially that produced near Alicante, which is chiefly obtained from the *Salsola sativa*, a plant of the natural order *Chenopodiaceæ*. This plant is there cultivated in grounds close by the sea, embanked on the side nearest it, and furnished with floodgates, through which the salt water is occasionally admitted. It is cut in September, dried in small heaps, and then burned in a hole in the ground. The exportation of the seed is prohibited by the Spanish government under the severest penalties. Other species of *Salsola* (Salt-wort), as *S. Tragus* and *S. Kali* (the latter, a common native of the shores of Britain), are also burned for B., although they yield it in smaller quantity than *S. sativa*. B. is made in France from *Salicornia herbacea* or *annua* (Glass-wort), another of the *Chenopodiaceæ*, plentiful also in salt-marshes on the shores of Britain and other parts of Europe. See SALT-WORT.

BA'RING. The firm of Baring Brothers is one of the greatest commercial houses in the world. Its founder was John B., a German, who settled in a small business in Exeter, England, in the first half of the 18th c. Two of his sons, Francis and John, established in London in 1770 the now existing house.

FRANCIS became a director of the East India Company, and being a stanch supporter of Pitt, was created a baronet by that minister in 1793. He took an active part in the discussions relative to the Bank Restriction Act of 1797.

SIR THOMAS B., eldest son of the above, born June 12, 1772, succeeded his father in the baronetcy. He appears to have taken no active part in the business of the firm, being chiefly remarkable as an admirer and encourager of art. His magnificent

…stion of paintings was dispersed by public …r his death in April 1848.

ALEXANDER B., brother of the above. See LORD ASHBURTON.

SIR FRANCIS THORNHILL B., son of Sir Thomas, whom he succeeded, was born in 1790, was educated at Oxford, where in 1817 he took a double first class. He entered parliament as M.P. for Portsmouth in 1826. Under successive Whig governments, he held the offices of a Lord of the Treasury, Secretary to the Treasury, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and First Lord of the Admiralty. He was more noted for his business aptitude than as a politician. He died September 1866.

THOMAS B., brother of the above, born in 1800, devoted himself early to commercial pursuits, and also to politics, taking the opposite side to his brother. He was, however, much more widely …wn as a partner of the firm of B. Brothers than …politician. He died in November 1873

…he firm is engaged to a large extent in the negotiation of national loans, in exchange and money broking, in the produce-trade, home and colonial, in importation and exportation upon their own foreign accounts, &c.

BARITAH (*Barita*), a genus of large Australian birds, placed by some ornithologists in the family of Shrikes (q. v.), (*Laniadæ*), and by others in that of Crows (q. v.), (*Corvidæ*). The bill is large, conical, scarcely curved, the base of it extending remarkably backward on the forehead. The best known species is the Piping Crow, or Piping Grakle, or Jar-ra-warnang of New South Wales (*B. Tibicen*). It preys on small birds, is gregarious, assembling in small flocks, has a melodious voice, is easily tamed, and becomes very familiar and amusing, learns to whistle tunes extremely well, and exhibits a great power of mimicking the voices of other birds.

BARIUM is the metal present in heavy spar (sulphate of baryta) and baryta. Till lately, it was regarded as a white metal, but the recent researches of Dr Matthiessen have demonstrated that it possesses a yellow colour. As yet, the metal B. has not been obtained in mass, but only as a powder. It decomposes water readily at ordinary temperatures, and exposed to the air, quickly combines with oxygen, forming the *oxide of B.* (BaO), or BARYTA. The latter substance is an earth resembling ordinary caustic lime, and may otherwise be prepared by adding finely divided black oxide of copper (CuO) to a solution of sulphuret of B. (BaS), when the sulphuret of copper (CuS) is thrown down, and the baryta (BaO) is left in solution. On evaporation, the water of solution passes off as steam, and leaves the solid earthy-looking substance, baryta. A third mode of preparing baryta is to heat strongly the nitrate of baryta ($BaONO_5$), when the nitric acid (NO_5) flies off, and leaves the baryta (BaO). The *sulphuret of B.* (BaS) is obtained when the sulphate of baryta ($BaOSO_3$) in powder is mixed with finely-pulverised coal, and the whole being placed in a crucible, is raised to a red heat in a furnace. The result is, that 4 atoms of the …on (C) of the coal carry off the 4 atoms of …gen in the sulphate of baryta as carbonic oxide …), whilst the B. united solely with sulphur is … behind as the sulphuret of B. (BaS). The *…ride of B.* is prepared by adding hydrochloric … (HCl) to a solution of the sulphuret of B. … when hydrosulphuric acid (HS) escapes, and …ide of B. remains behind, and on evaporation … liquid, is obtained in crystals.

…RK. See BANQUE.

…RK (*cortex*), in phanerogamous or flowering … the external covering of the stem. It is composed of layers of cellular tissue, whilst the woody stem, to which it forms a sort of sheath, is vascular. In endogenous plants (palms, &c.), there is not, in general, a very marked line of separation between the B. and the vessels or vascular bundles of the stem, so that these plants are generally, but incorrectly, said to have no bark. It is in exogenous plants, and especially in perennial woody stems, that the development of B. is most perfect, and the distinction between wood and B. most marked. The outermost layer of the B. of exogenous plants is the *epidermis* (q. v.), which, however, is in general only to be seen in annual stems, and in the youngest parts of woody stems; peeling off as the stem becomes older along with the outer layers of the true bark. Beneath the epidermis is the true B., of which the outer layer is called the *epiphlœum* (Gr. outer bark), and consists of cells, usually rectangular and flattened, with thick walls. The inner layer of the true B. is called the *mesophlœum* (Gr. middle bark), and is generally formed of a cellular tissue of roundish cells with thin walls. These layers are sometimes very distinctly separated from one another, and sometimes pass gradually into one another; sometimes there is merely a continuous cellular tissue. Within the true B. is a very distinct layer, the inner B., *liber* (Lat.) or *endophlœum* (Gr. inner bark), also frequently called Bast, which is composed of bundles of woody fibre or vascular tissue mixed with cellular tissue. The layer of Cambium (q. v.) is often regarded as belonging to the inner B., but rather belongs to the vascular part of the stem. In the inner B. are sometimes found cells containing a milky juice, as in the *Apocynaceæ*, or vessels for a milky juice, as in the common fig. The combined strength and flexibility of the fibres of the inner B. render it in many cases useful for various purposes. See FIBRE and BAST. In the true B., the peculiar juices and most characteristic substances elaborated by the plant are very generally found, for which reason that part is often of the greatest importance in medicine and the arts. The B. of many trees abounds in *Tannin* (q. v.) or *tannic acid*

The B. of a stem or branch of not more than one year old exhibits only a cellular integument or epidermis with an interior lining of woody fibre—the inner B.; but new layers are added from year to year, the B. as well as the woody stem being increased from the cambium, the mucilaginous layer which is interposed between them, and which particularly abounds in spring, when the separation of the B. from the stem is most easy. The annual layers, however, cannot long be distinctly recognised in the B. as in the wood; and in the older portions of woody stems, the outermost parts of the B. become desiccated and lifeless, and are in general gradually thrown off. On this account, those mosses, lichens, and other plants which attach themselves only to the outermost layer of the B. of trees, and derive their nourishment from it, cannot be regarded as true parasites, as they are in no degree supported by the juices of the stem, but only consume and remove external matter already destitute of life. The B. of some trees is remarkable for the thickness which it acquires, as that of the cork-tree, in which the *epiphlœum* is formed of many layers of cells. The outer parts of thick barks very often crack, to admit of the expansion of the stem within; in the lace-bark tree of the West Indies, the fibres of the inner B. become partially separated as it is distended, forming lozenge-shaped meshes arranged with beautiful regularity.

The connection between the cellular tissue of the B. and that of the pith in the centre of the … continually maintained by means, in

stems, of the medullary rays. See EXOGENOUS PLANTS and PITH. The B. is a protection to the young and tender wood; it appears also to exercise functions analogous to those of the leaves, which, when young, it resembles in its colour, and which are regarded as dilatations of it, so that it has been called the 'universal leaf' of a plant.

BARK, in Medicine, &c. The principal barks used in medicine will be found noticed in separate articles. See ANDIRA (*Cabbage B., Surinam B.*); ANGOSTURA B.; CARIBBEE B. (*Jamaica B., St Lucia B., Piton B.*); CASCARILLA (*Cascarilla B., Eleutheria B.*); CINCHONA (*Cinchona B., Peruvian B., Jesuits' B.*, China, Cascarilla, *Arica B., Calasaya B., Carabaya B., Huamalies B., Huanuco B., Jaen B., Loxa B., Maracaibo B., Ash B., Crown B., Silver B., Yellow B., Tan B.*, &c.); CLOVE B.; COPALCHE B.; CULILAWAN B.; WINTER'S BARK.—When B. is mentioned without any prefix, it is always Cinchona, otherwise called Peruvian or Jesuits' B., which is intended.

The barks used for dyeing, tanning, and other purposes in the arts, being generally named from the trees which produce them, particular references here are unnecessary.

BARK, FOR TANNING. The B. of many trees is capable of being used for tanning (q. v.), but those kinds of B. are preferred which particularly abound in tannic acid. Oak B. is principally used in Britain, and throughout Europe; also in North America, although that of America is obtained from species of oak different from the European; in Spain, the inner layer of the B. of the cork oak, or cork-tree, is employed, and it is to some extent imported into Britain for the use of tanners. The B. of the chestnut is also much esteemed. Larch B. and willow B. are used in preparing some kinds of leather. The B. of the birch and that of the alder are also employed; birch B. being, however, more esteemed for steeping fishermen's nets and cordage, to preserve them from rotting, than for the preparation of leather. Different species of *Acacia* (q. v.) and of *Eucalyptus* (q. v.) furnish barks used for tanning in Australia, some of which have, to a small extent, become articles of commerce.

The *barking* of trees can be accomplished with facility only in spring, when the sap has begun to circulate. The tree being felled, the rough external lifeless parts of the B. are removed as useless, by means of a sharp instrument called a *scraper;* the smaller branches are cut into lengths of about two feet, and their B. is loosened by beating with a mallet, and easily taken off—as boys at the same season make plane-tree whistles; the B. of the trunk and main branches is cut through by a chisel-like instrument, called a *barking-iron*, into similar lengths, each of which is divided longitudinally, and finally stripped off by the aid of mallets, chisels, &c. The B. is sometimes dried in sheds, being placed on narrow shelves or frames in such a way that there may be a very free circulation of air about it; sometimes in the open air, when it is very generally made to rest in a sloping position against trunks of trees placed horizontally at a little distance from the ground, the larger pieces of B. being placed so as to protect the smaller both from sun and rain. Great care is necessary in the drying of B., as it is much spoiled if allowed to get mouldy, and is liable to suffer injury from rain or from the exposure of its inner surface to the sun.—Oak and birch B. are usually about equal in their price, which, however, varies very much, from £4 to £8 per ton. Larch B. is much less valuable; it is also of much greater bulk in proportion to its weight. The B. is a very important source of the revenue derived from many woods and coppices.

BARK BEETLE, or BARK-CHAFER, a common to many of the large family of Coleo ous Insects (q. v.), called by entomologists *Xylop* (Gr. wood-eaters). They are all small, and general of uniform colour; they have hard bodies, a short, often club-shaped antennæ. Most of t family live in wood or other vegetable substanc as mushrooms, dried plants in herbariums, &c., a some of them are extremely injurious to livi trees. Those called B. beetles or bark-chafers bo holes in the bark, and deposit their eggs in inner bark, in which the larvæ excavate paths often causing the death of the tree. One speci particular, sometimes called the common Bark- (*Tomicus typographus*), and sometimes the T rapher Beetle, from the figure of its burrows,

Tomicus typographus.

a, natural size; *b*, insect magnified; *c*, galleries made by the insect.

from time to time appeared in extraordin bers, ravaging the forests of Germany. In caused the death of a million and a half of p the Harz Forest alone. This insect is mentione some of the old German liturgies under the pop name of 'the Turk,' which its dreaded ra obtained for it.

BA'RKAL, or JE'BEL BA'RKAL, a s sandstone rock in Nubia, situated in lat. 18° and long. 31° 46' E., about a mile from the righ of the Nile. It is quite isolated, perpendicular o side facing the river, and very steep on all. It two miles in circumference at the base, and in height, its summit forming a pretty broad p Between it and the river are the remains of magnificent temples, the two principal one known as the Typhonium, and the Great one of the largest monumental ruins of The ancient city of Napata is supposed to situated in the vicinity. The two red gra now in the Egyptian Room of the British were brought from B. in 1832 by Lord P

BA'RKER, EDMUND HENRY, a lish philologist, was born 22d Hollym, in Yorkshire, and studied Besides editions of several Latin c rous contributions to periodicals, *Classical Journal*, he was led,

the famous philologist Parr, to undertake a ion of Stephens's *Thesaurus Linguæ Græcæ*. gigantic work was violently assailed in the *rterly Review* by Blomfield, against whom B. e his *Aristarchus Anti-Blomfieldianus* (Lond.); yet he and his publisher, Valpy of London, ed it on and completed it in a spirited man- (13 vols., 1816–1828). In 1812 appeared the volume of his *Classical Recreations*. He also ded materials for the composition of Sturtz's *xilogicum Gudianum*. He likewise translated works of German philologists, among others, mann's *Greek Grammar for Schools*. He col- d the mass of anecdote and criticism relative his friend Dr Parr, which was published in n, in 1828–1829, under the title of *Parriana*, rk well-nigh unreadable, from the superabund- and ill-digested nature of its matter. He assisted Professor Dunbar in the compilation he Greek and English Lexicon published in . He lost all that he had in a lawsuit about a able inheritance, so that he was obliged to sell ine library, and was put into the debtors' prison. died in London, March 21, 1839, in extreme rty.

A'RKER, JOHN, descended of an English mer- ile family, became, in 1799, agent for the East a Company at Aleppo; in 1826, British consul at xandria; and afterwards consul-general in Egypt. he year 1834, he removed from this situation he lonely but lovely valley of Suedia on the ea. 4 leagues from Antioch, where he employed the cultivation of the choicest fruits of Europe. We are indebted to him for Hanwick Nectarine, the most delicious yet oduced into our gardens. The good terms on h he stood with the people around him and the government, enabled him to render many able services to European travellers. He died xedia on the 5th of October 1850.

A'RKER'S MILL (Fr. *Roue à réaction*, Ger. *er's Wasserrad*), a water-wheel invented by

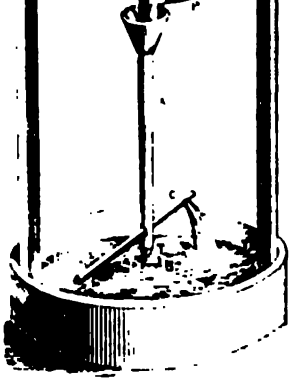


Fig. 1.

Barker towards the end of the 17th c. It is esented in its simplest or typical form in 1. A is a wide metal pipe, resting at its r end by the steel spindle T, on a metal block ad kept in a vertical position by the spindle S, at its upper end, which passes through the frame of the machine, so that it can easily revolve round its axis. Near its lower end, two smaller pipes or arms, C, C, are inserted, which project horizontally from it, and these have each, at the outer extremity, a hole cut vertically in them, opening towards opposite sides. The water is supplied by the pipe P, which opens over a funnel-like widening on the upper part of A, and the quantity is so regulated that while the pipe A is kept nearly full, no more is admitted than issues from the lower orifices. The reaction caused by the water gushing from the arms, forces them backwards, and gives to the whole machine a rotatory motion. This reaction is much the same as is seen in the recoil of a gun when fired, or in the pushing back of a small boat by the foot on stepping ashore. It may be also thus explained: Suppose that the arms were closed all round, the water would press against the sides with a force proportional to the height of the water in the pipe A, and the pressure against any particular surface of the side would produce no motion of the arm, because an equal pressure is exerted in a contrary direction by a corresponding surface opposite to it. Now, if one of these surfaces be cut out, the pressure against the other being uncounteracted, forces the arm in the opposite direction to that of the side in which the hole is made. This being done to both arms on opposite sides, two equal pressures are produced, which conspire in generating the same motion of rotation. As soon as motion ensues, centrifugal force comes into play, which, throwing the water out towards the ends of the arms, increases the rapidity of its discharge, and also its reacting power. When the wheel is in action, the water thus acts under the influence of two forces, one being the pressure of the column in A, and the other the centrifugal force generated by the rotation of the wheel itself. The motion of the wheel is transmitted by the spur-wheel fixed to the spindle S, to the machinery which is to be driven by it, or, in the case of a corn-mill, the spindle passes directly through the lower millstone, and is firmly fixed into the upper one.

The power is manifestly increased by heightening the water-column, or by lengthening the arms—the former increasing the pressure of the water, and the latter increasing the leverage at which this pressure acts. In the mill shewn in the figure, the column in A cannot be advantageously heightened, for the higher it rises, the greater must be the weight which the conical spindle, T, has to sustain, and the greater, consequently, becomes the friction. It is from this circumstance that such mills are found, in practice, to yield but a small mechanical effect the friction consuming too large a proportion of the work of the wheel. Hence, in the reaction-wheels now in use, the original B. M. has been so modified as to allow of the water being conducted from the reservoir below the arms instead of above. This is effected by making the vertical pipe revolve below in a stuffing-box at its junction with the conduit, and above, by a pivot moving in the fixed frame. By this arrangement, the friction attending the rotation is reduced to a minimum, for not only is the weight of the water placed out of account, but also a large proportion of the weight of the wheel itself, which is borne by the upward pressure of the water. The mechanical performance of such wheels is said to be highly satisfactory, producing, with a limited supply of water falling from a considerable height, a useful effect, hardly to be obtained by any other contrivance. The power of these machines may be also

increased by using curved (fig. 2) instead of straight arms. With straight arms, a considerable loss of force is incurred by the sudden change of the direction of the current when it leaves the arm, which does not take place to the same extent with curved arms, where this change is effected gradually. In Whitelaw's Mill (hence called the Scottish turbine), the form of B. M. generally met with in Scotland, there are three instead of two curved arms of this description. Considerable difference of opinion still exists as to the merits of B. M., some considering it as the most perfect way of applying water-power, and others putting it in the same rank as an under-shot wheel, with the same water-supply. Of late years, it has been more extensively employed than formerly, both in this country and on the continent. See WATER-POWER.

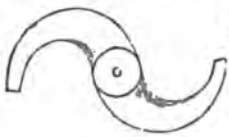


Fig. 2.

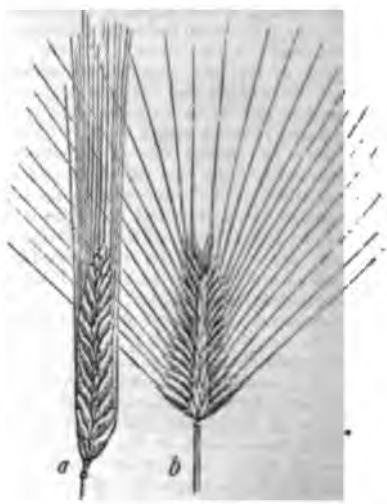
BA'RK-STOVE, in Gardening, a kind of hot-house intended for those plants which require not only the greatest heat, but also a continually moist atmosphere. It derives its name from the use of tanners' bark, for the purpose of producing this atmospheric condition. The bark is placed in a pit, lined and paved with brick, and pots containing tropical plants are sunk in it; by which means the plants not only enjoy a moisture resembling that of their native climates, but the earth around their roots is kept uniformly and moderately heated. The principle of the B. is adopted in pineries, palm-houses, orchid-houses, &c., also in forcing-stoves employed for producing the ordinary fruits and vegetables of temperate climates at unusual seasons. A considerable heat results from the fermentation of tanners' bark, but it is not upon this that its value in the B. chiefly depends.

BA'RLAAM AND JO'SAPHAT, one of the most widely-spread religious romances of the middle ages, relating the conversion of the Indian prince Josaphat by the hermit Barlaam, and thereby illustrating the power of Christianity to overcome temptation, and proving its superiority over all other creeds. The celebrated divine, John Damascene, has been by some erroneously supposed the author of the original Greek MS., while others have attributed it to the church historian Anastasius Bibliothecarius. At all events, it was the production of an eastern, possibly an Ethiopian Christian. The Greek original was first published by M. de Boissonade, in the 4th volume of his *Anecdota* (Paris, 1832), and translated into German by Liebrecht (Münst. 1847). But even in the middle ages, a Latin version of this romance had been extensively circulated. About the end of the 15th c., it was often printed in a detached form, and later, it appeared amongst the works of John Damascene (Paris, 1609). Vincent de Beauvais wove the story into his *Speculum Historiale*. From the Latin version sprung three French poetical versions belonging to the 13th c., and as yet unprinted. The Italian *Storia di S. Barlaam* (latest edition, Rome, 1816) may be traced to a Provençal original as early as the beginning of the 14th c. In Germany, Rudolf von Ems derived his poem, *B. and J.*, first printed at Königsberg (1818), and later at Leipsic, from the Latin of John Damascene. There is also an Augsburg impression of a prose translation of the ancient Latin text, belonging to the close of the 15th c. The Spanish *Historia de B. y J.*, by Juan de Arze Solorzano (Madrid, 1608), the Polish poetical version, by Kulizowsky (Cracow, 1688), as well as the Bohemian (Prague, 1593), are all borrowed from the Latin; while the Icelandic *Barlaams Saga*, and the Swedish popular tale, *B. och J.*, have a German source. A Norwegian version, printed from an old vellum MS. of the beginning of the 13th c., said to have been translated by King Hakon Sverreson, appeared in 1851. This romance has even been rendered into the Tagala language of the Philippines, and there printed (Manilla, 1712).

BAR-LE-DUC, or BAR-SUR-ORNAIN, a town in the department of the Meuse, France. It is situated on the Ornain, about 125 miles east from Paris, with which it is connected by railway, and with the Rhine by canal. Pop. (1872) 14,664, who manufacture cotton and calicoes, and carry on a considerable trade in timber from the Vosges, for the use of Paris, and in iron, wool, and wine. B. has a communal college, normal school, and public library. Its origin dates from the 10th c.

BARLETTA, a fortified seaport of Italy, province of Bari, on the Adriatic. Pop. (1872) 28,163, who carry on a large shipping-trade with Greece, the Ionian Islands, and other ports of the Adriatic. The town is well built, handsome, and clean; has a fine cathedral, a colossal statue supposed to represent the Emperor Heraclius, a college, theatre, and castle, formerly one of the most impregnable fortresses in Italy. A feature of B. is the large and magnificent gateway which leads to its harbour. During the blockade of B. by the French in 1502—1503, which ended in the defeat and death of their commander, the Duke of Nemours, the celebrated combat between eleven cavaliers of France, and as many of Spain, in which the Chevalier Bayard so distinguished himself, took place, and ended in a drawn battle.

BA'RLEY (*Hordeum*), a genus of Grasses, to which belongs one of the most extensively cultivated kinds of grain. The genus is distinguished by



Barley.
a, two-rowed barley; b, sprat or battledore barley.

spiked inflorescence, three spikelets being always situated upon each tooth of the rachis, of which sometimes only the middle one is fertile, and sometimes all the three, so that in the former case the fruit-bearing spike is two-rowed, and in the latter case, six-rowed; the glumes are two, containing a

ret; the palea two, the outer one awned; seed is surrounded by the palea. The species genus are almost all annual, although some of B. are sown in the end of autumn, and ation of them extends over the winter. B. ...ed in the books of Moses and other books ...tament, also by the Greek and Roman ...and has been extensively cultivated from antiquity. Beer made from it was known to ...ks, the Egyptians, and the ancient Germans. ...tivation of it appears to have extended from ...rthwards in Europe, but it is better adapted ...y other grain to the most northern regions, ... its varieties being cultivated with advan... ...ere the climate is too cold, or the summer ...t, for any other cereal crop; and it is deemed ... that its native country is Northern or Asia. It is capable, however, of being ...ed in very warm climates, and extends over ...climatic range than any of the other grains. ...is used for bread in the northern parts ...pe, but in other parts of the world, B. is ...nerally converted into malt for the making ...(see BREWING), or merely deprived of its ... and so used as an article of food. B. ... for brewing is first subjected to the ... of *malting*, by which it is converted into ...(q. v.). B. simply deprived of the husk ...in a mill is called *Pot B.* or *Scotch Barley*. ...he pellicle of the seed is also removed, and ...it itself rounded and polished, it is *Pearl* —What is sometimes called *Patent B.*, is a ...btained by grinding pearl B., and differs from ...in being quite free from a degree of acridity ... latter derives from the integuments of

... doubtful if this grain is produced by ...n one species, or whether what have ...cribed as distinct species by botanists, are ...lly mere varieties, the result of long culti... *H. vulgare* is usually distinguished as the grains disposed in four rows; *H. ...hon*, as having them in six rows; and *H. ...s*, as having the lateral spikelets abortive, and ...ins, therefore, in two rows. But the lower the spike in the varieties ranked under *H.* ... is often six-rowed, and only the upper part ...ved; and in rich soils, a tendency to resume ...rowed form is otherwise manifest. Nor are ...ds known as *Naked Barley*, in which the ...parates readily from the palea, to be looked ... more distinct. The four-rowed or six-rowed ...s are generally coarser, but more productive ...e two-rowed; and some of them, often called ...or BIGG, are regarded as most suitable for ... situations and inferior soils. A kind with ...eeds, called *Siberian B.* (*H. coeleste* of some ..., is extensively cultivated in some parts of ..., and its straw is regarded as affording a ...ood for cattle than that of most other kinds. ...*paul* or *Himalaya B.*, another variety with ... seeds, and further characterised by the ...r manner in which the grains are placed in ...ke, palea three-lobed at the end, and very ...awns—and which is therefore regarded by ...otanists as a distinct species (*H. trifurcatum ...legiceres*)—has been recommended as particu...lapted for cold mountainous regions, yielding ...ops in the Himalaya at an elevation of ...feet above the level of the sea.—Of the two-... B., there are many varieties, of which the ...n or Early English B., the Italian B., and the ...r *B.* are among the most esteemed, the ...eing in particular demand for the brewing of ...st ales. It takes its name from M. Chevalier, ...troduced it.—The *Sprat* or *Battledore B.* (*H. zeocriton* of many botanists) is also two-rowed, but is distinguished by the grains standing out from the spike, their awns spreading very widely. It is sometimes called *German Rice*, as it swells by boiling in the way that rice does, and for some purposes forms a good substitute for it. It is scarcely cultivated in Britain, but is in much esteem in Germany, and succeeds well in the Alps at an elevation of 3360 feet.

Three species of *Hordeum* are natives of Britain, of which one (*H. murinum*), a small grass, is pretty common on waste-grounds, especially in England, and is apt to prove troublesome by its long awns causing inflammation in the mouths of cattle. Still more injurious in this way is the North American *H. jubatum*, or Squirrel's Tail. Another, MEADOW B. or MEADOW B.-GRASS (*H. pratense*), frequent in meadows in England, is reckoned a good pasture-grass. *H. bulbosum*, a native of the south of Europe and north of Africa, is cultivated in Britain for herbage, of which it yields a large quantity, much relished by cattle, and particularly by horses. Several species are natives of North America.

BARLEY, CULTIVATION OF. Barley was cultivated largely by the Romans, as well as many other nations of antiquity. Though sometimes used as food by the soldiers, it was most generally used as food for horses. The ancient inhabitants of Gaul prepared a spirituous liquor, a kind of beer, from it. Many of the other western nations latterly applied it to the same use, and it also became an important article of food. Being a plant which is most productive where the climate is moderately dry and warm, the excessive heats of some parts of Europe are adverse both to the quantity and quality of its grain. It is, however, cultivated to a large extent in some parts of the continent where the soil is specially suited to it, such as in Belgium, Holland, Prussia, and Denmark. Indeed, while most of the countries of Europe send us wheat, it is chiefly Denmark and Silesia that supply us with barley. For this reason, the prices of B. have been relatively higher in this country than those of wheat, since the introduction of free-trade in grain. No country seems to possess a soil and climate so well suited to its growth as many parts of Britain. In former times, this grain was largely used in the British Islands as human food; but this is not the case now, except in some parts of Ireland and, in a stray instance, in the Highlands of Scotland, where the condition of the population has undergone comparatively little amelioration. In Scotland, however, a considerable quantity is made use of in the making of broth. In this case, the grain is denuded of its husk by the friction of revolving millstones, and goes under the name of Pot Barley. But the larger proportion of the B. grown in Great Britain, as well as that which is imported, is employed in the distillation of spirits, and in the manufacture of beer, ale, and porter. The moderate qualities are taken up by the distillers, while the brewers of ale and porter require the finest, which are known by the silvery colour of the husk, and the specific gravity of the grain. Fine malting B., therefore, always commands a ready demand in the London market, as well as a high price. For several years barley has not only grown better than any other grain with the British farmer, but has commanded relatively the best prices.

Perhaps the cultivation of B. occupies as prominent a share of the arable lands of Suffolk and Norfolk as of any other part of Britain. Fine malting qualities are grown on the turnip-soils of these counties, as well as throughout the south-eastern counties, where the four-course rotation is adopted. In this rotation, the B. follows the

turnip-crop, which is usually consumed on the land by sheep. The ground is carefully prepared by ploughings and rollings, to pulverise it thoroughly before the reception of the seed, which is usually sown by a drill machine at the rate of about two bushels to the acre. On the strong lands of Suffolk and Huntingdon, the B.-crop is sown after a summer-fallow or a green-crop, in which case the soil is ploughed before the frosts of winter set in, to render it friable by spring. As soon as the weather permits, after the first week of February, the seed is committed to the ground. A fine mould is in this way obtained, and the crops are usually abundant and of good quality. In the south of England, the grain is allowed to stand till it is fully ripe, when it is either cut with the scythe or most commonly now with the reaping-machine. In some parts, it is not bound up into sheaves, but remains in the swath for a few days, when it is afterwards carted, and stored into barns. A small portion of the B.-crop is still thrashed out by the flail, owing to the maltsters being under the impression that the thrashing-mills injure the germinating powers. The chief varieties grown in England are the Chevalier, the Common, the Early English, and the Norfolk. The first named is the most largely sown, as the quality is superior to any other, and, under liberal treatment, the yield is greater. The produce is more influenced by the seasons than that of wheat, as it is liable to suffer from droughts in the early part of the year. On well-farmed land, from 48 to 60 bushels and upwards are got to the acre. In the peaty soils of the fens of Lincolnshire, B. is not raised, as it is too liable to lodge with the rain; neither is B. a favourite crop in the moist climate of the west of England. It does not endure the rains so well as wheat, nor do so well on highly farmed land. In Wales and Lancashire, it is generally grown after a crop of wheat, and the cultivation and management are not so careful as in the east.

Barley has long been grown in Scotland, and comes to great perfection where the soil and climate are suitable. The level parts of the Lothians and other counties in the east of Scotland, with Moray, Inverness, and Ross in the north, are the districts in which the finest crops are raised. In these rich districts, B. is commonly sown after a portion of the turnip-break. For this reason, it does not occupy so large a proportional breadth as it does under the Norfolk four-course. The produce is equally abundant, however, and the quality of the grain is often not inferior. Chevalier is the favourite variety there also. The crop, when ripe, is cut by sickle, scythe, or reaping-machine; bound up at once, and put into stooks, to defend it from the weather till ready to cart, and to be built up in neat round stacks. The grain is invariably thrashed out by machinery. In the higher districts of Scotland, where the soil and climate are not so good, the inferiority of the grain, unless in an especially favourable year, both in quality and quantity, is considerable. It is only in fine seasons that the quality is such as to render it an object to maltsters, and in wet, cold unsuitable seasons, distillers can only make use of it at a reduced price. The Chevalier variety is a little late for inferior climates, and the Early English and other kinds that come sooner to maturity are often preferred. In Berwickshire, Aberdeenshire, Banffshire, Kincardineshire, and Forfarshire, the five-course rotation—of two years' grass, oats, turnips, and B.—is more generally adopted than in some other counties in Scotland, and a large quantity of this grain is raised, but the quality is generally inferior to that of the crops in East Lothian. Along the light soils fringing the Moray and Cromarty firths, a quality of grain is got as in East Lothian. shire barley has long been famous for sample, and is in great demand with brewers. On the other hand, in the la climate of the western counties, and upper parts of Aberdeenshire, Banffshire, shire, less B. is sown, and oats frequently green-crops. In these parts the variety bear, or bigg, was for many a day preferred other, as it is not so liable to lodge, and stands wet weather far better, and comes maturity. Bear, too, is the variety wh vated by many of the small cotters in lands and islands. Instead of a rotation green-crops find a place to husband and natural resources of the soil, a succession crops are taken, with an occasional rest soil, and then a resumption of the croppi

As to the manuring of the crop, on soils of the south of England, the land by the droppings of the sheep. In the of Norfolk and Huntingdon, guano, rape other manures abounding in nitrogen, a when the seed is sown. In the west of the moist climate renders the application o more precarious, and B. is frequently taken crop of wheat without any application of ferti When the turnip-crop is drawn from the land often is in Scotland, guano is the manure held most estimation; the quantity applied is to 4 cwt. per acre. In Berwickshire and shire, as in Norfolk, the prevalence of course shift, and the practice of eating the ground, secure a sufficiently liberal a other parts, where B. is taken after yard manure is often applied, as well as phosphoric manures. In some northern the root-crops are laid down with artificial and the roots carted off, farm-yard manure on the land and ploughed in with the seed Barley requires a fine tilth and soil in rich condition. The earlier it is sown in the more liberal ought to be the application of genous manures. The later it is sown, containing nitrogen should be used more spar and a portion of phosphoric manures substi in their stead.

BARLEY-BREAK, a popular amusement common in the reign of James I., and, with modifications, in name and practice still among young persons, both in England and land. Originally, it was played by people of each sex, who were formed into couples of ground was then apportioned and into the centre one, called doomed by lot. The sport consisted in the condemned part 'catching' one couples while they were in the act places, when the couple caught had to centre. It was, however, no easy matter in the centre to capture another couple, rules of the game, they were bound to k while the others, when hard pressed Thus, Sir Philip Sidney, in describi says:

> Soon as the middle two
> Do, *coupled*, towards either couple make,
> They false and fearful do their hands undo.

When the whole had been caught, the ended, and the last couple taken was sai hell. Their punishment appears to have in kissing each other. Herrick says, in re the game:

> If kissing be of pleasure the worst,
> We 'll wish in hell we had been last and first.

In Scotland, the game consisted in one person chasing the rest round the stacks in a farmyard; and when one was caught, he or she had to assist in capturing the rest. The origin of the name is doubtful. Dr Jamieson suggests that, in Scotland, the locality of the game may have given it its name—'barla-bracks, about the stacks.' The same authority also adds: 'Perhaps from *barley* and *break*, q., breaking of the *parley*, because after a certain time allowed for settling preliminaries, on a cry being given, it is the business of one to catch as many prisoners as he can.' This supposition is not improbable. In the modern games of 'Shepherds a-warning,' and 'Tig,' which appear to have been derived from B., 'a barley' means a *parley*.

BA'RLEYCORN, John, a personification of the spirit of barley, or malt-liquor, used jocularly, and also in humorous poetical effusions. There exists a whimsical English tract of old date, under the title of *The Arraigning and Indicting of Sir John Barleycorn, Knt., printed for Timothy Tosspot*, in which Sir John is described as of 'noble blood, well beloved in England, a great support of the crown, and a maintainer of both rich and poor.' See Hone's *Every-day Book*, vol. i.

BARLEY-SUGAR, a confection prepared with sugar and a decoction of barley. See Sugar.

BA'RLOW, Joel, an American poet and politician, born in 1755 at Reading in Connecticut. He studied at Yale College in Newhaven. He was intended for the profession of the law, but served as a military chaplain during the War of Independence. In 1787 he published a poem called *The Vision of Columbus*, which in 1805 appeared anew in an enlarged form as *The Columbiad*. It abounds in beautiful passages, but is overburdened with political and philosophical disquisitions, and disfigured by singularities of expression. B. accepted a commission in 1788 to prosecute the sale of lands for the Ohio Company in England and France, where he signalised himself by zealous republicanism; published in 1792 in London a poem entitled *The Conspiracy of Kings*, and endeavoured also to work upon the public mind in England by political pamphlets. In autumn 1792 he was deputed by the London reformers, with whom he was associated, to proceed to Paris, where he received the rights of French citizenship. He spent some years on the continent of Europe in political, literary, and mercantile pursuits, and was for a short time American consul at Algiers. He returned to America in 1805, and was appointed ambassador to France in 1811. He died in October 1812 at Zarnawicze, near Cracow, when on his way to a conference with the Emperor Napoleon at Wilna.

BARM. See Yeast.

BA'RMECIDES, or **BA'RMEKIDES**, a Persian family, distinguished amongst the most powerful in the province of Khorasan, the cradle of the greatness of the Abbaside califs, whose cause the *children of Barmek* espoused. *Khaled-ben-Barmek*, the first of these whose authentic history has reached us, was the prime-minister of Abul Abbas Al-Saffah, the first Abbaside calif; and his influence enduring through the reigns of Al-Mansur and Mohdi, the latter intrusted him with the education of his son, the celebrated Harun Al-Raschid. Yahya, the son of Khaled—according to eastern historians, equally conspicuous for virtue and talent—was made vizier by Harun upon his accession to the califate (786 A. D.), and both by his military skill and civil administration, contributed largely to the prosperity of the reign—the calif himself bestowing on him the appellation of Father. Harun, however, afterwards becoming jealous of the growing power and popularity of two of Yahya's sons, Fadhl and Jafar (the Giafar of the *Arabian Nights*), had them executed, and the whole of the B. throughout the kingdom arrested, and their goods confiscated. Harun even carried his enmity so far as to forbid the mention of their name on pain of death; but their virtues and their glory are celebrated by almost all Mohammedan poets and historians.

BA'RMECIDE'S FEAST, a phrase originating most probably in the story of the barber's sixth brother, recorded in the *Arabian Nights*, and abridged in the *Guardian*, No. 162. The substance of the story is as follows: One Schacabac being in great want, and not having tasted food for two days, ventured to visit a rich Barmecide (see Barmecides) noted both for his hospitality and eccentric humour, in the hope of generous entertainment. The Barmecide, on learning his condition, invited him to dinner. Schacabac was presented with an empty plate, requested to 'make himself at home,' and by and by, asked 'how he liked his rice-soup.' It was apparently a cruel jest to play off on a starving man. Schacabac, nevertheless, feigned to enter into the humour of his host, and expressed his conviction that the rice-soup was delicious. The Barmecide continuing the imposition, next asked his victim if he ever saw whiter bread. Poor Schacabac, who saw neither bread nor meat, nor indeed anything eatable, made a prodigious effort to look happy; he even went the length of gently remonstrating with his host for not supposing him completely satisfied. In this way a magnificent but fictitious dinner was disposed of. When wine, however, was produced, Schacabac pretended only to taste it on the ground that he was 'quarrelsome in his liquor,' and might do his host an injury. The Barmecide forced him, however, and at last Schacabac, who was really in a most excusable rage at being so elaborately tantalised, feigned to have got flustered, and gave the eccentric old gentleman 'a good box on the ear.' This put a stop to the joke. The Barmecide was mightily pleased with the patient humour of his guest, a visible dinner was immediately ordered up, and Schacabac now enjoyed in reality what he had previously partaken of only in imagination.

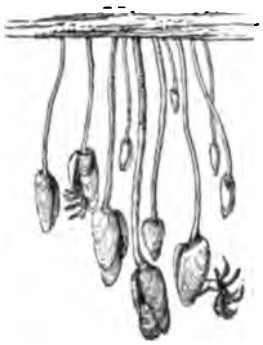
BARMEN, a most charming valley, about two leagues in length, on the Wupper, about two leagues from Elberfeld, in the province of Rhenish Prussia. It is divided into Upper and Lower B., and contains five towns or villages, which united form the town of B., with (1871) 74,496 inhabitants, chiefly Protestants. Nowhere in Germany is so much manufacturing industry accumulated in a single spot. B. is the principal seat of the ribbon-manufacture on the continent. Its fabrics go to all parts of the world. It produces linen, woollen, cotton, silk and half-silk ribbons of every quality, and all sorts of stay-laces, &c. It has also considerable manufactures of woven lace, sewing-thread, the coarse cotton cloth called *Siamoise*, &c. There are, besides, in the valley, numerous bleachfields and dye-works. Lower B. has a mineral spring and a bathing establishment.

BA'RNABAS, St, properly **Joses**, mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles as a fellow-labourer of Paul, and even honoured with the title of apostle. He is also supposed to have founded the first Christian community at Antioch. According to tradition, he became the first Bishop of Milan, but he is differently reported to have died a natural death, and to have suffered martyrdom at the hands of the Cypriot Jews, 61 A. D. The Epistle ascribed to him is of very doubtful authenticity.

BA'RNABAS, St, Epistle of. This Epistle contains twenty-one chapters. Its aim is obviously to strengthen the faith of believers in a purely spiritual Christianity. It commences by declaring that legal sacrifices are abolished, and then proceeds to shew, though not in a very coherent or logical manner, how variously Christ was foretold in the Old Testament. In the tenth chapter, it spiritually allegorises the commands of Moses concerning clean and unclean beasts; in the fifteenth, it explains the 'true meaning' of the Sabbath; and in the sixteenth, what the Temple really prefigured. This concludes what may be termed the doctrinal portion of the Epistle; the remainder, which is of a practical character, describes the two ways of life—the way of Light and the way of Darkness, and closes with an exhortation that those who read it may so live that they may be blessed to all eternity. It is a simple, pious, and earnest work; but makes a far more judicious use of the New Testament than of the Old.

BA'RNABITES, an order of monks which sprung up at Milan in 1530. They were so called because the church of St Barnabas in that city was granted them to preach in. They were approved of by Pope Clement VII. and Pope Paul III. Their special duties were, to attend the sick, to preach, to instruct the young, and to take the charge of souls. They soon established themselves in Italy, France, Austria, and Spain, and enjoyed the privilege of teaching theology in the schools of Milan and Pavia. Many eminent men have been sent forth by them. Besides the three usual monastic vows, they took a fourth, viz., not to sue for church preferments. In France and Austria, they were employed in the conversion of Protestants; but they have now, as a body, almost fallen into oblivion. Only a few monasteries exist here and there in France and Italy.

BA'RNACLE, or BE'RNICLE (*Lepas*, also called *Anatifa* and *Pentalasmis*), a kind of shell-fish, a genus of *Cirrhopoda* (q. v.), the type of a family of articulate animals distinguished by a long flexible stalk or peduncle, which is provided with muscles, upon the summit of which, in the true barnacles, are shelly valves, five in number, enclosing the principal organs of the animal, and opening and closing on one side like the opercular valves of *Balanus* (q. v.), to admit of its spreading out and retracting its net—an apparatus similar to that by which the animals of that genus obtain their food. Barnacles abound in almost all seas, attaching themselves in great numbers to logs of wood, ships' bottoms, &c. They grow very rapidly. Some of the

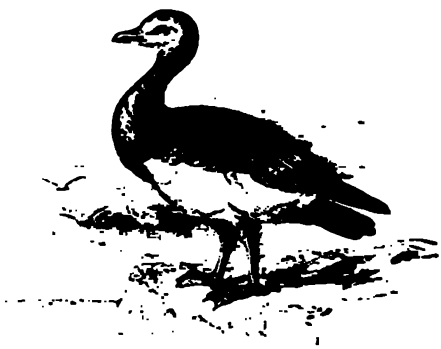


Barnacle.

species are eaten in some parts of the world, and perhaps they were among the *lubani* which the ancient Romans esteemed a delicacy.—In some circumstances, very nearly allied to the true barnacles, and resembling them in general form, the shelly valves almost entirely disappear.

In former times, the B. was supposed to be the embryo of a goose or bird of some kind; a notion which doubtless arose from a fancied resemblance between the convolutions of the fish in its shell and the embryo of a bird in the egg. It was, therefore, believed that the barnacle goose, described in next article, sprung from these marine shells. Hollinshed gravely affirms that such was the case; and the most learned men of their time were weak enough to give credence to the absurdity. Gerard, in his *Herbal* (1597), declares, that after 'a thing in form like a lace of silke finely woven, as it were, together'—which he correctly enough states to be 'the first thing that appeareth' when 'the shell gapeth open'—there next follow 'the legs of the bird hanging out;' and at last the bird, increasing in size, 'hangeth only by the bill,' and 'in short space after it cometh to full maturity, and falleth into the sea, where it gathereth feathers and groweth to a fowl bigger than a mallard, and lesser than a goose,' &c. All this was represented as constantly taking place on the coast of Lancashire and the Hebrides, and continental writers of greater name reported in like manner the same fable, against which Ray and other early naturalists were obliged seriously to argue. The B., however, really undergoes transformations not less wonderful than the fabled ones, which have rendered it an object of so much interest. See Cirrhopoda.

BA'RNACLE GOOSE, or BE'RNICLE GOOSE, often also called Barnacle, or Bernicle (*Anser*



Barnacle Goose.

Bernicla or *leucopsis*), the bird which the fables of former days represented as deriving its origin from the cirrhopod of which it bears the name. It is in size smaller than the common wild goose, being only a little more than 2 feet long, and about 5 lbs. in weight. It is very prettily marked, having the forehead, cheeks, and throat white, the bill black, and a black stripe extending from it to the eye; the crown of the head, neck, and upper part of the breast black; the rest of the plumage on the upper parts of the body chiefly ash-gray and black, in undulating bars—on the lower parts, white. It is a common winter visitant of the western coasts of Britain and of Ireland, but in the eastern parts of Britain it is rare. It retires in spring to more northern regions, where it breeds, vast numbers passing northward along the coast of Norway to the Arctic Ocean. It is highly esteemed for the table.

The Brent Goose, or Brent Barnacle (*Anser Brenta* or *torquatus*, *A. Bernicla* of some naturalists), has frequently received the name of the B. G., and no

little confusion has existed concerning them in books of science, although the birds are sufficiently distinct. The Brent Goose is smaller than the B. G., being only about 21 inches in length. It is also of much darker plumage, the whole head, throat, and neck being black, except a small patch on each side of the neck, which is white, mixed with a few regularly placed black feathers; the upper parts of the body generally almost black, and the lower parts slate-gray, except the vent and under tail-coverts, which are white. It is remarkable for length of wing and powerful flight, and for its distant migrations. It is very common in winter on the British shores, but breeds in high northern latitudes. It is a winter-bird of passage in the United States and Canada, as in Britain and on the continent of Europe. It is excellent for the table.

Very nearly allied to these species is the Red-breasted Goose, or Red-breasted Barnacle (*Anser ruficollis*), a beautiful bird, of which the neck and upper part of the breast are of a rich chestnut red. In size, it resembles the Brent Goose; it is a very rare visitant of Britain and of the continent of Europe, and is abundant only in the extreme north of Asia.—Another species, called Hutchins' Goose or Barnacle (*A. Hutchinsii*), of dark plumage, and with a triangular patch of white on each side of the head and neck, is abundant in Hudson's Bay, and the extreme north of America.

These species are regarded by some naturalists as constituting a genus *Bernicla*, distinguished chiefly by a shorter and more slender bill from the ordinary or true geese.

The Egyptian Goose or Bargander (*Anser Egyptiacus*) is sometimes ranked with these, sometimes made the type of a distinct genus, *Chenalopex*, upon account of the longer bill, a short spur with which the bend of the wing is armed, and the anatomical peculiarity of a hollow bony enlargement at the bottom of the trachea of the male. It has long been kept in parks and pleasure-grounds in Britain, chiefly on account of the beauty of its plumage, and has become partially naturalised. It is a little smaller than a common goose; its voice more resembles that of a wild-duck. The prevailing colour of the plumage is light chestnut brown, minutely rayed with darker lines; the neck and part of the wings are white. Large chestnut patches surround the eyes. It is very abundant on the Nile, and is frequently figured in Egyptian sculptures. It is much esteemed for the table, and was kept and fattened for it by the ancient Egyptians. It is the *Chenalopex* of Herodotus.

BA'RNACLES, in Heraldry, resembling what are now called twitchers, were instruments used by farriers to curb and command unruly horses. B. are frequently introduced into coats of arms as a charge.—The term BARNACLES, applied to spectacles, is derived from *beryllus*, a transparent stone; dim. *berylliculu*, *berynicula*, *bernicula*. Old Fr. has *bésicle*; the dialect of Berri, *besiques*. Twitchers resembled the original spectacles that clasped the nose.

BA'RNARD CA'STLE, an inland town in the south of Durham county, on the right bank of the Tees, about 40 miles from its mouth, and 26 miles south-west of Durham. It stands on the slope of an eminence rising from the river. Its chief manufactures are hats, carpets, shoemakers' thread, leather, plaids, and stockings. It has one of the largest corn-markets in the north of England. On a rocky height over the river are the ruins (covering 6½ acres) of a castle, founded about 1180 by Barnard, son of Guy Baliol, a follower of the Conqueror, and ancestor of John Baliol, king of Scotland, who was born in the castle, and founded an hospital for the poor in the town. B. C. is the scene of part of Sir W. Scott's poem of *Rokeby*. Pop. (1871) 4306.

BARNAU'L, a town of West Siberia, in the government of Tomsk. It is situated at the junction of the Barnaul with the river Oby, and has a population of (1867) 12,928, who are chiefly engaged in the mining and smelting of the metals found in the vicinity, which consist of silver, lead, and copper. B. has 120 furnaces at work, is the seat of a mining board, and has a magnetic and meteorological observatory.

BARNAVE, ANTOINE-PIERRE-JOSEPH-MARIE, a distinguished character and victim of the French Revolution, was born at Grenoble in 1761, was the son of an advocate, adopted his father's profession, and early attracted attention in the parliament of Grenoble by the talents which he displayed. A pamphlet which he published against the feudal system led to his being returned as deputy from his province to the States-general in 1789. He zealously advocated the proclamation of the Rights of Man, was vehement in opposition to the Absolute Veto, carried through the confiscation of church-property to the use of the nation, the emancipation of the Jews, and the abolition of the religious orders, and was mainly instrumental in the liberation of the slaves and reorganisation of the colonies. As a leader of the extreme party in the earlier stages of the revolution, he became the idol of the people, and particularly after his victory over Mirabeau, in the question of the power of peace and war, which Mirabeau wished to remain with the king, and B. successfully claimed for the National Assembly. He subsequently, however, became inclined to a more moderate course; the consequences of the sudden changes in the colonies appear first to have alarmed him; and being sent, along with Latour-Maubourg and Pétion, to bring back the king after his flight, he was much moved by the spectacle of the misfortunes of the royal family, and thenceforth endeavoured to render them all the assistance in his power. He defended, in a speech of great vehemence, the inviolability of the king's person, and resisted the assertion by the Assembly of power to remove ministers. His general opposition to the increasing violence of the revolutionary torrent, and this last step in particular, destroyed his popularity; he was regarded as a renegade from the national party, and was assailed by the fierce vituperations of the daily press. He retired to his native place on the dissolution of the National Assembly; but after the 10th of August 1792, he was impeached, along with Lameth and Duport-Dutertre, on account of correspondence with the court; was brought to Paris, tried before the Revolutionary Tribunal, condemned, and guillotined on the 29th of November 1793.

BA'RNET, CHIPPING, a town in the south of Hertfordshire, on a hill-top, 11 m. north-north-west of London. Pop. (1871) 3720. It was formerly a great thoroughfare, but since the advent of railways, its once bustling appearance is sadly altered. Here, in 1471, was fought the famous battle of B. between the Yorkists and Lancastrians, in which the latter, after a desperate struggle, were routed, and their leader, Warwick, 'the king-maker,' killed, by which event Edward IV. was firmly established on the throne. A commemorative obelisk is now erected near the spot.

BA'RNEVELDT, JAN VAN OLDEN, Grand Pensionary of Holland, born 1549, early shewed great ardour in the cause of the independence of his country. As advocate-general of the province of Holland, he proved equally his insight into affairs and

his address in diplomatic management. Penetrating the secret designs of Prince Maurice (q. v.) of Orange, he became the head of the republican party, which aimed at subordinating the stadtholder to the legislature. It was he also who opposed the warlike tendencies of Maurice, concluded (1609) a truce with Spain, and prevented the States-general from taking part in the revolt of the Bohemians. His increasing influence excited the House of Nassau to still greater jealousy, which in the religious controversies between the Remonstrants (q. v.) and Gomarists degenerated into the bitterest hostility. With the view of obviating a civil war, B. proposed an ecclesiastical assembly, which resulted in agreeing to a general toleration in respect of the disputed points. The states at first concurred in this wise measure; but the intrigues of the Orange party brought about a change of views, by representing the Remonstrants as secret friends of Spain. B., who sympathised with the more tolerant principles of that party, was attacked in scurrilous publications, and was insulted even in the meeting of the states by the mob, with whom Maurice was an idol. The strife between the Remonstrants and Gomarists became hotter every day, and threatened to end in civil war. In the meantime, Maurice procured the summoning (1618) of the Synod of Dort (q. v.), which condemned the Remonstrants with the utmost rigour and injustice. This decision encouraged Maurice to proceed to the most violent measures. Regardless of the opposition of the states, he arrested B. and other chiefs of the Remonstrants, and got 26 venal judges to condemn as a traitor the innocent man to whom his country owed its political existence. It was in vain that his friends and relations raised their voice; equally vain was the interference of the Dowager Princess of Orange and of the French ambassador; Maurice was not to be moved. On May 13, 1619, the venerable man of 72 years of age mounted the scaffold, and laid down his head with the same firmness that he had shewn through all the events of his life. His sons, Wilhelm and René, were at the same time dismissed from office. Wilhelm and the Remonstrants formed a conspiracy against the life of the prince; but it was discovered, and Wilhelm escaped to Antwerp. His brother René was seized in his stead, and condemned to death, although he had dissuaded Wilhelm from his attempt. The mother, who had not sued in the case of her husband, because he was innocent, now, when there was blame, interceded with the prince for the life of her son; but in vain; he, too, was executed, 1623.—See Motley's *Life of B.* (2 vols. Lond. 1874).

BARNSLEY, a town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, 39 miles south-west of York, on the river Dearne and the Dearne and B. Canal. It is situated on a hill, has coal and iron mines, linen manufactures, bleaching and dye works, iron foundries, wire-works, and glass-works. The damasks and drills, and the iron-wire made here are said to be unrivalled. Much of the flax spun in Leeds is woven at Barnsley. An explosion in Oak Colliery in 1847 killed 72 persons. Pop. (1871) 23,021.

BARNSTAPLE, a town in north-west Devonshire, on the right bank of the Taw, 6 miles from its mouth, and 34 north-west of Exeter. Being the chief city of north Devon, and occupying a fine healthy situation, it is the residence of many respectable families. The Taw is here crossed by an ancient bridge of 16 arches, which has been widened by iron-work on each side. In consequence of the river and harbour having become filled up with sand, unfitting them for large ships, much of the trade of B. has been transferred to Bideford. It has manufactures of pottery and lace. It sends two members to parliament. B. has existed since the reign of Athelstan, who built a castle here. The poet Gay was born near the town, and educated at its grammar-school. Pop. (1871) 11,790.

BAROCHE, Pierre-Jules, an eminent French politician, was born at Paris on the 8th November 1802. He passed as an advocate in 1823, and distinguished himself by his talents as a pleader. In 1847, he was sent to the Chamber of Deputies as representative of Rochefort, took his position among the moderate reform party, and was one of those who signed the accusation drawn up against the Guizot ministry. During the republic, he voted at first along with the democratic party, but subsequently supported General Cavaignac, and, after the 10th December, the politics of Louis Napoleon. B. was now made Procureur-général of the Republic at the Paris appeal court, in which function he played a conspicuous part. In March 1850, he succeeded Ferdinand Barrot as Minister of the Interior, after which he became a decided Bonapartist, and carried through several restrictive measures, both commercial and political. In April 1851, he was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, with Leon Faucher as colleague. After the *coup d'état* of the 2d December 1851, B. accepted the vice-presidency of the Consultative Commission, and was authorised to make known officially the result of the *plebiscitum*. From that period, B. stood high in favour with the emperor, and in 1855 received the grand cross of the Legion of Honour.

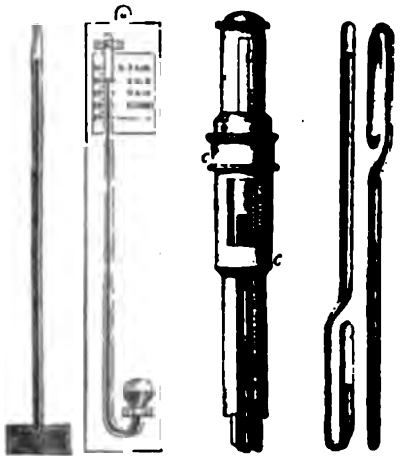
BARO'DA, a city of Guzerat, in lat. 22° 16′ N., and long. 73° 14′ E. It is 40 miles from Tunkaria, on the Gulf of Cambay, 81 to the north-north-east of Surat, and 231 north of Bombay. It stands on the Biswamintri, which is here crossed by a stone-bridge of singular construction—an upper range of arches resting on a lower one. B. is the residence of the Guicowar, a protected Mahratta prince. Pop. about 150,000; trade considerable. It occupies an important position between the coast and the interior. Some years ago, the Guicowar contemplated the construction of a railway to Tunkaria; and at last English capital is accomplishing a far longer line, which, as its name implies, will connect B. with Bombay in the one direction, and with Central India on the other.

BARO'METER (Gr. *baros*, weight; *metron*, a measure), an instrument for measuring the weight or pressure of the atmosphere. The term is generally understood to refer to one in which the measure is the height of a column of liquid sustained by atmospheric pressure. The fundamental principle of the construction of the B. is best shewn in the experiment which led Torricelli to the first discovery of the pressure of the air. A glass tube, about 33 inches in length, open at one end, is completely filled with mercury, and, being firmly closed by the thumb, is inverted and placed vertically in a cup containing mercury. When the thumb is removed, the mercury sinks in the tube till it stands, generally, about 30 inches above the level of the mercury in the cup, leaving in the upper part a space free of air, which receives the name of the Torricellian vacuum (fig. 1). The mercury within the tube being thus removed from the pressure of the air, while that in the cup is exposed to it, the column falls, till the pressure at the section of the whole, in the same plane as the surface of the mercury in the cup, is the same within and without the tube. A similar experiment is seen when, in a U-shaped tube, having one branch much wider than the other, a column of mercury in the narrow branch balances a column of water nearly 14 times as high in the other. In the Torricellian experiment, the

air and the space occupied by it taking the
the wide water branch of the U-shaped tube,
glass tube and mercury forming the narrow
as before; the narrow branch, however, in
being closed above, to prevent the air from
it were, both branches. In both cases, the
f the columns are inversely as the specific
of the liquids of which they consist; and as
out 10,000 times lighter than mercury, we
ave the aërial column 10,000 times 30 inches
It will be found, under ATMOSPHERE, that
the air lessening in density as it ascends, the
is considerably greater. Any changes that
place in the height or density of the aërial
n will be met by corresponding changes in the
of the mercurial column, so that as the latter
or falls, the former increases or diminishes.
ave, then, in this simple tube, an infallible
of the varying amount of atmospheric pres-
nd, in fact, a perfect barometer. The changes,
er, are indicated on a scale at least 10,000
diminished, so that the variations in the tube
very considerable changes in the weight of the
phere. If water be used instead of mercury,
star column would be 14, or, more correctly,
s as high as the mercurial column, or about
; and the scale on which the changes take
would be correspondingly magnified, so that a
B. should be much more delicate than a mer-
one. Water is, however, exposed to this
objection, that its vapour rises into the empty
above, and causes by its elasticity a depression
column, the depressions being different for
temperatures. At zero, Fahrenheit, for
the depression thus arising would be $\frac{1}{8}$ an
at 77°, more than 1 foot. It would be
wise, at the time of any observation,
ce referred to was filled with vapour
corresponding to the observed exter-
mperature or not, so that the necessary correc-
uld not with certainty be made. The vapour of
ry, on the other hand, at 77° F.—a temperature
erably above the average—produces in the B. a
n of only $\frac{1}{12\frac{1}{2}0}$ of an inch, an amount prac-
mappreciable. After 200 years of experience
avention, we have yet no better index of the
of the atmosphere than the simple mercurial
of Torricelli, and in all exact observations it
as the only reliable standard.

le as the B. is, its construction demands
erable care and experience. It is of the first
tance that the mercury to be used is chemically
otherwise its fluidity is impaired, and the inside
tube becomes coated with impurities in such
as to render correct observation impossible.
ry as usually sold, is not pure; and before being
yed for barometers, must be shaken well with
dilute but pure nitric acid, to remove extra-
metals and oxides. The same object is effected
thoroughly by keeping it several weeks in
ct with the dilute acid, stirring every now
n. After either process, the metal must be
ghly washed with distilled water, and dried.
ing the tube, it is essentially necessary to get
olumn free from air and moisture. To effect
the mercury, after filling, is boiled in the tube,
t air and moisture may be expelled, partly by
eat, and partly by the vapour of the mercury.
process demands great experience and skill,
e same end may be more easily and as effectu-
attained by boiling the mercury, in the first
ce, in an atmosphere of carbonic acid, and then
ng it into the previously heated tube by a filler
ing to the bottom of it. Such care is only
ded on the best instruments; ordinary weather-
s, not needing to be quite accurate, are more
simply filled. Notwithstanding all these precautions, minute bubbles of air manage to keep secreted, and creep up in the course of time into the Torricellian vacuum. To obviate this risk of error, an air-trap is recommended by which any air that may accidentally find its way into the tube is arrested in its ascent to the top, and the instrument sustains no damage from the accident.

Barometers are usually divided into two classes—cistern barometers, and siphon barometers. The simplest form of the cistern B. is that shewn in fig. 1, which only requires to be set properly in a frame, and provided with a scale, to make it complete. Fig. 2 presents another form of that class, being that generally seen in weather-glasses or



Figs. 1, 2, 4, 6, 7.

ordinary barometers. The tube is bent at the bottom, and the cistern is merely an expansion of the lower end. Very generally, the cistern is hidden from view, and protected from injury by a wooden cover in front. There are two causes of inaccuracy in cistern barometers—one being the capillarity, which tends to lower the column; and the other being the difference of level in the cistern caused by the fluctuations in the tube, which renders the readings on the fixed scale above at one time too great, and at another too small, according as this level rises above or falls below the original level from which the scale was measured. The effect of capillarity may be avoided by using tubes of more than half an inch in bore, in which the depression becomes so small, that it may be left out of account; and in smaller tubes it may be estimated from tables constructed for the purpose. Wide tubes have the additional advantage, that atmospheric changes are seen earlier in them than in narrow tubes, there being less friction in the former than in the latter. It is worthy of notice, that the capillary depression is less in boiled than in unboiled tubes, in consequence of the admixture of a minute quantity of the oxide of mercury, formed in the process of boiling, which lessens the repulsion between the mercury and glass. With reference to the error of level, it must be borne in mind that the height of the column sustained by the atmosphere is always to be reckoned from the lower level. This error becomes all the less the larger the capacity of the cistern is compared with that of the tube, for then a very considerable rise or fall in the tube, when spread over the surface of the cistern, makes only a slight difference of level in it.

Care must be taken, then, in ordinary barometers, to make the cistern as large as possible. The only B. in which the error of level is completely obviated, is that invented by Fortin, which, from its being in every respect the most perfect cistern B., deserves particular notice. The cistern, and the lower portion of the tube of this B., is shewn in fig. 3. The cistern is made of boxwood, with a movable leather bottom, *bb*, and a glass cylinder is inserted into it above, all except the glass being encased in brass. In the bottom of the brass box a screw works, on the upper end of which the leather rests, so that by the sending in or taking out of the screw,

Fig. 3.

Fig. 5.

Fig. 8.

the bottom of the cistern, and with it the cistern level of the mercury, can be raised or depressed at will. A small ivory pin, *p*, ending in a fine point, is fixed to the upper frame of the cistern; and when an observation is made, the surface of the mercury is made to coincide with the point of the pin as the standard level from which the barometric column is to be measured. The tube of the B.—the upper part of which is shewn in fig. 4—is enclosed in one of brass, which has two directly opposite slits in it for shewing the height of the column, and on the sides of these the graduation is marked. A brass collar, *cc*, slides upon the tube with a vernier (q. v.), *vv*, marked on it for reading the height with the greatest exactness, and in which two oblong holes are cut, a little wider than the slits in the brass tube. When a reading is taken, the collar is so placed that the last streak of light is cut off by the two upper edges of the holes, or until they form a tangent to the convex mercurial curve. By this means, the observer is sure that his eye is on a level with the top of the column, and that the reading is taken exactly for this point. This is the contrivance usually adopted to prevent the error of parallax, or that caused by the eye being slightly above or below the top of the column, by which the scale and the top of the column are projected too high or too low, the one upon the other, as the case may be. The only other arrangement worthy of mention for effecting the same object is that by Weber, who etches the scale on a piece of silverised glass placed over one side of the tube; and when—the mirror and tube being vertical—the image of the eye appears along with the vertex of the column, the eye is in the same horizontal line with it. Fortin's B. is generally arranged so as to be portable, in which case the screw, *s*, is sent in until the mercury fills the whole cistern, by which the air is kept from entering the tube during transport, the leather yielding sufficiently at the same time to allow for expansion from increase of temperature. It packs in a case, which serves as a tripod when the instrument is mounted for use. On this tripod it is suspended about the middle, swinging upon two axes at right angles to each other, so that the cistern may act the part of a plummet in keeping the tube vertical—the position essential to all correct measurements.

The siphon B. consists of a tube bent in the form of a siphon, having the same diameter at the lower as at the upper end. Fig. 5 represents a simple form of it. The tube travels along the board on which it is placed by passing easily through fixed rings or collars of brass. A scale, divided in inches and parts of an inch, is fixed on the upper part of the board; and when an observation is taken, the tube is adjusted by the screw, *s*, working below it, so that the top of the lower mercurial column may be on a level with the fixed mark, *a*, which is the point from which the fixed scale is measured. In the best forms of the siphon B., both tube and scale are fixed, the latter being graduated upwards and downwards from a zero-point near the middle of the tube, and the height of the column is ascertained by adding the distances from it of the upper and lower levels. The siphon B. is in many respects a more perfect instrument than the cistern barometer. In the first place, the bore at the upper and lower ends of the tube being the same, the depression arising from capillarity is alike for both, and the error from this cause disappears in taking the difference of the heights. In the second place, since the final reading is got from a reference to both upper and lower surfaces, the error in the cistern B. produced by the different capacities of the tube and cistern, is effectually avoided. On the other hand, the taking of two readings, one for each column, is a serious addition to the labour of observation. Gay-Lussac's siphon B. (fig. 6) is bent near the bottom, so as to allow of the lower branch being placed in the same straight line as the upper one—a position highly favourable to accurate observation. When constructed for transport, the tube at the bend is narrowed, as in the figure, to a capillary width, which effectually excludes the air; and when the tube is inverted (fig. 7), being the position in which it is carried, the mercury is nearly all held in the longer branch. Such a tube when mounted, like Fortin's B., makes an excellent travelling instrument, and is comparatively light, from the small quantity of mercury it contains. See ANEROID BAROMETER.

The wheel B., originally invented by Hook, and generally seen as a parlour ornament, has little to recommend it as a trustworthy instrument. Fig. 8 shews the main features of its construction. It is essentially an ordinary B. like the siphon B. below, but having a cistern above, to increase the amount of variation in the lower branch. A small piece of iron or glass, *f*, floats on the open surface, and a thread is attached to it, and passed over a small wheel, *a*, fixed to a horizontal axis, to which it is kept tight by a small weight, *c*, hanging at the other end. A pointer, *p*, is fixed to the other extremity of the horizontal axis, which moves to the right or left of the dial, *dd*, according

as the mercury falls or rises in the lower branch. The great sweep which the index takes, as compared with the comparatively minute variations of the mercurial column, is the only merit of this instrument. It is easy to see, that with so much intervening between the mercury and the index, the chances of error from friction and other causes are very considerable.

The correction of the B. for temperature is of importance. Mercury expands $\frac{1}{5550}$ of its bulk for every degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer; consequently, a column of 30 inches at 32° F., or the freezing-point, would, at 65° F., for instance, be $\frac{5583}{5550}$ times 30 inches, or nearly $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch longer, for 30 $\frac{1}{10}$ inches of mercury at 60° produce the same pressure as 30 inches of it at 32°. In order, therefore, that all observations may be compared correctly with each other, the observed heights are reduced to what they would be at 32° F. as a standard temperature. The rule for reduction is very simple: Multiply the number of degrees above or below 32° F. by the observed height, divide the product by 9990, and subtract or add the quotient from or to the observed height for the reduced height. Tables for this purpose have been published by the Royal Society, from which the corrections are found at once.

The variations of the B. are found to be both periodical and irregular. Periodical variations are those taking place at stated and regular intervals, and irregular, such as have no regular period of recurrence. The only truly periodical variation is the daily one, which varies from 0·150 to 0·001 inch. In most regions of the globe there is also a well-marked annual variation, widely different for different regions. Accidental variations have a range of about 3 inches. See ATMOSPHERE.

The uses of the B. may be classified into physical, hypsometrical, and meteorological. It is of essential use in all physical researches where the mechanical, optical, acoustical, and chemical properties of air or other gases are dependent on the pressure of the atmosphere. Its use in hypsometry, or the art of measuring the heights of mountains, is very valuable. When a B. is at the foot of a mountain, the pressure it sustains is greater than that which it experiences at the top by the weight of the column of air intervening between the top and bottom. A formula of considerable complexity is given by mathematicians for finding very nearly the true height of a mountain from barometrical and thermometrical observations made at its base and summit, the interpretation of which does not come within the compass of this work. The following rules give very nearly the same result: 1. Reduce the mercurial heights at both stations to 32° F. 2. Take the logarithms of the corrected heights, subtract them, and multiply the result by 10,000, to give the approximate height in fathoms of the upper above the lower station. 3. Take the mean of the temperature at both stations, take the difference between this mean and 32, multiply the difference by the approximate height, and divide the product by 435. This last result is to be added to the approximate height, if the mean temperature is above 32, and subtracted, if below, to find the true height in fathoms. A Fortin's or Gay-Lussac's B. is employed in measuring heights.

The best known use of the B. is as a meteorological instrument, or as a weather-glass. Opticians have attached to certain heights of the B. certain states of weather, and at certain points of the scale the words 'Rain,' 'Changeable,' 'Fair,' &c., are marked; but the connection thus instituted is very misleading. Those who have observed most carefully the connection of barometric heights with changes of the weather, discard entirely the use of these terms, and state that it is not the actual height of the B. at any place, but this height as compared with that of surrounding regions which indicates the coming weather. Several elaborate codes of rules have been drawn up to serve as a key to the variations, but as these are more or less of a local character, they would be out of place here. Generally speaking, a falling B. indicates rain, a rising B., fair weather. A steady B. foretells a continuance of the weather at the time; when low, this is generally broken or bad, and when high, fair. A sudden fall usually precedes a storm, the violence of which is in proportion to the barometric gradient. An unsteady B. shews an unsettled state of weather; gradual changes, the approach of some permanent condition of it. The variations must also be interpreted with reference to the prevailing winds, each different wind having some peculiar rules. The connection between changes of weather and the pressure of the atmosphere is by no means well understood. One reason is given, which may to some extent account for the B. being lower in wet than in dry weather - viz., since, as has been shewn by Dalton, moist air is lighter than dry air, so long as there is much aqueous matter in the air in the form of elastic vapour, the barometric column will read relatively low. Hence much depends on the nature of the winds. The south and south-west winds, which are, in Western Europe, more than any other, the rain-bringing winds, are warm and moist winds. Now, a column of such air, to be of the same weight as one of cold dry air, must be higher; but this it cannot well be in the atmosphere, for no sooner does the warm moist column, by its lightness, rise above the surrounding level of the upper surface of the aërial ocean, than it flows over, and becomes nearly of the same height as the cold air around it. The interchange taking place less interruptedly, and consequently less slowly, in the higher strata than in those near the ground, it is some time before the equilibrium thus disturbed is restored, and meanwhile the B. keeps low under the pressure of a rarer atmospheric column. On the other hand, the northerly and easterly winds, being comparatively cold and dry, are accompanied with fair weather and a high barometer. It is thus to the warmth, as well as to the moisture of these winds that the low pressure is to be ascribed. Hence, then, the rain attendant on a low B., as well as the fine weather accompanying a high B., are the necessary concomitants of our geographical position – of our having the land to the east, and the ocean to the west of us. In Great Britain a high and rising B. frequently accompanies east winds with a drenching drizzle; and on the La Plata River, things are the reverse of what they are with us; there the cold south-east wind, coming from the ocean, brings rain with a high barometer, and the land winds, warmed by the plains of South America, maintain fine weather with a low barometer. That the temperature, as well as the moisture of the air, is at least an important cause of the changes of the B., is also shewn by the fact, that, in the tropics, where the variations of the temperature are slight compared with the temperate zones, the B. experiences almost no change. In Central Asia, the summer pressure is nearly an inch less than that of winter, and at Dendiquin, towards the interior of Australia, it amounts to 0·250 inch.

BAROMETZ, or Tartarian or Scythian Lamb, the prostrate stem (rhizome) of a fern (*Cibotium Barometz*) which grows in the salt-plains near the Caspian Sea. It is shaggy with a silky down, and has a sort of general resemblance to an animal. In the days of ignorant credulity, when the story of the phœnix was received as a truth of

natural history, and barnacles were believed to grow into geese, and horses' hairs into eels, marvellous tales were told of the B., which was supposed to partake of the natures of a plant and an animal, to grow on a stalk, and eat grass like a lamb, &c. Erman (*Travels in Siberia*) supposes that the fables regarding the B. may have some connection with the cotton plant.

BARON. This term, as to the origin of which much difference of opinion exists, is probably derived from the Latin word *baro* (allied to *vir*, a man, a hero), which originally signified a stupid, brutal man, afterwards came to signify a man simply, and latterly, by one of those strange transmutations which are not uncommon in language, a man pre-eminently, or a person of distinction. Teutonic, Celtic, and even Hebrew derivations have also been assigned to the word; but the fact of its having been introduced into this country by the Normans, seems in favour of a Romanic origin. It is now the title which we apply to the lowest degree of hereditary nobility. The degree of B. forms a species of landing-place, corresponding amongst noblemen, in a certain sense, to that of gentleman, at a lower stage of the social pyramid. It was in this sense that the word was used in former times to include the whole nobility of England, because all noblemen were barons, whatever might be the higher ranks in the peerage which they occupied. The word peer has recently come to be used with the same signification, perhaps because it is no longer necessarily the case that every nobleman should be a B., there being instances in which earldoms and other honours have been given without a barony being attached to them, and in which the barony has been separated from the higher degree by following a different order of descent. The general theory of the constitution, however, still is, that it is as barons that all the peers sit in the upper house; and it is on this ground that the archbishops and bishops are said to sit in virtue of their baronies. The distinction into *greater* and *lesser* barons seems from an early period to have obtained in most of the countries of Europe. The greater barons, who were the king's chief tenants, held their lands directly, or *in capite*, as it was called, of the crown; whilst the lesser held of the greater by the tenure of military service. The greater barons, who corresponded to the *Freiherren* (free lords) of Germany, had a perpetual summons to attend the great councils of the nation; whereas the latter were summoned only in case of their lands embracing a certain extent, which in England was thirteen knights' fees and a quarter. See KNIGHT'S FEE. When the representation of the middle class in England came to be confided to the knights of the shire and burgesses of towns, the minor barons ceased to receive the royal summons, and by degrees the title B. came to be applied to the greater barons, or lords of parliament, as they were called, exclusively. For an account of the barons of England immediately after the Conquest, and of the lands which they held, see DOOMSDAY-BOOK. The habit of conferring the rank of B. by letters-patent, by which it was converted into a mere title of honour, apart from the possession of landed property or of territorial jurisdiction, was first introduced by King Richard II., who, in 1388, created John Beauchamp, of Holt Castle, B. of Kidderminster. In Germany, the old barons of the empire were for the most part raised to the dignity of *grafs* (counts) and princes; whilst the lesser, in place of passing into the ranks of the untitled gentry, as in England, constituted a grade of the lower nobility, to which no duties were assigned, and scarcely any political privileges belonged.

When a B. is summoned to the House of Lords by writ, a letter, in the sovereign's name, directs him to repair to the parliament, to be holden at a specified time and place, to advise with his sovereign, the prelates, and nobles, about the weighty affairs of the nation. On the arrival of the new peer, he is presented by two barons to the lord-chancellor, his patent or writ being carried by a king-at-arms. This having been read by the chancellor, he congratulates him on becoming a member of the House of Peers, and invests him with his robe. The oaths are then administered by the clerk of parliament, and the new B. is conducted to a seat on the barons' bench. In addition to barons by writ and barons by patent, barons by prescription are usually mentioned, but incorrectly according to Blackstone, who remarks that 'those who claim by prescription must suppose either a writ or patent made to their ancestors, though by length of time it is lost.' (Kerr's Ed., vol. i. p. 406.) There are some distinctions between a creation by writ and by patent which ought to be mentioned. 'The creation by writ,' says Blackstone, 'is the more ancient way, but a man is not ennobled thereby, unless he actually takes his seat in the House of Lords; and some are of opinion that there must be at least two writs of summons, and a sitting in two distinct parliaments, to evidence an hereditary barony.' In consequence of the inconvenience thus attending it, the creation by writ may now be considered as obsolete, although the eldest son of a peer is still frequently called up to parliament by means of it, there being in that case no danger of the children losing their nobility even should their father never take his seat. But though creation by patent is thus in general the surest way of insuring the hereditary character of the peerage, it labours under one disadvantage as compared with a creation by writ—viz., that whereas in the latter case the dignity once insured by possession, passes to the heirs of the holder without any words to that purpose, in the former there must be words to direct the inheritance, else the dignity endures only to the grantee for life. Where the patent, again, in place of being silent as to the succession, expressly sets forth that the dignity is for life merely, it was held, in the Wensleydale case, that it does not make the grantee a lord of parliament at all.

The coronation and parliamentary robes of a B. differ very slightly from those of an earl. The right of wearing a coronet was conferred on barons for the first time by King Charles II.; their head-dress till then having consisted of a cap of crimson velvet, lined with ermine, and having a plain gold band. A baron's coronet is adorned with six pearls, set at equal distances on the chaplet. Coronets are worn only on great occasions of state ceremonial. In ordinary garb, there is nothing to distinguish a B. from a commoner. A B. has the title of 'Right Honourable Lord,' &c., and is addressed as 'My Lord,' or 'Your Lordship.' His wife has also the title of 'Right Honourable,' and is addressed as 'Madam,' or 'Your Ladyship.' A B., in signing, sinks his Christian and family surname, and subscribes his titular designation. His children enjoy the prefix of Honourable, as the 'Honourable Mr'—mentioning Christian and surname. In literature and conversation, a deceased B. is referred to by his Christian name, according to his number in the list of peers of the same title, as 'Henry, eighth baron.'—The Barons of Exchequer (q. v.) and of the Cinque Ports (q. v.) are examples still existing of the ancient barons by office.

Baron's Coronet.

In the United Kingdom, there are persons who

possess the title of B. in parted by some foreign power; as, for example, 'Baron Rothschild.' No such honour can be legally enjoyed without the consent of the sovereign; but at best the title is only honorary, and communicates no special privileges. A good article on the Baronage will be found in the *Cyclopædia of Political Knowledge*, published by Bohn, London, 1853. See PEER.

BA'RON AND FEME, or FEMME. These are two Norman-French words used in English law-books to denominate HUSBAND AND WIFE (q. v.); and see MARRIAGE.

BA'RON AND FEMME, in Heraldry, is the expression used to designate the bearing by which the arms of husband and wife are carried per pale, or marshalled side by side on the same shield. The husband's arms are always carried on the dexter side. Where the wife is an heiress—i. e., the representative of her father's house—her husband carries her arms, not *per pale*, but in a shield of pretence; and they are quartered with the paternal coat by the issue of the marriage.

BA'RON OF BEEF, a large piece of beef, consisting of both sides of the back, or a double sirloin, and weighing, according to the size of the animal, from 50 to 100 lbs. This monstrously large piece of beef, roasted, is served only on particular festive occasions at the English court, and at great public entertainments. When served according to ancient custom at civic feasts in Guildhall, London, the B. is honoured with a distinguished place on a kind of elevated rostrum, where it is ceremoniously carved for the assembled guests. The term B. probably originated in a fanciful allusion to the word sirloin; inasmuch as a *baron* is superior in rank to a *sir*.

BA'RONET. This title, which is the diminutive of baron, is the lowest degree of hereditary honour in the United Kingdom. Baronets were instituted, for the first time, by King James I., on the 22d May 1611. The ostensible object was to promote the plantation of Ulster, in Ireland, with English and Scottish settlers; but the real aim was to raise money. Each B. was bound to maintain 30 soldiers in Ireland for 3 years, at the rate of 8*d*. per diem for each man; the wages of one whole year to be paid into the exchequer on the passing of the patent. The sum thus exacted, with the fees of honour due to the officers, amounted to upwards of £1000 on each patent. It is a striking proof of the passion for hereditary distinction, that 200 persons were willing to accept the honour on such terms. It was part of the bargain that no title should be created between a B. and a baron, and that the number of the former should be permitted to diminish as the families of the original 200 died out, thus enhancing the value of the title to those that remained. But the latter stipulation was very speedily departed from, and a new commission was appointed to fill up the vacant places, and even to treat with new applicants. Such was the origin of English baronets. From the date of the Union, in 1707, those created in England and Scotland were baronets of Great Britain. Irish baronets were created until 1800, since which period all baronetcies are of the United Kingdom. There is no limit to the creation of baronets but the will of the sovereign. At investiture there is no ceremony. The rank is communicated by patent or writ, issued under authority of the crown; the fees of office being considerable. There are differences in the terms on which the honour descends (suggested, perhaps, by the recipient according to family circumstances). Sometimes, according to the patent, the rank is confined to direct heirs-male; sometimes it embraces heirs-male collateral; and sometimes, in default of direct male heirs, it passes to the husbands of heirs-female. For the style and privileges of Baronets, in matters of ceremony, see Burke's *Peerage and Baronetage*. Baronets have precedence of all knights, except those of the Garter, bannerets made under the royal banner in open war, and privy-councillors. They are entitled to have *Sir* prefixed to their name, along with B. as an affix. The wife of a B. is legally styled *Dame*; but in common speech she is called Lady, and addressed as 'Your Ladyship.' The rank of B. does not raise a person above the degree of commoner; but many baronetcies have, in course of time, been heritably acquired by peers, which lessens the ostensible number.

Baronets of Scotland and Nova Scotia originated in a project of James I.; but were not instituted till 1625, by Charles I. The professed object was to encourage the settlement of Nova Scotia in North America; and a grant of a certain portion of land in that province, to be held of Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling, who was then his majesty's lieutenant in Nova Scotia, actually accompanied the title—the grants of land being of course illusory, for their very designations were a fiction. The first person who received the honour of a Nova Scotian baronetcy was Robert Gordon of Gordonstone, a younger son of the Earl of Sutherland, whose patent bears date May 28, 1625. There are no new additions to this branch of the baronetage; the latest creation having been in 1707, the year of the Union of Scotland and England. In point of title and popular recognition, there is no distinction between these and other baronets.

BARO'NIUS, CÆSAR, an eminent Roman Catholic ecclesiastical historian, born at Sora, in Naples, on the 30th October 1538, and educated at Naples and Rome. He was one of the first pupils of St Philip Neri, who founded the congregation of the Oratory, of which B. became superior in 1593. He soon after became Father Confessor to the Pope, Apostolical Prothonotary, and finally, in 1596, Cardinal, and Librarian of the Vatican Library. On the death of Clement VIII., in 1605, 30 voted in conclave for the election of B. as Pope; and but for the opposition of the Spaniards, who were indignant at him for his treatise *De Monarchia Siciliæ*, in which he argued against Spain's claim to that country, he might have been elected. The controversy against the work called the *Magdeburg Centuries* (q. v.), which had already been weakly attempted by Muzio in 1570, seemed at that time the most important undertaking for the learning of the Church of Rome. B. entered upon this controversy with great energy and in a position most favourable for access to authorities, composing his *Annales Ecclesiastici a Christo nato ad ann.* 1198 (12 vols., Rome, 1588–1607), in which work he laboured till his death, 30th May 1607. As his object was to prove that the Church of Rome has not departed in doctrine or constitution from the Christian Church of the 1st c., B. has been accused of not using his authorities according to their proper historical sense, but artfully concealing, obscuring, and falsifying many things—sometimes, perhaps, from ignorance of the Greek, but more frequently with design. His *Annals* have been frequently reprinted, but the reprints are often incorrect and incomplete. The most recent, provided with copious notes, &c., and containing Pagi's *Critical Examination* and Rinaldi's continuation, although not yet entirely correct, is the edition of Mansi (43 vols., 1738—1757). The *Critica in Annales Ecclesiasticos Baronii* of Anthony Pagi, the Franciscan (4 vols., Antwerp, 1705, improved by Francis Pagi, Antwerp, 1724), corrects B. in many points, especially of chronology. Among the continuations of the *Annals*, all of

which are inferior in value to the work itself, the most rich in matter are that of Bzovius, extending to 1572 (9 vols., Rome, 1616—1672), and that of Rinaldi (10 vols., Rome, 1646—1677), who availed himself of the materials left by B., for the period from 1198 to 1571. Amongst the other works of B., his publication of the *Martyrologium Romanum* deserves to be noticed (Rome, 1586, and repeatedly).

BARONS OF THE EXCHEQUER. See EXCHEQUER, BARONS OF; COMMON LAW; COURTS OF COMMON LAW; REVENUE.

BARONY is, or, it may rather be said, was a manorial and hereditary right arising out of land, known to the law both of England and Scotland. In England, manors were formerly called baronies. In the Scotch law, a right of B. is a right in relation to lands which have been erected, or at least confirmed by a clause in crown-charters making the grant *in liberam baroniam*, as it is called; and by the crown alone could such a right be conferred. It involved a civil and criminal jurisdiction to which, in theory, all the inhabitants of the B. lands were amenable. But such jurisdiction has, by modern legislation, been so limited and obstructed as scarcely ever to be exercised; and, indeed, in regard to the right of B. itself, the clause in crown-charters erecting baronies has, since the abolition of heritable jurisdictions by the 20th Geo. II. c. 43, become obsolete. But by the 35 Geo. III. c. 122, they are permitted on the sea-coast for encouragement of fisheries, and the bailies thereof (see BAILIE) are to have the powers of justices of the peace. In England, the lord or baron of the manor may hold his COURT BARON (q. v.; see also MANOR, JURISDICTION).

BARO'SMA. See BUCKU.

BARQUE, or BARK, is a name frequently given to ships, but with no very definite meaning. Sometimes it denotes simply a ship of small size; sometimes a broad-sterned vessel without a figure-head;

Barque.

but more technically it applies to three-masted vessels whose mizzen-sails are fore-and-aft instead of being square. An *armed B.* is one variety of a special sort of vessel noticed in another article. See ARMED SHIP.

BARR, or BA'RRA, a petty Mandingo kingdom of Western Africa, at the mouth of the Gambia, with an estimated area of about 250 square leagues, and a population of 200,000, the males being remarkable for their fine proportions. The surface, which is fertile, but rather marshy, is well cultivated.

BA'RRA, a pleasant suburban town about 3 miles east of Naples, with a population of 12,000. It has numerous fine country residences.

BA'RRA, a small island near the south extremity of the Hebrides, Scotland, belonging to Inverness-shire, and 42 miles west of Ardnamurchan. Its lat. of Barra-head, 56° 48′ N., long. 7° 8 miles long, and 2 to 4 broad, with steep the sea. A low sandy isthmus, over which nearly breaks at high water, connects the t into which B. is divided. The south contains a rocky mountain, 2000 feet l divided into small valleys. The is of gneiss. The soil is sandy, but are fed on the hill and meadow p 1624, chiefly Roman Catholics, spe with great purity; and among the mos of Scottish fishermen. Their boats are and aft, and are built by the fishermen who engage extensively in the cod, li and shell-fish fisheries. 200 horse-loads (cockles, limpets, muscles, razor-fish, lobsters, etc have been taken off the sands in one day dur summer spring-tides. The light-house on head, the loftiest in Britain, is 680 feet above sea, and is seen 33 miles off.

BARRACKPO'RE, a native town and cantonment on the left or east bank of and 16 miles up the stream from Calc 22° 46′ N., and long. 88° 26′ E. On account of salubrity of its air, B. is a favourite retreat Europeans from Calcutta, the governor-gen having here his country residence. In fact, appears to have long enjoyed this kind of distinction; Mr Job Charnock, the founder of having erected a bungalow here as 1689. In 1857, B. became famous as the formidable mutiny or rebellion to Several regiments of native troops were Barrackpore. The men objected to bite of the cartridges for the Enfield rifle, beca paper to be polluted by animal fat. The connected herewith—a mere prelude to the outbreak at Meerut in May—commenced ab beginning of February, and continued to a various degrees of intensity, till at last two ments of Bengal native infantry had to be disb —the 19th, on 31st March; and the 34th, on It was in the last-named corps that the first would appear to have been drawn, an intrepid sepoy having attacked and wounded Lieutenant Baugh, with sword and fellow, whose name was Mungal Pandy, to have had the equivocal honour of local designation of Pandies to the insurgents.

BARRACKS are permanent structures for accommodation of soldiers, as distinguished huts and tents. Originally, the word, derived the Spanish *barracas*, applied to small cabins huts; but in England, the term is now also considered to relate to structures of brick or sto Great opposition was made in this country to introduction of permanent B. during the early of the last century, on the ground that the of the subject might possibly be ex thus separating the soldiery so comple citizens, and placing them in the h power. On the other hand, it was the older system of billeting the s people is vexatious and burdensome: morals of towns-people and villagers vitiated by the constant presence o permanent B. were few in numb year 1792, when George III. ob sent of parliament for the con new ones, and for the found barrack-master-general. Vari. arrangements were made

iture for B., in building, rebuilding, enlarging and repairing, between 1793 and 1804, was 000; between 1804 and 1819, £3,220,000; tween 1819 and 1859 (including Aldershott wards of £7,000,000. It has been found, on ial examination, that in 17 B., constructed n 1832 and 1857, the cost varied from £27 to er soldier accommodated, according to the ss of the work, and to the inclusion or exclumess-rooms and quarters for the officers.

condition of British soldiers has, ever since sters in the Crimea in the winter of 1854, n object of much public solicitude. This de was so strongly expressed as to break a the cold formalities of the official depart-

Returns were ordered, and commissions and s appointed, partly to inquire into existing ssly to suggest improvements. The Barrack-General was replaced at the beginning of ntury by Commissioners for Barracks, whose ns were absorbed by the now extinct Board nance in 1822. Barracks are now under the ision of the Surveyor General of the Ord who provides for their construction and nance through the Royal Engineers; and for rictualling and daily service through Comies of the Control Department. Under these saries are barrack-clerks and barrack-sertto assist them in the duties. The furniture B. is bought by the War Office. The French singular plan of *hiring* such furniture at 15 per man per annum; the English cost is 25s. per man, and some of our officers are of that it might with advantage be superseded French plan. The barrack-rooms have arm coutrement racks, shelves, and pegs; with a order for depositing everything thereon; the day, all the bedding is placed in exact as well as dishes, tins, and canteens. A ern officer visits every room every day. The steads are turned down every evening, and ry morning. One non-commissioned officer nt or corporal has control over each room, responsible for quiet, cleanliness, &c. Marmen, in the ratio of 6 to a company of 100 s, may live in the B. with their husbands, arate rooms known as 'Married Soldiers' rs,' but not unless the marriage has been nsent of the commanding officer. The soldier may, however, sleep out of B., and ved an extra 2*d.* per day if he does so. Each in a barrack has an iron bedstead, a rug, a se, a bolster, two blankets, and two sheets; is nothing for these. Each soldier has his and number written near his bed and knap-

withstanding the order and regularity established in B., committees of inquiry appointed in nd 1857 ascertained the existence of grievous . It was found that, out of 252 B., only 20 parate sleeping-rooms for married soldiers; ves of such soldiers, in the other 232, being l to put up with arrangements repugnant to ency and propriety, or else sleep away from altogether.

egard to sanitary arrangements, great efforts seen made at vast cost in recent years to e all the hygienic conditions, such as drains, ation, means of ablution, recreation, circulair, &c. The result has been very apparent ced rate of mortality. Army-physicians mend 600 cubic feet of room space per soldier; is the standard now demanded in all able cases by the War Office. It has been ted that a new barrack for 1000 foot guards in would cost £150,000, *besides land*, the cost of which would depend wholly on the particular site selected. The necessity for grounds for exercises, stores, surgery, offices, &c., renders a barrack a very costly congeries of buildings. Twenty acres may be taken as the minimum space needed for 1000 men. In relation to all the various subjects of barrack-life, a committee of military officers has drawn up a most comprehensive scheme of reform; but unfortunately the cost of making these improvements would be so enormous, that nothing better than a very gradual adoption can be expected.

The finest existing B. in this country are perhaps those at Aldershott, attached to the camp noticed in another article. See ALDERSHOTT CAMP. The buildings extend in two long lines, branching out of the Farnborough and Farnham road, with a large parade-ground between them. The infantry and artillery B. are on the north side of this space, and the cavalry B. on the south. The infantry B. are divided into blocks, forming each a spacious quadrangle, with a courtyard in the centre. Each block is a complete barrack for a full regiment, with all the men's rooms, store rooms, school rooms, officers, &c. The officers' rooms are, however, separate, and occupy open spaces between the blocks of buildings. All the four sides of each quadrangle are occupied by various rooms and buildings; the men's living and sleeping rooms being mostly on the side next to the parade ground. The sleeping rooms, each for 24 men, are very large and airy; the washing-rooms are ample and well fitted; and the cooking-rooms will each cook for 350 men. Dry play-grounds and drill-yards, under glass roofs, are provided. A broad balcony outside every range of sleeping-rooms enables the soldiers to look out upon these grounds. The married soldiers and their wives are comfortably provided for, in rooms wholly apart from the rest. The artillery and cavalry B. resemble in their general features those for the infantry.

By the Military Forces Localisation Act of 1872, £350,000 is to be raised and expended in building and altering barracks for the 70 sub-district brigades among which the infantry is now to be divided.

BARRACOON, the appellation given to a depôt for newly captured slaves on the coast of Africa, and where they remain under restraint until carried off by vessels in the slave-trade.

BARRADA, or **BURADA**, a river of Syria, which rises in lat. 33° 50′ N., long. 36° E., flows in a south-south-east direction towards Damascus, above which it divides, one branch being diverted to irrigate the city and its gardens, while the other passes on the north side. The branches, which it is supposed were the *Pharpar* and *Abana* of Scripture, afterwards unite, and flow into the marshes and Lake of Bahret-Merj.

BARRAFRANCA, a town of Sicily, in the district of Piazza, about 10 miles south-east of Caltanisetta, with a population of about 6000.

BARRAS, PAUL-JEAN-FRANÇOIS-NICOLAS, COUNT DE, a distinguished character of the French Revolution, was born at Fox, in Provence, 30th June 1755. In his youth he served as a lieutenant against the British in India, and after his return home, wasted his property in Paris in dissipation. He eagerly joined the revolutionary party, and was a deputy of the *Tiers Etat* in the States-general in 1789. He was actively concerned in the storming of the Tuileries, was appointed administrator of the department of Var, and afterwards of the county of Nice. In the Convention, he voted for the execution of the king without delay or appeal, and on the 31st May 1793 declared against the Girondists. The siege of Toulon, and triumph of the

revolutionary party in the south of France, were in a great measure owing to his activity and energy; and after the victory, he was deeply concerned in all the bloody measures which were adopted. Yet he was hated by Robespierre and the Terrorists, as one of the less decided revolutionists; and their overthrow was accomplished mainly by him, the Convention appointing him commander-in-chief, and virtually investing him with the dictatorship for the time. While holding this high office, in which he acted with great decision and vigour, and on the same day on which Robespierre fell, he paid a visit to the Temple, and provided for the better treatment of the king's son; he hastened also to the Palais de Justice, and suspended the execution of a large number of persons who had been condemned to death. On subsequent occasions, he acted with decision both against the intrigues of the Royalists and the excesses of the Jacobins; and on 13th Vendemiaire (5th October 1795), being again appointed commander-in-chief by the Convention, he called his young friend Bonaparte to his aid, and crushed the sections with merciless discharges of artillery. The Directory being appointed in November 1795, B. was nominated one of the five members, and in this capacity he procured the nomination of Bonaparte as commander-in-chief of the army in Italy. It was he who arranged the marriage of Bonaparte with the widow Beauharnais. On 18th Fructidor (see FRANCE, HISTORY OF), he was again invested with the dictatorship, and was again victorious. His authority now became preponderant in the Directory, and he affected the pomp of a king, and began to give splendid entertainments in the palace of the Luxembourg. This continued for about two years till the decline of the power of the Directory. After 30th Prairial, Sièyes and he had the whole executive power in their hands; and whilst B. secretly negotiated, it is said, with the Bourbon princes, demanding a large reward for their restoration, Sièyes, in secret understanding with Bonaparte, brought about the revolution of 18th Brumaire. Notwithstanding the favours he had formerly conferred on Bonaparte, he was now, perhaps unavoidably, an object of suspicion to him, was compelled to remove from the neighbourhood of Paris, resided in Brussels, then in Marseille, was banished to Rome, and thence sent to Montpellier, being kept under constant surveillance of the police, and actually found to have been engaged in conspiracies for the restoration of the Bourbons. After the Restoration, he returned to Paris, and purchased an estate in the neighbourhood of it, where he died on 29th January 1829. He had acquired a considerable fortune in the Revolution. His Memoirs, which must be of historic importance, were seized by the government.

BA'RRATRY, COMMON, or, as it is called in old English law-books, *Barretry*, is the offence of inciting and stirring up suits and quarrels among the queen's subjects. *One* offensive act of the kind is not sufficient in order to maintain an indictment for this offence; but it must be shewn that the party accused *frequently*, or at least on more than *one* occasion, conducted himself in the way imputed; and therefore the principle of the law appears to strike at the *habit* or *disposition* of evil-minded persons, who would incite to quarrelling, or busy-bodies, as they are in fact called in old law-reports; who, to use a familiar expression, 'set people by the ears.' This term is supposed by some to be derived from the French word *Barrateur*, which signifies a deceiver; by others, from the Latin word *Barrator*, a vile knave. Some, again, account for it by the suggestion that it is made up of *Barra*, the bars of courts of justice, and *Retum*, an old word signifying an offence; while, by other antiquarian lawyers, it is supposed to have been borrowed from the Normans; the Anglo-Norman *barat* signifying a quarrel or contention. In old English indictments, charging this offence, the accused is not only described as *pacis domini regis perturbator*, but also *oppressor vicinorum suorum*; that is, he who is guilty of B., is not only a disturber of the public peace, but a nuisance to his neighbours. The punishment for this offence is fine and imprisonment; but if the offender belongs to the profession of the law, as is too frequently the case, he may besides be disabled from practising his profession for the future. And, indeed, it is the existing statute law of England, that if any one who has been convicted of B. shall practise as an attorney, solicitor, or agent in any suit, the court, upon complaint, shall examine the matter in a summary way; and if the fact of such conviction be proved, may direct such offending attorney, solicitor, or agent to be kept in penal servitude for not more than seven or less than three years.

Akin to this offence is another of equal malignity and mischief; namely, that of suing another in the name of a fictitious plaintiff. If committed in any of the superior courts, this offence is treated as a high contempt, punishable at discretion, and in inferior courts, by six months' imprisonment, and treble damages to the party injured.

B., in the sense above explained, is not a technical term in the law of Scotland. But in that system there is a word *Baratry*, which is defined as the crime committed by a judge who is induced by a bribe to pronounce a judgment, or who barters justice for money.

There is also *Baratry of Mariners*, which signifies —in the law not only of England and Scotland, but also of France and other European states—the fraud of the master or mariners of a ship tending to their own advantage, but to the prejudice of the owners. Such conduct, however, is one of those risks which are usually insured against in marine policies of insurance. See MARINE INSURANCE.

BA'RREL (It. *barile*; Fr. *baril* = *barrique*, primarily, a large vessel for holding liquids—probably from *bar*, in the sense of to guard, confine, contain—and then a certain *measure*, but varying in every locality, and almost for every liquid. In the old English measures, the barrel contained 31½ gallons of wine, 32 of ale, and 36 of beer—the wine gallon itself differing from that of ale and beer. In imperial gallons, their contents would be: old wine barrel = 26¼ gal.; ale do., 32¼; beer, 36¼. The Italian barile varies from 7 to 31 English gallons; the French barrique of Bordeaux = 228 French litres = 50 English gallons. Four barriques make a tonneau. In many cases, *B.* signifies a certain *weight* or other quantity of goods usually sold in casks called barrels. In America, flour and beef are sold on the large scale in barrels: a B. of flour must contain 196 lbs.; of beef, 200 lbs. A B. of butter = 224 lbs.; of soft soap, 256 lbs.; of tar, 26½ gallons.

BA'RREL, GUN. The relation which the barrels of small-arms bear to the stock, lock, and other parts, is described in such articles as MUSKET, PISTOL, RIFLE, REVOLVER, BREECH-LOADING ARMS, &c.; but the remarkable processes of manufacturing these barrels may be briefly noticed once for all.

The iron for all good musket-barrels contains a portion of steel, or undergoes some kind of *steeling* process. Horseshoe nails or stubs, after much violent usage, yield a very tough kind of iron when re-heated; and English gun-makers have been

accustomed to buy such refuse on the continent; but the foreign makers now use the old nails themselves; and Birmingham puts up with those of English make, which are inferior in quality. The best barrels are now made in England of laminated, twisted, and Damascus steel. To prepare *laminated steel*, Mr Greener, a celebrated Birmingham gunsmith, collects scraps of saws, steel-pens, files, springs, and steel-tools, from the various workshops; cuts them into small and nearly equal pieces; cleans and polishes them by revolving in a cylinder; fuses them into a semifluid state; gathers them into a 'bloom' or mass; forges this bloom with a three-ton hammer; hardens and solidifies it with a tilt-hammer; rolls it into rods; cuts each rod into pieces six inches long; welds these pieces together; repeats the rolling, cutting, and welding several times; and thus, finally, brings the metal into a very hard, tough, fibrous, and uniform state. *Twisted steel* for barrels is made by taking thin plates of iron and steel, laying them alternately one on another in a pile, welding them by heat and hammering, and twisting them by very powerful mechanical agency, until there are twelve or fourteen complete turns to an inch; the length becomes reduced one-half, and the thickness doubled, by this twisting. *Damascus steel* barrels are made of steel which has undergone a still further series of welding and twisting operations. *Stub Damascus* barrels are made of a mixture of old files with old horse-nails; the files are heated, cooled in water, broken with hammers, and pounded in a mortar into small fragments; three parts of these fragments are mixed with five of stub; and the mixture is fused, forged, rolled, and twisted. An inferior kind of Damascus-twist is made by interlaying scraps of sheet-iron with charcoal, and producing an appearance of twist, but without the proper qualities. *Threepenny-skelp* and *Twopenny-skelp* are inferior kinds of barrel-iron; and the worst of all is *sham-damn skelp*, of which gun-barrels are made for hawking at a cheap price at country-fairs, and for barter with the Indians in fur-hunting countries.

The gun-barrel manufacture of England is now almost wholly conducted at Birmingham and at Enfield, very few barrels being made elsewhere. The best barrels are all twisted into form. The skelps, or long strips of prepared steel, are twisted into a close spiral a few inches long; several of these spirals are welded end to end; and the fissures are closed up by heating and hammering. The rough barrel, with a core or mandril temporarily thrust in it, is placed in a groove, and hammered cold until the metal becomes very dense, close, strong, and elastic. The interior is then bored truly cylindrical by a nicely-adjusted rotating cutting-tool. If, on narrow inspection, the interior is found to be straight and regular, the exterior is then ground on a rapidly revolving stone, and finally turned in a lathe. Commoner barrels are not twisted: the skelps are heated, laid in a semi-cylindrical groove, hammered till they assume the form of that groove, placed two and two together, and heated and hammered until one B. is made from the two halves. See PROOF.

Common barrels are browned externally with some kind of chemical stain; but the best are rubbed with fine files, and polished with steel burnishers.

BA'RREL-BULK, a term denoting a measurement of 5 cubic feet, used chiefly in the coasting-trade.

BA'RREL-ORGAN. An organ (q.v.) in which the music is produced by a barrel or cylinder, set with pins and staples, which, when driven round by the hand, opens the valves for admitting the wind to the pipes according to the notes of the music. The number of tunes that any one instrument can play is, of course, very limited. Barrel-organs are generally portable, and mostly used by street-musicians. A street-organ costs from £30 to £70, according to size. The most perfect barrel-organs are those which are driven by a motive-power, of which the best are made in Vienna, and cost from £100 to £300. The Orchestrion, made by Kaufmann in Dresden, is a large self-acting barrel-organ. See ORCHESTRION.

BARRHEAD, a town of recent growth in the east part of Renfrewshire, 6 miles south-west of Glasgow. It has cotton-mills, and bleaching and print works. Pop. (1871) 6209.

BARRICADES are defence-works employed both in the military and naval services. Military engineers, and sappers and miners, are instructed in the art of barricading streets and roads with beams, chains, *chevaux-de-frise*, and other obstacles, either in defending a town against besiegers, or in suppressing popular tumults. In a ship, a strong wooden rail, supported on stanchions, and extending across the foremost part of the quarter-deck, is called a barricade; during a naval action, the upper part of this barricade is sometimes stuffed with hammocks in a double rope-netting, to serve as a screen against the enemy's small-shot. B. have been made use of in street fights since the middle ages, but they are best known in connection with the insurrections in the city of Paris. As early as 1358, the streets of Paris were barricaded against the Dauphin, afterwards Charles V. A more noteworthy barricade-fight was that in 1588, when 4000 Swiss soldiers, marched into Paris by Henry III. to overawe the Council of Sixteen, would have been utterly destroyed by the populace, firing from behind B., had the court not consented to negotiation; and the result was, that the king fled next day. The next barricade-fight of importance in Paris was that of 1830, which resulted in the expulsion of the Bourbons from the throne of France, and the election of the citizen king, Louis Philippe. During the three days which this revolution lasted, the number of B. erected across the streets amounted to several thousands. They were formed of the most heterogeneous materials overturned vehicles, trees, scaffolding-poles, planks, building-materials, and street paving-stones, men, women, and children taking part in their erection. In February 1848, the insurrection against Louis Philippe commenced with the erection of B.; but the most celebrated and bloody barricade-fight was that between the populace and the Provisional Government, which, commencing on the night of the 23d June 1848, lasted throughout the three following days, when the people had to surrender. The national losses by this fight were estimated at 30,000,000 francs; 16,000 persons were killed and wounded, and 8000 taken prisoners. The Emperor Napoleon III. has so widened and macadamised the principal streets of Paris since he ascended the throne, as to render the successful erection of B. next to impossible. There was a remarkable barricade-erection in London in 1821. The ministry desired that the body of Queen Caroline should be conveyed out of the country to Germany, for interment, without the populace having the opportunity of making any demonstration. On the matter becoming known, a vast barricade was erected at the point where the Hampstead Road joins the New Road; and as nothing but the use of artillery could have forced the way, the officer in charge of the funeral cortege deemed it prudent to change his course, and pass through a more central part of the metropolis. During the revolutions of

1848, B. were successfully carried in Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and other places, by abandoning the attack in front, and breaking through the houses of contiguous streets, taking their defenders in the rear.

BA'RRIER ACT, the name commonly given to an act of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, 8th January 1697, intended as a barrier against innovations, and a hinderance to hasty legislation. It provides that no change can be made in the laws of the church without being submitted by that General Assembly which first approves it, to the consideration of all the presbyteries, and approved by a majority of them; after which it still remains to be considered by the next General Assembly, which then may or may not pass it into a law. The B. A. is regarded as of the greatest importance, both in the Established Church of Scotland, and in the Free Church. Analogous regulations have been adopted by other Presbyterian churches.

BA'RRIER REEF, an immense coral-reef extending along the north-east coast of Australia for nearly 1300 miles, at a distance from the shore of from 10 to upwards of 100 miles. The reef is, in general, precipitous, and in many places rises out of great depths, lines of 280 fathoms having failed to reach the bottom on the outer side. Formerly, ignorance of anything like its precise extent and character led to many shipwrecks; but within the last thirty years, it has been surveyed, and pretty accurately laid down on charts. In the course of its length there are several breaks or passages in it. In the voyage from Sydney to Torres Strait, the inner route is usually taken. It is narrow, and requires delicate steering; but it is safe, and not so much exposed as the outer route, which enters Torres Strait by Flinders Entrance.

BA'RRING OUT, a practice formerly very common in schools, but now almost, if not altogether, abandoned. It consisted in the scholars taking possession of the school, and fastening the doors against the master, at whose helplessness they scoffed from the windows. The usual time for B. O. was immediately prior to the periodical vacation. It seems to have been an understood rule in B. O., that if the scholars could sustain a siege against the master for three days, they were entitled to dictate terms to him regarding the number of holidays, hours of recreation, &c., for the ensuing year. If, on the other hand, the master succeeded in forcing an entry before the expiry of that period, the insurgents were entirely at his mercy. The masters, in most cases, appear to have acquiesced good-humouredly in the custom; but some chafed at it, and exerted their strength and their ingenuity to storm or surprise the garrison. Addison is said to have been the chief actor in a B. O. of the master of Lichfield. One remarkable and fatal case of B. O. occurred at the High School, Edinburgh, in September 1595. The scholars had to complain of an abridgment of their usual holidays by the town-council, who, on being remonstrated with, refused, even though the claim was supported by the master, to grant more than three of the eight days which the boys demanded as their privilege. They, accordingly, took advantage of the master's temporary absence to lay in a store of provisions, and having done so, they barricaded the doors. The magistrates, the patrons of the school, in vain sought admission, the boys saying they would treat with their master only; and after a day and night had passed, it was resolved to force an entrance. The result was, that one of them, Bailie Macmoran, was shot dead on the spot by a scholar named Sinclair. The scholars of Witton School, Cheshire, were directed by the statutes drawn up by the founder, Sir John Deane, to observe the practice: 'To the end that the schollars have not any evil opinion of the schoolmaster, nor the schoolmaster should not mistake the schollars for requiring of customs and orders, I will that upon Thursdays and Saturdays in the afternoons, and upon holydays, they refresh themselves—and a week before Christmas and Easter, *according to the old custom, they bar and keep forth the schoolmaster, in such sort as other schollars do in great schools.*' This school was founded in 1558. See Brand's *Popular Antiquities*, Chambers's *Domestic Annals*, and Carlisle's *Endowed Grammar Schools*.

BARRINGTONIA'CEÆ, a natural order of exogenous trees and shrubs, natives of tropical countries, and generally very beautiful both in foliage and flowers. Few plants, indeed, exceed some of them in beauty. The stamens are very numerous, and form a very conspicuous part of the flower. The fruit is fleshy, with bony seeds lodged in pulp. That of some species is eaten, as *Careya arborea*, an Indian tree, the stringy bark of which is used in the countries along the foot of the Himalayas as a slow match for matchlock guns. Humboldt and Bonpland mention that children become quite yellow after eating the fruit of an American species, *Gustavia speciosa*, of which, however, they are very fond; but that this colour disappears in a day or two. The MOORELLA (*Barringtonia speciosa*) is described by Sir J. E. Tennent as a tree which much attracts the attention of travellers in Ceylon. It has dark, glossy leaves, and delicate crimson-tipped white flowers. 'The stamens, of which there are nearly 100 to each flower, when they fall to the ground, might almost be mistaken for painters' brushes.' Some botanists include the order in *Myrtaceæ* (q. v.).

BA'RRISTER, REVISING. See REVISING BARRISTER.

BA'RRISTERS, or **BA'RRASTERS,** as sometimes spelt in old books. This is the distinctive name by which the advocates or pleaders at the English and Irish bars are known; and thus its derivation is perhaps sufficiently accounted for. They are admitted to their office under the rules and regulations of the INNS OF COURT (q. v.), and they are entitled to exclusive audience in all the superior courts of law and equity, and generally in all courts civil and criminal, presided over by a superior judge. In certain of the inferior tribunals, attorneys are allowed to practise without the assistance of counsel; but the disposition of the judges of these inferior courts is to encourage the presence of the regular bar, and to give them exclusive audience. In Scotland, the same body are styled ADVOCATES (q. v.), and they have the same exclusive privileges that B. enjoy in England and Ireland. These Scotch advocates, however, are members of the Faculty of Advocates, or Scotch Bar, properly so called, and are not to be confounded with the advocates who practise under that name in the town and county of Aberdeen, and who, as explained in a former article, are simply country attorneys. See ATTORNEYS AND SOLICITORS.

Barristers were first styled *Apprentices*, who answered to the bachelors of the universities, the state and degree of a serjeant did to that of doctor. These apprentices or barristers have been first appointed by an ordinance of Edward I. in parliament, in the twentieth year of his reign (Stephen's *Commentaries*, vol. i. p. 72, and authorities there referred to). Of barristers there are various ranks and degrees, each other they take precedence as to general name, 'counsel,'

court, common to them all. But they may be divided into three leading bodies. 1*st*, Barristers simply, or utter barristers, who occupy the position of junior counsel, wearing a plain stuff-gown and a short wig; 2*d*, *Serjants-at-law*, a legal order of very ancient state and degree, and who are distinguished by the *coif* and other peculiarities (see SERJEANTS-AT-LAW); and 3*d*, *Queen's Counsel*, or Her Majesty's Counsel learned in the law, as they are more formally called, and who may be selected either from the outer or junior bar, or from the serjeants. They may be described as the ordinary leaders of the bar, and are distinguished by a silk gown, and on state-occasions, and always in the House of Lords, they wear a full-bottomed wig. For further details, see QUEEN'S COUNSEL. Besides these three orders or gradations of rank at the English bar, the crown sometimes grants letters-patent of precedence to such barristers as Her Majesty may think proper to honour with that mark of distinction, whereby they are entitled to such rank and pre-audience as are assigned to them by their respective patents. See PRECEDENCE, PATENT OF.

Thus constituted, the English bar perform their functions, enjoying many professional privileges and immunities, and a high social position. As we have before stated, they have exclusive audience in all the superior courts, where upon terms and conditions, and according to an etiquette, which are all well understood by attorneys and solicitors, they confine upon themselves the protection and defence of any suitor, whether plaintiff or defendant. With the *brief* (q. v.), or other instructions, by means of which their professional services are retained, B. receive a fee, or such fee is endorsed on the brief or instructions, and afterwards paid. Such, generally, is the existing practice at the English bar, differing in this respect from the practice of the bar in Scotland and, we believe, to a great extent in Ireland also where *pre-payment* of the fee is the rigid etiquette. The amount of this fee in England depends, of course, on the nature of the business to be done, the time to be occupied, and the labour to be bestowed; and it is usually, especially in the case of leading counsel, a liberal sum. The barrister's fee, however, is not a matter of express contract or stipulation, recoverable at law like an attorney's bill of costs, but is regarded as a mere honorary reward - *quiddam honorarium*, as it is called in law-books. There is, therefore, no means of enforcing its payment, and indeed, in this respect, the barrister has nothing to rely upon but the honour and good faith of those who employ him. Where, however, it can be proved that the client or party gave money to the solicitor or attorney, with which to fee the counsel, the latter may maintain an action against the former for the amount.

In order to encourage due freedom of speech in the lawful defence of their clients, and, at the same time, to give a check to unseemly licentiousness, it has been held that a counsel is not answerable for any matter by him spoken, relative to the cause in hand, and suggested in his client's instructions, although it should reflect upon the reputation of another, and even prove absolutely groundless;* but if he mentions an untruth of his own invention, or even upon instructions, if it be impertinent to the cause in hand, he is then liable to an action from the party injured; and counsel guilty of deceit or collusion are punishable by the statute *Westm.* I. (3 Edw. I., c. 28) with imprisonment for a year and a day, and perpetual silence in the courts—a punishment which may be inflicted for gross misdemeanours in practice, although the course usually resorted to is for the Benchers of the Inn of Court, to which the person so offending belongs, to *disbar* him. See Stephen's *Commentary*, and Ker's *Blackstone*, and see BENCHERS and DISBAR.

But besides advocacy and forensic disputation, B. in England have other business to which they have extended their practice, to the great advantage of the public. This additional practice consists in advising on the law by their opinion on a case stated, by means of which harassing and fruitless litigation is often prevented (see OPINION OF COUNSEL); in drawing or preparing the pleadings or statement of facts on which an action or suit is founded (see PLEADING); and in preparing the drafts or scrolls of legal instruments, indentures, deeds, contracts, or other conveyances. See CONVEYANCING and CONVEYANCER. As a correlative privilege of the position in which they stand in respect of their fees, barristers are not personally liable for the injurious consequences of any erroneous advice they may give; and they claim absolute control over the conduct of all litigation in which they may be engaged, even to withdrawing it from court altogether, and referring it to arbitration; and until lately, it was the opinion of the profession that counsel might at any time, during the progress of a cause, compromise the matter in dispute; but the exercise of such discretion was successfully opposed in a recent case, and it may now be doubted whether B. have any *ex officio* privilege beyond the guidance and conduct of actual litigation in court.

It is from the body of B. that all the judges in England, superior and inferior, are appointed; but B. are also usually chosen for the office of police magistrate. The only exception to the exclusive appointment of B. to judicial offices, is the case of the Court of Quarter Sessions—a court of anomalous constitution and jurisdiction, but which works well in practice, and has many claims to consideration. See QUARTER SESSIONS.

The bar in Ireland stands on the same footing, and has the same ranks and degrees, and is subject very much to the same rules and regulations, as the English bar; and in that country, barrister also is the name by which the profession of an advocate is distinguished. In Scotland, the same office is simply called by its own name of *Advocate*. See ADVOCATES, FACULTY OF.

At the bar of the House of Lords, and before parliament generally, before the privy council, and also, it is believed, in all trials for high treason, whether in England, Ireland, or Scotland, the three bars rank on a footing of equality, taking precedence according to the date of their call and admission to their own respective bars, with the exception of those who are Queen's counsel, who recently have also been introduced into Scotland, and now are next in precedence to the Lord Advocate (see ADVOCATE, LORD), the *Solicitor General of Scotland* (q. v.), and the *Dean of Faculty* (q. v.). It was at one time disputed between the Lord Advocate of Scotland and the Attorney-General of England, which of them should lead the other at the bar of the House of Lords; and a case occurred in 1834 in the House of Lords, before Lord Chancellor Brougham, in which very high pretensions were urged on behalf of both functionaries. These were the present Lord Chancellor Campbell as attorney-general, and the late Lord Jeffrey as lord advocate, who contended that as he was not only the first law-officer of the crown in Scotland, but also a high political officer, he was entitled to lead the former. But the House decided that the attorney-general of England has precedency over the Lord Advocate of

* But the publication of the counsel's statement by a *third party* may expose such third party to an action.

Scotland, in all matters in which they may appear as counsel at their lordships' bar; and it is presumed that the same rule would be followed before parliament generally, the privy-council, and in all trials for high treason, whether in England, Ireland, or Scotland. The relative rank of the *Irish* law-officers has not been determined.

It only remains to be added, that as the three bars are on a footing of equality in the House of Lords, and the other imperial and supreme tribunals above mentioned, the English bar have no exclusive audience in these, even in English cases; but all causes whatever there, whether English, Irish, Scotch, or colonial, may be equally and indiscriminately taken and advocated by English, Irish, or Scotch counsel.

BA'RROS, JOÃO DE, the most distinguished of Portuguese historians, was born of an ancient and noble family at Viseu in 1496; became a page to King Emmanuel, and afterwards companion to the Crown Prince. He pursued his classical and other studies with great diligence, and wrote a historical romance in his 24th year, which attracted much admiration by the peculiar beauty of its style. Hereupon the king assigned him the task of writing the history of the Portuguese in India, which he undertook, but of which only the first three decades proceeded from his pen, under the title of *Asia Portugueza* (Lisb. 1552—1563); the continuation extending to twelve decades, was the work of Diego de Couto. (A new edition of the whole appeared at Lisbon, in 8 vols., in 1778—1788.) B. was for some time governor of the Portuguese settlements in Guinea, and afterwards treasurer and general agent for the Indies. In 1539, the king bestowed on him the province of Maranhao in Brazil, that he might found a colony there; but he was obliged to renounce the enterprise after much loss. He died at his estate of Alitem on the 20th of October 1570.

BARRO'SA, a village of Spain 16 miles south-south-east of Cadiz, celebrated in history as the place where General Graham (afterwards Lord Lynedoch), in March 1811, with a handful of English troops, succeeded in gaining over the French, after his Spanish allies had retreated, one of the most glorious victories of the Peninsular campaign. More than 2000 French were killed and wounded (some authorities give nearly 3000 killed alone), 300 prisoners taken, 6 pieces of cannon, and an eagle—the first captured in the war.

BARROT, CAMILLE HYACINTHE ODILLON, a French jurist and statesman, son of a member of the Convention, and afterwards of the Council of Five Hundred, was born at Villefort, Lozère, 19th July 1791. In 1814, he became an advocate in the Court of Cassation, Paris, and soon acquired a high reputation as an eloquent pleader. Entering the Chamber of Deputies young, he in time came to be regarded as one of the most influential leaders of the liberal opposition. At the Revolution of 1830, he was one of the three commissioners appointed by the provisional government to accompany Charles X. from Rambouillet to Cherbourg, on his embarkation for England. Under the new government, he was appointed prefect of the department of the Seine; and in Lafayette's ministry, a member of the Council of State. In a few months, however, he resigned his office of prefect, and declined the post of ambassador at Constantinople, offered him by Louis Philippe. After Casimir Périer became minister, he lost also his place in the Council of State. He now began his opposition career in the Chamber of Deputies against the reactionary policy of the government, and became the rallying-point for all who desired the carrying out of the principles of the July revolution. He essentially contributed to the removal of the Doctrinaires (q. v.) from office, in February 1836, and energetically opposed the ministry of Molé, even supporting the Doctrinaires in accomplishing its overthrow, in January 1839. The same year he visited England and Scotland. When, in March 1840, Thiers was placed at the head of the government, B. for the first time declared himself in favour of the ministerial policy on the oriental question. On the return of Guizot to office in October following, his opposition to the government was renewed. Taking a conspicuous part in the Reform movement of 1847, he attended several of the provincial reform banquets, which led to the revolution of 1848. On the outbreak of the struggle of 23d February, when Louis Philippe called upon Thiers to form a new ministry, B. was appointed president. His advice to the king to withdraw his troops proved fatal to the throne of July. In the last sitting of the Chamber of Deputies, B. supported the claim of the Count de Paris to the throne, and the regency of the Duchess of Orleans. Under the presidency of Louis Napoleon he was for some time a minister, and conducted the government with success till 1851, when he retired from active political life. Since then, almost his only public appearance has been at the conferences in favour of Poland, held at Paris in 1864. In his retirement, he has, however, written a pamphlet, *De la Centralisation et de ses Effets* (1861), and several other papers on political subjects.

BA'RROW, a distinctive term applied to two prominent localities of the Arctic Ocean in honour of the secretary to the Admiralty of the same name, the prime mover in the more recent era of northern discovery.—1. *Point B.*, in lat. 71° 23′ N., and long. 156° 31′ W., generally received as the most northerly spot on the American mainland; see, however, BELLOT STRAIT, and MURCHISON PROMONTORY. From this circumstance it has also been called *Cape North*—a designation inconveniently ambiguous, as tending to confound this headland at once with Cape North in Asia, and with North Cape in Europe.—2. *Barrow Strait*, the earliest of Parry's discoveries, leading to the west out of Lancaster Sound, which Parry's immediate predecessor, Captain, afterwards Sir John Ross, had pronounced to be landlocked in that direction. Besides its main course, B. Strait throws off *Prince Regent's Inlet* to the south, and *Wellington Channel* to the north. The passage averages about 40 miles in breadth, extending pretty nearly along the parallel of 74° N., from 84° to 90° W.

The interval between these two localities, thus spanning 66° of long. or at least 2000 miles, only one navigator has ever traversed—the indefatigable M'Clure, carrying his good ship, the *Investigator*, round Point B., and leaving her behind him only when almost in sight of B. Strait.

BA'RROW, a river in the south-east of Ireland. Of the Irish rivers, it is in importance next to the Shannon. It rises in the north of Queen's County, on the north-east slope of the Slieve Bloom ridge of mountains. It flows first east past Portarlington to the border of Kildare County, and then south between Queen's, Kilkenny, and Waterford counties on the west, and Kildare, Carlow, and Wexford counties on the east, passing the towns of Athy, Carlow, and New Ross. It has a course of 100 miles through a carboniferous, granitic, and silurian basin. Two miles above New Ross it receives the Nore (q. v.), and eight miles east of Waterford, it is joined by the Suir (q. v.). These three rivers (called the Three Sisters, from their rising in the same mountain-ridge, and joining near

sea, after flowing through different counties) n, near the sea, the large and secure estuary of arford harbour, 9 miles long. The B. is navig- for ships of 300 tons to New Ross, 25 miles up, for barges to Athy, 65 miles up, whence the nd Canal communicates with Dublin. The B., w Portarlington, falls 227 feet.

RROW, Isaac, an eminent English mathe- ician and divine, was born in 1630. He received early education at the Charter-house, where he distinguished chiefly by his negligence and nacity. At Felstead school, in Essex, to which rent next, he greatly improved; and in 1643, he entered at Peter-house, Cambridge, under his le Isaac Barrow, then a fellow of that college, finally bishop of St Asaph. On the ejection of uncle in 1645, he removed to Trinity College, he became B.A. in 1648, fellow in 1649, and in 1652. Finding that to be a good theologian must know chronology, that chronology implies nomy, and astronomy mathematics, he applied self to the latter science with distinguished ess. To the classics he had already devoted h study, and on the vacancy of the Greek chair, as recommended for the office; but a suspicion Arminianism interfered with his success. After disappointment, he went abroad (1655), and elled during four years through France and y, to Smyrna and Constantinople, back to ice, and home through Germany and Holland. the voyage from Leghorn to Smyrna, his determined personal courage seems to have been instrumental in scaring away an Algerine pirate, after a k exchange of shots. Soon after his return he orders, and in the following year was appointed ssor of Greek. The neglect with which he treated after the Restoration is celebrated in couplet addressed to the king:

> Te magis optavit rediturum, Carole, nemo,
> Et nemo sensit te rediisse minus.

662, he was appointed to the Greekam professorship of geometry, which, on his being appointed to Lucasian professorship in 1663, he thought it his to resign. The latter also he resigned in 1669, favour of his pupil Isaac Newton. On quitting professorship, he obtained from his uncle a small ng in Wales, and from Dr Seth Ward, bishop alisbury, a prebend in that cathedral. He devoted the revenues of both to charitable purposes, resigned them in 1672, on being appointed by king Master of Trinity College. To him, while his office, is due the foundation of that valuable y, which is one of the chief ornaments of the ersity. In 1675, he was nominated vice-chancellor of the university; and in 1677, he died at the y age of 47, having achieved, by his numerous works, and the force of his noble personal acter, a reputation which time has left unimpaired. Of his original mathematical works, the cipal are his *Lectiones Geometricæ* and *Lectiones ticæ*, of which it has been said that they are nne of curious interesting propositions, to which try is always applied with particular elegance.' s theologian, his fame rests chiefly on his ions, which are very remarkable as specimens lear, exhaustive, and vigorous discussion. His ons, it may be added, were generally of excessive length. One, on charity, lasted three hours and lf; and at Westminster Abbey, he once detained audience so long that they got the organ to 'till they had blowed him down.' B.'s English ks, consisting of sermons, expositions, &c., have been edited by Dr Tillotson, Dean of Canterbury, prefaced with a life by Mr Hill. His works, besides those already mentioned, are very numerous, and include *Euclidis Elementa*, *Euclidis Data*, *Mathematicæ Lectiones*, *Opuscula*, containing Latin sermons, poems, speeches, &c. *Lectiones Mathematicæ* and *L. Geometricæ* have been translated by Kirby and Stone. *Euclidis Elementa* has also been translated.

BARROW, Sir John, Baronet, an English traveller, was born on the 19th June 1764, at Dragleybeck, in Lancashire; was early instructed in mathematics; and after having published a small volume on land-surveying, filled a situation in a Liverpool iron-foundry, visited Greenland with a whaler, and after his return taught mathematics in an academy at Greenwich. He received an appointment as private secretary and keeper of accounts to Lord Macartney, who went as ambassador to China. He availed himself of his residence in China to learn the Chinese language, and to collect valuable materials for the account of China, which he afterwards gave to the world, partly in articles in the *Quarterly Review*, and partly in his *Travels in China* (Lond. 1804). When Lord Macartney afterwards became governor of Cape Colony, B. availed himself of his residence in South Africa to make extensive excursions in the interior of the country, which he described in his still valuable *Travels in the Interior of Southern Africa* (2 vols., Lond. 1801—1803). Having returned to London, in the year 1804, he was appointed by Lord Melville secretary to the Admiralty, which situation he continued to hold till 1845, except for a short time in 1806. Besides the works above mentioned, B. published *A Voyage to Cochin-China in the Years* 1792 *and* 1793 (Lond. 1806), *The Life of Macartney* (2 vols., Lond. 1807), *A Chronological History of Voyages into the Arctic Regions* (Lond. 1818); also a series of Lives of English Naval Worthies. Under Peel's ministry in 1835, he was raised to the baronetcy. In the year 1845 he retired from public service, but afterwards published *An Autobiographical Memoir* (Lond. 1847), and *Sketches of the Royal Society*, and died at London, 23d November 1848. He rendered many services to geographical science by suggesting and promoting Arctic expeditions; with him also originated the idea of the Geographical Society, founded in 1830, of which he was vice-president till his death.

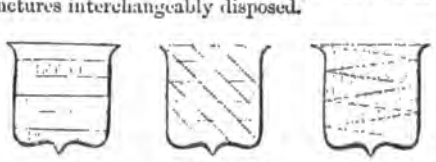
BARROW-ON-SOAR, a village in the north of Leicestershire, 10 miles north of Leicester. It is noted for its lime or terras, which makes good cement under water. It has manufactures of lace and stockings. It has free schools and several charities; and is the seat of the Poor-Law Union of the district, with a workhouse capable of accommodating 500 persons.

BARROWS, artificial mounds of earth generally believed to have been erected for sepulchral or monumental purposes. They are very numerous in Great Britain, and many of them are supposed to belong to a period long prior to the Roman invasion. The counties of Wilts and Dorset are especially rich in these remains, and the B. of the former have been thoroughly explored, described, and classified by Sir R. C. Hoare in his *Ancient Wiltshire* (2 vols. fol. 1810—1821). In the sepulchral B., the human remains are buried either in a rude stone 'cist' or chest, in which the body was doubled up, or are laid at full length in the earth, accompanied by arms and other utensils. Where the body was burned, the remains were laid on the floor of the barrow, in a cist excavated on the spot, or at a later epoch, in a clay urn. Sir R. Hoare considers the Wiltshire B. as indicating three stages in the progress of society. The first class contains spear and arrow heads of flint and bone; the second,

of brass; and the third contains arms and instruments made of iron. One of the largest barrows in Europe is Silbury Hill, near Marlborough, in Wiltshire, which covers 5 acres, 34 perches of land, and has a slope of 316 feet, with a perpendicular height of 170. According to Sir R. Hoare, barrow-burial was practised down to the 8th c., from a period of unknown antiquity. The practice of erecting sepulchral mounds prevailed among all the principal nations of antiquity both in Europe and Asia, and they are found in great numbers in Central America. Many barrows are only partly artificial; natural mounds having been shaped by human hands into the form, round or oblong, which it was wished they should take.

BA'RRY, a small island, of about a mile long, in the Bristol Channel, off the south coast of Glamorganshire, 10 miles south-west of Cardiff. It has the ruins of an ancient castle and of two chapels. On Nell's Point, in the south part of the island, is a fine well, to which great numbers of women resort on Holy Thursday, and having washed their eyes in the spring, each drops a pin into it.

BA'RRY (in Heraldry), the term applied to a shield which is divided transversely into four, six, or more equal parts, and consisting of two or more tinctures interchangeably disposed.



Barry. Barry-bendy. Barry-pily.

Barry-bendy is where the shield is divided into four, six, or more equal parts, by diagonal lines, the tincture of which it consists being varied interchangeably.

Barry-pily is where the shield is divided by diagonal lines, the colours being interchanged as in the example.

BA'RRY, Comtesse du. See Vaubernier.

BA'RRY CO'RNWALL. See Procter, Bryan Walter.

BA'RRY, Sir Charles, R.A., architect of the two Houses of Parliament, son of Walter Barry, Esq., Westminster, was born there in May 1795. Educated at private schools in Leicestershire and Bedfordshire, he was indentured to Messrs Middleton and Bailey, architects, Lambeth. In 1817, at the age of 22, he went to Italy. A wealthy countryman of his own, attracted by the beauty of his drawings, took him with him to Egypt, as his companion, defraying his expenses. He also visited Greece and Rome. On his return to England after an absence of three and a half years, he became the successful competitor for the design of a church at Brighton. He was also the architect of the Manchester Athenæum, a building in the Grecian style; and of the Grammar School of King Edward VI. at Birmingham; the latter esteemed the most beautiful of his works. In London, he designed the Traveller's Club, and the Reform Club, both in Pall Mall, and the College of Surgeons, Lincoln's Inn Fields. After the burning of the old Houses of Parliament in 1834, on a public competition, B.'s design for the new building was adjudged the best. The work was commenced in 1840; and on 34 February 1852, Her Majesty opened the Victoria Tower and Royal Gallery in state, and on the occasion knighted the architect. Chosen a Royal Academician in 1842, Sir Charles was also a Fellow of the Royal Society, of the Society of Arts, and of the Institute of British Architects. He died May 12, 1860.

BA'RRY, James, a historical painter, born at Cork, October 11, 1741; and distinguished more by the force of his conception than the excellence of his manipulation, or the beauty of his colour. Dr Johnson's criticism on his works was: 'Whatever the hand may have done, the mind has done its part. There is a grasp of mind there which you will find nowhere else.' The *chef-d'œuvre* of B. is the *Victors at Olympia*—a work, the sight of which, Canova said, was of itself sufficient to repay a journey to England. B. was a protégé of Edmund Burke. He was of irritable temper, which led him into many quarrels; and the result of one with the Royal Academy was his expulsion from the academy. He died on the 22d of February 1806, in poor circumstances, while some friends were engaged in raising subscriptions to purchase him an annuity.

BA'RRY, Martin, a physiologist of eminence, was born at Fratton, Hampshire, in 1802. He studied at the medical schools of London, and also at the university of Edinburgh, where he took his degree of M.D. in 1833. He wrote much on physiological subjects, and especially on animal development and embryology, for discoveries in which he is best known. Until the publication of his papers in the 'Philosophical Transactions' of the Royal Society of London in 1840–1843, it was not known that spermatozoa actually penetrate *within* the ovum; and physiologists are also indebted to him for the knowledge of the segmentation of the yelk in mammals. In his private capacity, B. was amiable and greatly benevolent. His means being ample, he gave his professional services largely to the poor; and he acted as house-surgeon to the Edinburgh Royal Maternity Hospital. He died at Beccles, in Suffolk, in April 1855.

BARSCH, or BARS, a fortified town of Hungary, capital of the county of the same name. It is situated on the Gran, which divides it into Old and New B. It is a mart of some importance for grain and fruit. Pop. of county, 137,191.

BAR-SUR-AUBE, a town of France, in the department of Aube, situated on the right bank of the river of that name. It is an ill-built ancient town; numerous old coins and urns attesting that the Romans must have had a station here. It was destroyed by the Huns in the 5th c., but rebuilt again soon after, when it became a place of commercial importance. A chapel built on the bridge which here crosses the Aube, now marks the spot from which the Bastard of Bourbon was hurled into the river by command of Charles VII. in 1440. It is also noteworthy as the place where the council of the allied sovereigns, which decided the plan of the campaign ending in the first fall of the Empire, was held in February 23, 1814; and where, two days after, the French were defeated by the allies, under the chief command of Schwartzenberg. B. has a population of 4336; a good trade in wine, wood, hemp, corn, and wool. Its principal industrial products are calicoes, table-covers, brandy, paper, vinegar, and nails.

BAR-SUR-SEINE, an ancient town of France, in the department of Aube, pleasantly situated on the left bank of the Seine. It has a trade in grain, brandy, wool, and wine. Pop. 2443. It is celebrated as the place where the allies, under the Prince of Würtemberg, defeated the French under Macdonald, in March 1814.

BARTA'N, a town of Anatolia, situated near the mouth of the Chati-su (ancient *Parthenius*) on the Black Sea. Pop. 10,000, who carry on a brisk trade with Constantinople.

BARTAS, Guillaume de Salluste, a soldier, diplomatist, and man of letters, was born at Montfort, in Armagnac, about the year 1544. His reputation was great during his lifetime, alike in 'the court, the camp, the grove.' His chief poem is *The Divine Weeks and Works*, which gives an account of the creation, and the history of the Jews as far as the book of Chronicles, and is said to have had a considerable influence on Milton's *Paradise Lost*. Thirty editions of the work passed through the press in six years. Dryden, when a boy, thought his verse incomparably superior to Spenser's; an opinion, however, which he lived to be ashamed of having ever entertained. B.'s name is now quite forgotten, or remembered only in connection with bad taste. It is not to be denied, however, that his fancy, though generally grotesque and lawless, occasionally strikes out most picturesque imagery and epithets. His use of compound words first led to their introduction into England, through his translator Sylvester (q.v.), and to the consequent enrichment of our poetry. He died of wounds received at the battle of Ivry, 1590.

BARTER, in commerce and political economy, a term used to express the exchange of one commodity for another, as contrasted with the sale of commodities for money. It is usual to suppose that in the history of any community B. preceded the other methods of commerce, as people would find the convenience of exchanging one article for another before they were acquainted with money or credit. In point of fact, ships visiting savage countries are generally to some extent freighted with weapons, tools, or ornaments, to be used in B., if it be desirable to carry on a trade with the inhabitants. Under old artificial systems of political economy, there was much useless discussion about the question, whether a B.-trade or a money-payment trade was more advantageous to the community at large, and which of them should be encouraged while the other is depressed. On the one side, it was maintained that nothing but an export sale for cash was really profitable; on the other, that it was more advantageous to get goods in return, because thus there was a double transaction and double profit. See Balance of Trade. But the simple doctrine of the present day, that whatever the merchant finds most profitable to himself will also be most profitable to the community, saves the necessity of making these distinctions, and of acting upon them by interference with commerce. B. is, in reality, one of the commonest forms of trade, taken at large in the present day. The exporter sends goods to his agent, who, without probably ever touching hard cash in the course of the transaction, lays in a cargo of import goods with the value, and these are literally brought home in exchange for those sent out.

In Law, Barter, or Exchange, as it is now more generally called in law-books, is a contract for transferring property, the consideration being some other commodity; or it may be described as a contract for the exchange of two subjects or commodities. It thus differs from *sale*, which is a contract for the transference of property in consideration of a price in *money*. See Exchange; Sale.

BARTFA, or BARTFELD, a small but very old free town of North Hungary, in the province of Saros, on the Tepla, 155 miles north-east of Pesth. Its position on the borders of Galicia has frequently made it a place of refuge for Poles and Russians. Its hot baths are much frequented, and a trade in wine, brandy, linen, and earthenware is carried on. Pop. 5303.

BARTH, Heinrich, Ph.D., D.C.L., an enterprising modern African traveller, born at Hamburg, 19th May 1821, received his education in his native town, and afterwards went to the university of Berlin. In his youth his favourite studies were the Roman and Greek classics and antiquities, along with the geographical sciences. Hence he imbibed a strong desire to explore the shores and countries of the Mediterranean. After visiting Italy and Sicily, he embarked, in 1845, at Marseille, and from Gibraltar passed over to Tangier in Africa. Proceeding along the Algerian coast he made excursions into the interior, to Tunis, Tripoli, and Bengazi. On his journey thence to Cairo, he was attacked by a band of Arab robbers, whom he bravely resisted, but was severely wounded, and lost all his effects and papers. He afterwards extended his researches into Egypt, Sinai, Palestine, Asia Minor, and Greece. These travels occupied him for nearly three years, and in 1849 he published, at Berlin, an account of a portion of them in a work entitled *Wanderungen durch die Küstenländer des Mittelmeers*. On the 8th December of that year he again sailed from Marseille, having been (along with Dr Overweg) appointed by the British government scientific companion to Mr James Richardson, then charged by the Foreign Office with a political and commercial mission to Central Africa. Starting from Tripoli on the 4th February 1850, Dr B. and his companion crossed the Great Desert amid much difficulty and danger. B. soon separated from his friends, and pursued his researches for the most part by himself. Both Mr Richardson and Dr Overweg succumbed to the climate, and thenceforward B. was quite alone. He did not, however, return disheartened, but continued his explorations, which, when he returned to Tripoli in September 1855, had extended over 24 degrees of latitude and 20 of longitude, from Tripoli in the north to Adamawa in the south, and from Bagirmi in the east to Timbuktu in the west, upwards of 12,000 miles. The result of his researches was given to the world in his *Travels and Discoveries in Central Africa*, 5 vols. (London, 1857–1858). Afterwards, he made several journeys in Greece, Turkey, Asia Minor, and other countries on the Mediterranean. Shortly after returning from one of these, he died at Dresden, Nov. 25, 1866. In 1858, appeared his *Reise von Tripolis durch die Wüste Hamâda, Kleinasien nach Skutari*; in 1862, his *Sammlung und Bearbeitung central-afrik. Vokabularien*.

BARTH, Jean, or BART, a French naval hero, the son of a fisherman, born in 1651 at Dunkirk, but, according to others, in the Netherlands. At an early age he entered the Dutch navy, but on the commencement of the war with Holland he passed over to the French service. As persons not of noble birth could not then obtain the rank of officer in the navy, he became captain of a privateer. In this capacity he displayed astonishing bravery, so that Louis XIV. despatched him on a special mission to the Mediterranean. His exploits at last induced the king to appoint him lieutenant of a man-of-war. In an action against a superior English force he was taken prisoner, and carried to Plymouth, from which he made his escape in an open fishing-boat to France, where the king now raised him to the rank of captain. In the year 1696, Louis XIV. received him with distinction at Versailles, but at the same time spoke continually of the mischance which had befallen him the year before. Stung by this, B. hastened to Dunkirk, and in spite of the blockade of the harbour by the English, undertook a cruise, in which he was remarkably successful. Louis XIV., in a personal audience in 1697, appointed him to the command of a squadron, upon which B. exclaimed: 'Sire, you have done well in this.' The courtiers laughed, as at a piece of gross rudeness; but the king took the answer in

good part, and B. very soon shewed how well he merited such an appointment. The peace of Ryswick terminated his active career. He died at Dunkirk in 1702. His rough frankness and coarse wit, in which he spared neither high nor low, made him popular, no less than his boldness and readiness for battle. When the Prince de Conti was nominated king of Poland, B. was required, by command of Louis XIV., to convey him to Elsinore, and the ship being attacked by the English on the voyage, was near being taken. After the action, the prince expressed to him his great delight that they had escaped from the enemy. 'We had no need,' was the reply, 'to be afraid of being made prisoners; I had despatched my son with a match to the powder-magazine, to blow up the ship on the first wink!'

BARTHÉLEMY, JEAN JACQUES, a historian and antiquary, born 20th January 1716, at Cassis, near Aubagne, in Provence. He was educated under the Jesuits for the church, but soon abandoned all thought of becoming a priest, and devoted himself to the study of the Greek, Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, and Chaldee languages, though he retained the dress and title of an abbé. He first acquired distinction by the discovery of the Palmyran alphabet. In 1745, he was appointed assistant-superintendent of the Royal Cabinet of Medals, and in 1747 elected a member of the *Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres*. To complete his studies, he visited Rome in 1754, in the suite of M. de Stainville, afterwards Duke of Choiseul, and then French ambassador, where he was courteously received by Pope Benedict XIV. After his return, he was again employed in the arrangement of the Royal Cabinet of Medals, which he augmented by a great number of costly specimens. The Duc de Choiseul, who became minister in 1758, placed him, by means of a pension and other favours, in a position to devote himself entirely to learned researches, which he quietly pursued till the revolution of 1789 deprived him of his offices. In September 1793, he was imprisoned on charge of being an aristocrat, but almost immediately released. Shortly after, he was offered the situation of national librarian then vacant, but his age and infirmities compelled him to decline accepting it. He died on the 30th April 1795.

His most celebrated and popular work is the *Voyage du jeune Anacharsis en Grèce dans le Milieu du quatrième Siècle avant l'ère Chrétienne*. Paris, 1788, 4 vols. (Travels of the Young Anacharsis in Greece about the Middle of the Fourth Century B. C.). The work (see ANACHARSIS) is a very pleasing and agreeable performance; exhibits an extensive knowledge of the ancient world, especially of Greece and its colonies; and abounds in observations which, if not profound, are at least judicious. Later and more severe criticism has, however, pointed out many deficiencies and anachronisms. It has been translated into almost every European language. Among B.'s other works may be mentioned a romance, entitled *Voyage en Polydore* (Paris, 1760); *Explication de la Musique de Palestrine* (Paris, 1760); *Réflexions sur l'Alphabet et la Langue de Palmyre* (Paris, 1754).

BARTHÉLEMY SAINT-HILAIRE, JULES, a learned Frenchman, member of the Institute, and formerly a representative of the people, was born at Paris on the 19th of August 1805. He first held a subordinate office under the minister of finance. During 1828–1830, he was one of the editors of the *Globe*, a Paris paper. After the July revolution, he took part with the society *Aidetoi et le Ciel t'aidera* (q. v.), revised several of its democratic manifestoes, established the *Bon Sens*, and continued to attack the government of Louis Philippe in the *Constitutionnel*, the *Courrier-Français*, and the *National*. In 1833, he desisted from political strife, and betook himself to more quiet studies. In 1834, he was named *Repétiteur* for the French Literature Class in the *Ecole Polytechnique;* and in 1838, professor of Greek and Latin philosophy in the *Collège de France*. The revolution of February, however, brought him once more into the political arena. He was appointed secretary to the Provisional Government, but refused his support to the government of Cavaignac, and even appeared as his accuser, though he failed to establish his charges against the suppressor of the June insurrection. B. was at first in favour of Louis Napoleon, but the *coup d'état* on the 2d of December, and the overthrow of the constitution, compelled him to become an oppositionist. He then retired for a time from public life, and resigned his chair; but in 1862 he was reappointed, and, at the general election of 1869, was returned to the Corps Législatif as deputy for the first circumscription of Seine-et-Oise.

His principal writings are his translations of Aristotle's works—*Politique d'Aristote* (Paris, 1837); *De la Logique d'Aristote* (1838); *La Logique d'Aristote*, translated into French for the first time (1839—1844, 4 vols.); *Psychologie d'Aristote, Traité de l'âme* (1846); *De l'Ecole d'Alexandrie* (1845); *Rapport sur la Comparaison de la Philosophie Morale et Politique de Platon et d'Aristote, avec les Doctrines des plus grands Philosophes Modernes* (1854); *Des Vêdas* (1854); *Du Bouddhisme* (1855). An enlarged edition of this last work, containing an account of Buddhism as practised in Ceylon at the present day, was published in 1860.

BARTHEZ, PAUL JOSEPH, one of the most learned physicians of France, son of a distinguished engineer, born in Montpellier, 11th December 1734. After serving as an army-physician, he founded at Montpellier a medical school, which rose to a high European reputation. His *Nouveaux Eléments de la Science de l'Homme* (Montpell. 1778; 2d ed., 2 vols., Par. 1806), in which he set forth a system founded on dynamical principles, was translated into most of the languages of Europe. He became, in 1785, titular chancellor of the university of Montpellier; and consultations with him on serious cases were sought from all parts of the civilised world. The revolution deprived him of the greater part of his property and his places, and compelled him to leave Paris; but Napoleon recalled him, and heaped honours and dignities upon him in his old age. He died in great suffering, after an operation for stone in the bladder, on 15th October 1806. Of his numerous writings, the following deserve special mention: *Nouvelle Mécanique des Mouvements de l'Homme et des Animaux* (Carcassonne, 1798; *Traitement des Maladies Goutteuses* (2 vols., Par. 1802; new ed., 1819; and *Consultation de Médecine* (2 vols., Par. 1810).—See Lordat, *Exposition de la Doctrine Médicale de Barthez, et Mémoires sur la Vie de ce Médecin* (Par. 1818).

BARTHOLIN, the name of a Danish family distinguished for learning and authorship, and the members of which have filled many important offices, especially in the university of Copenhagen. KASPAR B., born 12th February 1585, at Malmö, where his father was a minister, studied theology and philosophy at Rostock and Wittenberg, and afterwards studied medicine. In the year 1610, he was made doctor of medicine at Basle. He practised for some time in Wittenberg, and in 1613 accepted an invitation to be professor of the Greek language and of medicine at Copenhagen, where, in 1624, he became professor of theology. He died at Sora in 1629. His *Institutiones Anatomicæ* (Wittenb., 1611, and often reprinted), which were translated into the

German, French, English, and Oriental languages, served in the 17th c., in many universities, as a text-book for prelections. Of his sons, who are all known in the learned world, the following especially deserve to be mentioned: the orientalist, JACOB B., born 1623, died at Heidelberg, 1653, known as the editor of the cabalistic works, *Bohir* and *Mojan Hachochma*; and THOMAS B., equally celebrated as a philologist, naturalist, and physician, who was born 20th October 1616. He became, in 1647, professor of mathematics, and in 1648 professor of anatomy, at Copenhagen; demitted these offices in 1661, and thereafter lived in retirement upon his estate of Hagestad. In 1670, the king appointed him his physician in ordinary, which situation he filled till his death, 4th November 1680. He enlarged the new edition of his father's Anatomy (Leyd., 1641; often reprinted) with a mass of new observations. Besides many other valuable anatomical and medical works, his works on biblical and other antiquities, and on natural philosophy, are particularly worthy of notice. He was one of the most learned and studious of physicians, and warmly defended Harvey's doctrine of the circulation of the blood. His son, KASPAR B., born 1654, died 1704, was likewise an accomplished anatomist; and another son, THOMAS B., born 1659, died 1690, is the author of a standard work on northern antiquities—the *Antiquitatum Danicorum Libri Tres* (Copenh., 1689); also of *De Causis Contemptæ a Danis adhuc gentilibus Mortis*.

BARTHOLOMEW, St, one of the twelve apostles, supposed to be the same person as Nathaniel. He was a native of Galilee, but nothing authentic is known regarding his life and labours. According to the traditionary record of Eusebius, he carried Christianity into India; Chrysostom speaks of him as a missionary in Armenia and Asia Minor, while a still later legend declares that he was crucified at Albania Pyla, the modern Derbend, a town on the Caspian Sea. The relics of St B. 'appeared' at Rome in 983 A.D., and are preserved there in the church bearing his name. The Roman and Anglo-catholic Churches hold a festival in his memory on the 24th August; the Greek Church, on the 11th June. The primitive church possessed an apocryphal Gospel under his name, but it is now lost.

BARTHOLOMEW, St, a Caribbean island, ceded, in 1784, by France to Sweden, whose sole transatlantic colony it is. It lies about 30 miles to the west of St Kitts, the lat. and long. of its east point being respectively 17° 53′ N., and 62° 52′ W. With an area of only 35 square miles, St B. contains about 10,000 inhabitants. The soil is fertile, though, as is generally the case in the group, fresh water is scarce. Like most of its neighbours, St B. is difficult of access, its only harbour being on its west side, near the chief town Gustavia.

BARTHOLOMEW FAIR, formerly held at West Smithfield, London, but discontinued since 1855. The charter of this fair was granted by Henry I., in 1133, to a monk named Rayer or Rahere, who had been his jester, and had founded the church and priory of St Bartholomew, with an hospital attached. The fair was held annually at the festival of St Bartholomew (August 24, old style), and, like all ancient fairs, was originally connected with the church, under whose auspices Miracle-plays (q. v.), founded on the legends of saints, were represented, which gave place to Mysteries, and these again to Moralities; afterwards, profane stories were introduced—the origin of the modern English drama. After the opening of the fair, it was customary anciently for wrestlers to exercise their art. Wild rabbits were hunted for sport by the mob, and the scholars from the different London schools met at the priory for disputations on grammar and logic, and to wrangle together in verse. In the first centuries of its existence, B. F. was one of the great annual markets of the nation, and the chief cloth-fair of the kingdom. The clothiers of England and the drapers of London had their standings, during the fair, in the priory churchyard. A pedlar's court, or court of *Pie Poudre* (q. v.), was held within the priory gates, for debts and contracts, before a jury of traders formed on the spot, at which the prior, as lord of the fair, presided by his representative or steward. In 1445, four persons were appointed by the Court of Aldermen as keepers of the fair and of the court of *Pie Poudre*, the city being thus in that court represented as joint lord of the fair with the prior. As the fair prospered, its chief articles of traffic were, in the first instance, cloth stuffs, leather, pewter, and live cattle; while it was rendered attractive to the crowds that attended it by a variety of popular amusements. All manner of shows, exhibitions, theatrical booths, &c., thronged the fair; and tumblers, acrobats, stilt-walkers, mummers, mountebanks, and merry-andrews resorted to it in great numbers. On the suppression of the religious houses, the priory was disjoined from the hospital, and the latter, on 27th December 1546, was, by Henry VIII., transferred to the corporation of London, a new hospital being established on the site of the former. The priory was purchased for £1064, 11s. 3d. by Sir Richard Rich, Chancellor of the Court of Augmentations, afterwards Lord Chancellor under the title of Lord Rich, and became his town-house. Towards the close of the 16th c., streets of houses began to be built on the site of the Cloth Fair, a name which is still retained. In 1593, the keeping of the fair was, for the first time, suspended by the raging of the plague. The same thing happened in 1603, in 1625, in 1630, in 1665, and in 1666. At this fair, foreigners were at first licensed for three days, and the city freemen as long as they would, which was six or seven days. In 1661, after the Restoration, the fair lasted for fourteen days or more. In 1685, it was leased by the city to the sword-bearer. After this period, it began to decay as a place of trade. In 1691, the continuance of the fair was limited to three days, besides the proclamation-day. In 1701, it was represented as a nuisance. In 1750 it was again limited to three days. By the alteration of the calendar in 1752, the fair, in the following year, was, for the first time, proclaimed on 3d September. In 1798, the question of abolishing the fair was discussed by the corporation. It had long ceased to be a place of traffic, and was only considered as a haunt of amusement, riot, and dissipation. The fair had latterly been attended only by the keepers of a few gingerbread-stalls; and in 1839, measures were first seriously adopted for its suppression. In 1840, the exhibitions were removed to Islington. Wild-beast shows were allowed, but dwarfs and giants were excluded. In 1850, the last proclamation by the lord mayor took place, and in 1855 the once famous B. F. came to an end. An octavo volume, entitled *Memoirs of Bartholomew Fair*, by Henry Morley, was published in London in 1859.

BARTHOLOMEW'S (ST) DAY (Fr. *La St.-Barthélemy*; Ger. *Bartholomäusnacht*, i. e., Bartholomew's Night, or *Bluthochzeit*, i. e., Blood-wedding), the appellation given to the massacre of the Protestants in Paris on the night of St B. D., between 24th and 25th August 1572. After the death of Francis II. in 1560, Catharine de' Medici (q. v.), as

regent for her son, Charles IX., a minor, in order to annoy the Catholic party of the Duke Francis of Guise (q. v.), had granted an edict of toleration to the Reformed, at whose head was the Prince of Condé. Both parties took up arms, and there ensued a war which lasted for eight years, the cruelties of which, through mutual exasperation, are almost incredible. The Duke Francis of Guise was murdered by an assassin, and the Prince of Condé was taken prisoner in the battle of Jarnac, in 1569, and shot. The young Prince Henry of Bearn, afterwards King Henry IV., a nephew of Condé, then became leader of the Reformed, along with Admiral Coligny (q. v.). It was not till the strength of both sides was exhausted, that the peace of St Germain-en-Laye was concluded in 1570, whereby the Reformed obtained the free exercise of their religion. Catharine de' Medici now expressed much friendliness towards the Reformed, and even endeavoured to lull them into negligence by the marriage of the youthful Henry of Bearn with her daughter Margaret, 18th August 1572. Admiral Coligny was drawn to Paris, and the king not only made him costly presents, but gave him an important office in the council of state. However, all this was only the basest hypocrisy. When, by means of the marriage of Prince Henry, the most eminent of the Reformed had been allured to Paris, Admiral Coligny was wounded by a shot from a window of the palace on 22d August 1572. The king, indeed, hastened to him, and swore to avenge him; but, on the very same day, the king was persuaded by his mother that the admiral sought his life. 'By God's death!' he exclaimed, 'let the admiral be slain, and not him only, but all the Huguenots, till not one remain that can give us trouble!' That night, Catharine held a council, and appointed St B. D. for carrying into effect the long-contemplated massacre. After Coligny had been murdered, a bell in the tower of the royal palace, at the hour of midnight, gave the signal to the assembled companies of citizens for a general massacre of the Huguenots. The king himself fired from his palace upon those that were fleeing past. The Prince of Condé and the king of Navarre only saved their lives by going to mass, and appearing to conform to the Catholic Church. The provinces were at the same time summoned to similar slaughter; and although in some of them the officials were ashamed to publish the murderous commands which had been transmitted to them, there were found bloodthirsty fanatics enough, who perpetrated the greatest horrors for several weeks together in almost all the provinces, so that it was reckoned that 30,000 (some authorities make the number 70,000) persons were murdered. The pope celebrated the events of St B. D. by a procession to the church of St Louis, a grand *Te Deum*, and the proclamation of a year of jubilee. Many of the Huguenots fled to pathless mountains and to La Rochelle, to which the Duke of Anjou laid siege. Upon receiving intelligence, however, that he had been elected king of Poland, he made an arrangement on July 6, 1573, according to which the king granted to the Huguenots an amnesty, and the exercise of their religion in certain towns.

BARTHOLOMEW'S (St) HOSPITAL, Smithfield, London, was originally a part of the priory of St Bartholomew, founded in 1102 by Rahere, the first prior. At the dissolution of the religious houses, it was founded anew by Henry VIII., and the endowment has been subsequently enlarged from various sources, public and private. The hospital contains more than 600 beds, and affords relief to 70,000 patients annually. There is a medical school attached. The revenues are large and ample.

BARTIZAN, a small stone closet, thrown out upon corbels over doorways, and on other parts of mediæval castles, generally for defence, but sometimes only for convenience to the inmates and defenders.

Bartizan.

BARTLETT, William Henry, an artist and popular writer, was born at Kentish Town, London, on the 29th March 1809. He was a pupil of the eminent architectural antiquary, Mr John Britton, of London, and during his apprenticeship displayed more than ordinary talent for drawing, which was fostered by his master sending him into many of the most interesting counties in England, to make sketches from nature. Mr Britton afterwards employed him to make drawings for his *Cathedral Antiquities*, and also for his *Picturesque Antiquities of English Cities*. Subsequently, B. visited the continent, the Holy Land, and America several times, on each occasion enriching his portfolio with innumerable interesting scenes. No fewer than nineteen quarto volumes, containing about 1000 engravings from his sketches, and letterpress from his own pen and those of his fellow-travellers, Dr W. Beattie, N. P. Willis, and Miss Pardoe, were devoted to these countries. Several other volumes, of which he was the sole author as well as artist, have also been published. Some of the books had a wonderful success, especially those on Switzerland, the Holy Land and Egypt. B. died on the voyage from Malta to Marseille on September 25, 1854. He had been revisiting Palestine, and the materials he had collected were given to the world in a posthumous volume entitled *Jerusalem Revisited*.

BARTLETT is also the name of several American authors, the most eminent of whom is John Russell B., born at Providence, Rhode Island (U. S.), in October 1805. He was employed by the United States' government, in 1850— a commissioner for determining the Mexican boundary-line, and, in 1854, published an account of his explorations and adventures, &c., in that country. He is also the author of *The Progress of Ethnology*, a popular *Dictionary of Americanisms*, *Bibliography of Books relating to the Civil War*, and other works.

BARTOLINI, Lorenzo, a celebrated sculptor, was born at Vernio, in the north of Italy, in 1777. Circumstances brought him to Florence still a young man, where he practised his art for some time with very little pecuniary success, but at length, having obtained an academy prize for a bas-relief of Cleobis and Biton, he was successfully ushered into notice and prosperity. Several influential persons patronised him, such as the Cardinal Reginauld de St Jean d'Angely. Through the latter he obtained a commission to execute a number of bas-reliefs in the hall of the Vendôme palace, and also the bust of Napoleon over the door of the Institute of France. Napoleon himself ordered a multitude of orders, many of which, however, were never executed. In 1808, the emperor sent him to Carrara, to establish a school of sculpture. Here he remained till 1814, when he followed his imperial master to Elba. After the battle of Waterloo, he repaired to

subsequently appointed director of the sculpture department in the Academy of the Fine Arts, an office he retained till his death in 1850. B. was a very prolific artist. Besides the works already mentioned, B. executed busts of Cherubini, Mehul, Madame Regnauld, a magnificent statue of Napoleon I. (now in America), several exquisite sepulchral monuments, such as that of Lady Stratford Canning in the cathedral of Lausanne, and various groups, the most celebrated of which are his 'Charity,' and 'Hercules and Lycus.' In England and France, his style is in general greatly esteemed; in Germany, it is less highly thought of. His figures are characterised by their truthfulness of proportion and classic repose, though they also possess a remarkably lifelike expression. After Canova, B. is reckoned the most distinguished Italian sculptor of modern times.

BARTOLOMEO, San, a town of Italy, in the province of Caputanata, with a population of 5400.

BARTOLOZZI, Francesco, an eminent engraver, was born in Florence about 1730. After practising his art under Wagner of Venice, he went to Rome, where he executed his admired plates from the life of St Nilus. He was afterwards commissioned by Mr Dalton, librarian of George III., to engrave a series of drawings by Guercino, and was induced by the same gentleman to settle in England. Here B. produced his spirited and highly finished engravings of the 'Virgin and Child' after Carlo Dolci, and 'Clytie' after Annibale Carracci, which entitle him to occupy the front rank in his profession. He also engraved numerous specimens of the works of his friend Giovanni Cipriani, of Michael Angelo, Cantarini, Cortona, &c., with equal truth and effect. B. likewise enriched Alderman Boydell's Shakspeare Gallery with many fine engravings. In 1802 he received a flattering invitation from the Prince Regent of Portugal, to take the superintendence of a school of engravers at Lisbon, whither he repaired three years afterwards, in his seventy-fifth year, and there resided until his death in 1818. He was the grandfather of Madame Vestris, the celebrated comedian.

BARTON, Bernard, an English poet, born 31st January 1784, in London. His parents were members of the Society of Friends, to the tenets of which body B. adhered through life. In 1810 he became clerk to a banking-house at Woodbridge, in which situation he continued until within two years of his death. His first poetical efforts, published in 1812 under the title of *Metrical Effusions*, brought him into correspondence with the poet Southey. *Poems by an Amateur* (1818), and *Poems* (Lond. 1820), increased his reputation, and gained him the friendship of Lamb and Byron. *Napoleon and other Poems* appeared in 1822, and was followed within five years by several other productions. All the poems of B. are pervaded by pious sentiment, and some passages display much natural tenderness and religious fervour; but he is, on the whole, rather a fluent, pleasant versifier than a poet. So early as 1824, a reading-club founded by him in Woodbridge collected the sum of £1200 sterling, and presented it to him. Some years before his death, he received, through Sir Robert Peel, a pension of £100 sterling. In addition to the works mentioned, he published *Fisher's Juvenile Scrapbook* (Lond. 1836), *The Reliquary* (Lond. 1836), and *Household Verses* (Lond. 1845). After his death, which took place suddenly, 19th February 1849, his daughter published *Selections from the Poems and Letters of Bernard Barton* (Lond. 1849).

BARTON, Elizabeth, commonly called 'the Holy Maid of Kent,' a wretched creature, subject to spasmodic nervous affections, during which she gave utterance to incoherent exclamations and phrases. About the year 1525, she was servant in a tavern at Aldington, in Kent; and the cunning priest of the parish seeing her in her paroxysms, on the strength of her misfortune conceived the idea of presenting her to the world as a prophetess. Under his directions, she played her part so well that not only the common people, but even men of intellect and education like Sir Thomas More, and Barham, the Archbishop of Canterbury, were deceived by her. The former, however, afterwards recognised her true character. She became a nun, and when, in 1532, Henry VIII. quarrelled with the court of Rome, she was induced to denounce loudly the king's separation from his first wife, and his marriage with Anne Boleyn, and even to prophesy his death. Being arrested by the king's command, along with her accomplices, she made before the judges a confession, which was afterwards publicly repeated before the people, of the fraud which had been perpetrated, and was sentenced to ecclesiastical penance and to imprisonment. She was afterwards accused of high treason, and executed along with some of her accomplices in 1534.

BARTON BEDS, a group of strata, composed of clay and sand, and forming part of the Middle Eocene formation, included in the Bagshot series (q. v.).

BARTON-ON-HUMBER, a town in North Lincolnshire, on the south side of the Humber, six miles south-west of Hull. It is a very ancient place, having been one of the chief ports of the Humber before the foundation of Hull. It was once surrounded by a rampart and fosse, as a protection against the incursions of the Danes and Saxons. The ferry across the Humber, on the great road from London to Hull, used to be here; but the London and Hull inland traffic has now been diverted from B. by the steam-ferry at New Holland, six miles below Barton. The chief manufactures are ropes, sacking, bricks, tiles, pottery, and whiting. There are quarries of chalk and oolite. The tower of St Peter's Church, which was built about the time of the Conquest, has both round and pointed arches; and, with the part of the building to the west, constitutes one of the few existing examples of undoubted Anglo-Saxon architecture. St Mary's Church is a handsome structure of the 14th c. Pop. (1871) 4332.

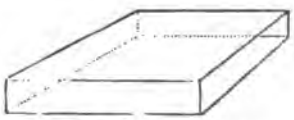
BARU, a fine woolly substance found at the base of the leaves of the *Sagueres saccharifer* (also called *Arenga saccharifera*), one of the most valuable sago-palms of the Indian Archipelago. It is much employed in calking ships, in stuffing cushions, and for other similar purposes.

BARUCH (i. e., the Blessed), the son of Neriah, was the person to whom the prophet Jeremiah dictated his oracles. During the siege of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, both he and the prophet were, by their own countrymen, shut up in a narrow prison, but obtained from the conqueror freedom and permission to choose their own residence. B. remained for some time in Palestine, but afterwards accompanied Jeremiah to Egypt. His subsequent history is unknown. An apocryphal work in the Greek language has come down to us under his name—viz., the Book of B., which contains words of comfort for the Israelites, and predicts the rebuilding of Jerusalem. There is usually appended to it, as chapters vi. and vii., a letter—also apocryphal—of the prophet Jeremiah to the exiles in Babylon.

BARWOOD. See Camwood.

BARYTA, or **BARYTES**, or Oxide of Barium (q.v.)—symbol BaO—is the earth present in the minerals *witherite* (carbonate of B.) and *heavy spar*

(sulphate of B.). It may be prepared in several ways: 1. By acting upon the carbonate of B. ($BaOCO_2$) by nitric acid (NO_3), which causes the disengagement of the carbonic acid (CO_2), and the nitric acid combining with the B. forms the nitrate of baryta ($BaONO_5$). On evaporating the latter substance to dryness, and igniting the residue, the nitric acid volatilises, and leaves the baryta (BaO). 2. Another mode of preparing the same substance is to act upon a solution of sulphuret of barium (BaS) by the black oxide of copper (CuO), when an interchange of elements occurs, the sulphur uniting with the copper, producing sulphuret of copper (CuS), and the oxygen with the barium, forming B. (BaO), which remains dissolved in the water, and, on evaporation, deposits crystals in the hydrated condition (BaO,HO). B. belongs to the group of alkaline earths, and has the property of acting like an alkali (q. v.) on colouring matters. It has a very harsh taste, is highly caustic, and is very poisonous. A solution of B. is used by the chemist as the best indication of the presence of carbonic acid gas in the atmosphere, for when a plate or other vessel containing the solution is exposed to the air, the carbonic acid floating across the surface combines with the B., and forms a film of white carbonate of baryta (BaO,CO_2). Otherwise, B. possesses little interest, as it is not put to any commercial or medicinal use. The compounds of B. are, however, of considerable importance. The *sulphate of B.* ($BaOSO_3$), otherwise called *ponderous* or *heavy spar*, is found in the mineral kingdom, diffused in fissures or cracks,

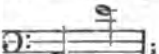


Crystal of Sulphate of Baryta.

passing through other rocks, especially in Cumberland, Durham, and Westmoreland, and in the island of Arran. At the latter place, an extensive mine of heavy spar has been worked for many years. In its native condition, the sulphate of B. occurs of a crystalline texture, is sometimes found pure and white, but generally presents a flesh-red colour, from the red oxide of iron (rust) incorporated in it. The rust can be got quit of by reducing the sulphate of B. to a fine powder under rollers or travelling-wheels, and subjecting the pulverised material to the action of dilute sulphuric acid, which dissolves the red oxide of iron, and leaves the sulphate of B. as a white dense powder. The principal use of *heavy spar* is as a pigment under the name of *permanent white*; but having little opacity, it cannot be employed by itself, but only when mixed with ordinary white lead. When added to the latter, however, it must be regarded as an adulteration, for the little opacity it possesses renders it of service only as an increaser of the bulk of the white lead. Several mixtures of sulphate of B., and white lead are manufactured, and are known in commerce. *Venice White* contains 1 part Sulphate of B., and 1 part White Lead. *Hamburg White* contains 2 parts Sulphate of B., and 1 part White Lead. *Dutch White* contains 3 parts Sulphate of B., and 1 part White Lead. The native sulphate of B. has been employed by the celebrated potter Wedgewood in the manufacture of jasper ware, and for the formation of white figures, &c., on coloured jars and vessels. The *Carbonate of B.* found native as *Witherite*, and the *Nitrate of B.*, have been previously referred to in this article and that on BARIUM.

BARYTON (Viol di Bardoni), an old chamber-instrument, somewhat like the viol di gamba in tone: had a broader finger-board, with seven gut-strings, while under the neck there were sixteen strings of brass wire, which were touched with the point of the thumb, to produce a sound, while the gut-strings were acted on by a bow.

BARYTON, that species of the human voice which lies between the bass and the tenor, the tone-character of which is more allied to the bass.

The compass of a B. voice is from but the principal notes of the voice are from  ; and these should possess the energetic character of a bass voice, and, above all, be produced from the chest, excepting perhaps the highest. In former times, the music for this species of voice was written on a stave with the F clef placed on the 3d line, thus:

BAS, or **BATZ**, a small island in the English Channel, belonging to France, and situated off the north coast of the department of Finisterre. Its length is about 3 miles, and its breadth 2. It has a light-house, in lat. 48° 45′ N., and long. 4 1¼ W., on an elevation 223 feet above the sea, and is defended by two forts and four batteries. Pop. above 1000, whose chief occupation is fishing.

BASA'LT, strictly a variety of trap-rock (q. v.), although some writers use the words as synonymous. It is composed of the same materials as greenstone (q. v.), and other varieties of trap, viz., hornblende and felspar, with a small quantity of iron; but these exist in a state of finer division than in greenstone, shewing that the crystalline action has been stopped at its commencement by the more rapid cooling of the mass. To this is owing its sharp conchoidal fracture and its hardness. As the hardness is frequently accompanied with tenacity, it makes B. a valuable material in the making of roads. It is of a more uniform dark-gray colour, approaching to black, than the other varieties of trap.

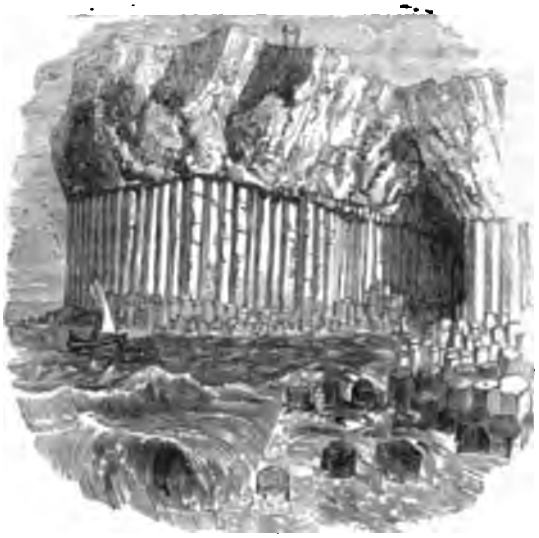
A rock of a similar appearance and structure occurs as a variety of lava, in volcanic districts. This Lava-B. differs from the older Trap-B. in the form which the silicates of magnesia and lime assume when crystallising. In the newer rocks, they appear as augite; in the older, as hornblende. These two minerals can scarcely be distinguished by their chemical composition, the different formulas given by mineralogists being the result of the presence, in the specimen analysed, of accidental ingredients or impurities. The slightly differing crystallographic angle has been accounted for by the supposed more speedy cooling of the volcanic rocks. Rose, indeed, has shewn that the hornblende of melted greenstone, in re-cooling, crystallises as augite; and we have observed that the same change has taken place in specimens of recrystallised B., obtained from works which existed lately at

Basalt section.

Birmingham for converting this rock into an opaque glass for various economic uses.

The remarkable columnar structure which B. frequently assumes, is its most striking characteristic. The columns vary in the number of their angles from three to twelve; but they have most commonly from five to seven sides. They are frequently divided transversely by joints at nearly equal distances. The direction of the columns is always at right angles to the greatest extension of the mass, so that when B. occurs as a bed, either overlying, or interstratified with the regular strata, the columns are perpendicular, while they are horizontal when the B. exists as a dike.

The columnar structure was at first believed to be owing to a modification of the crystalline force. Such a supposition was favoured by the external form of the columns; but the total absence of internal structure shewed that the explanation must be sought elsewhere. In 1804, Mr Gregory Watt propounded a theory of the origin of the structure, ascribing it to the pressure of numerous spheres



Fingal's Cave.

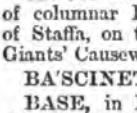
on each other, during the process of cooling, such spheres being produced in planes of refrigeration or absorption. They increase by the successive formation of external concentric coats, until their growth is prevented by the contact of neighbouring spheres; and as in a layer of equal-sized spheres, each is pressed on by six others, the result is that each sphere will be squeezed into a regular hexagon. Watt published this theory as the result of his celebrated observations on the cooling of a mass of molten basalt, in which he noticed the production of numerous spheroids, having a radiate structure. Many greenstones, in weathering, present such a structure, giving often to the rock the appearance as if it were composed of a mass of cannon-balls, and Watt's experiments satisfactorily explain this phenomenon; but they will not go further. Anxious, however, that they should throw some light on the structure of basaltic columns, he manages it by the following remarkable assumption: 'In a stratum composed of an indefinite number in superficial extent, but only one in height, of impenetrable spheroids, with nearly equidistant centres, if their peripheries should come in contact in the same plane, it seems obvious that their mutual action would form them into hexagons; and if these were resisted below, and there was no opposing cause above them, it seems equally clear that they would extend their dimensions upwards, and thus form hexagonal prisms, whose length might be indefinitely greater than their diameters. The further the extremities of the radii were removed from the centre, the greater would be their approach to parallelism; and the structure would be finally propagated by nearly parallel fibres, still keeping within the limits of the hexagonal prism with which their incipient formation commenced; and the prisms might thus shoot to an indefinite length into the undisturbed central mass of the fluid, till their structure was deranged by the superior influence of a counteracting cause.' Unfortunately, such dreams too often meet with more acceptance than the drier deductions from observed facts; which must, however, in the end, form the only basis of all geologic science. But there is no occasion here to urge even the most imaginative to resort to hypothesis, for the formation of columns in other substances than B. is quite familiar, and their producing causes evident. In starch, columns having the external prismatic appearance, and the internal earthy structure, are produced simply from the escape of vapour, and consequent shrinking of parts. We have seen singularly regular joints produced in the argillaceous ironstone at Wardie, near Edinburgh, on its exposure on the beach, the contractions forming the columns evidently resulting from the escape of the moisture retained by the bed while it was covered by other strata. The same occurs in beds of fine clay that have been recently exposed. But the most regular series of columns that have been noticed by us, were produced on bricks which formed the bottom of a public oven. The long-continued and powerful heat to which they had been subjected, though it had not caused fusion, had

so affected them as to produce a beautiful series of regular hexagonal prisms. The columns had a diameter of nearly half an inch. Their direction was at right angles to the oven floor. The earthy structure of the brick remained. The columns, in short, were in every respect, except the material of which they were formed, true basaltic columns. It is surely better to look for an explanation of this structure in causes similar to those which have produced the examples adduced, than to find it in such groundless assumptions as are at the foundation of the generally received theory of Watt. The columnar structure of B. seems to have been produced subsequently to the cooling of the mass, by changes in the solid rock, probably from the escape of some volatile matter.

The two best known and most beautiful examples of columnar B. are Fingal's Cave, in the island of Staffa, on the west coast of Scotland, and the Giants' Causeway, on the north coast of Ireland.

BA'SCINET. See HELMET.

BASE, in Heraldry, the lower portion of the shield is called the B.; there is a dexter base, middle base, and sinister base, marked by the letters



Base.

G, H, I, in the accompanying diagram, in which, for the convenience of the heraldic student, the other points of the escutcheon are also indicated. The *chief* or principal part of the escutcheon is the top, marked A, B, C. The *dexter* or right-hand side is that marked AG; the *sinister* or left-hand side, CI, an arrangement which is explained when we consider that the shield is always supposed to be on the arm of the wearer, and that it is his right and left hands, not those of the spectator, which are kept in view. The *ground* or surface of the shield, on which all the *charges* or figures are depicted, is called the *field*.

IN BASE.—When any figure is placed in the B. part of the shield, it is said to be *in base*.

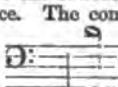
BASE (Fr. and Ital.), the foot or lower member of a pillar, on which the shaft rests. Of the classical orders, the Doric column alone had no base. The height of the B. is usually about half the lower

Tuscan Base.

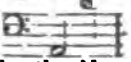
diameter of the shaft; and it is divided into the *plinth*, or flat projecting square block or blocks, immediately above the ground, and the *mouldings* (q. v.), or fillets, which surround the column, and are usually circular. In the early Norman style, the bases of pillars still retained, from the Romanesque, forms closely resembling the Tuscan order. As Gothic architecture advanced, and emancipated itself from the arbitrary rules by which the classical orders were governed, bases became infinitely varied in detail, though something approaching to the original conception of a strong and firm foundation for the column, adhered to them throughout.

BASE, in Chemistry, is a term applied to a compound body, generally consisting of a metal united with oxygen. Thus, the metal potassium (K), when it combines with oxygen (O), forms the B. potash (KO); sodium (Na) and oxygen, the B. soda (NaO); lead (Pb) and oxygen, the B. oxide of lead or litharge (PbO). A distinguishing feature of B. is that it unites with an oxygen acid, such as sulphuric acid (SO_3) to form a *salt* (q. v.). Thus, the B. potash (KO) combines with sulphuric acid (SO_3) to make the salt sulphate of potash ($KOSO_3$); potash with nitric acid (NO_5) to form the salt nitrate of potash, or nitre ($KONO_5$). Occasionally a B. replaces the oxygen in a base. Thus, the metal potassium (K) unites with sulphur (S) to form a *sulphur* base, sulphuret of potassium (KS), which can unite with a sulphur acid like sulphuret of arsenic acid or orpiment (AsS_3) to make the salt sulphoarsenite of potash (KS,AsS_3). The metal half of a B. need not be a simple element, but may be a compound body which, for the time, plays the part of a simple substance. Thus, the compound ethyl (C_4H_5) can combine with oxygen to form ordinary ether ($[C_4H_5]O$); and the B. thus produced can, in its turn, combine with acids to form salts. A base may be soluble or insoluble in water. Thus, the bases potash (KO), soda (NaO), ammonia (NH_4O), baryta (BaO), strontia (StO), lime (CaO), and magnesia (MgO), are more or less soluble in water; whilst the oxide of iron or rust (Fe_2O_3), the red oxide of lead (Pb_3O_4), the red oxide of mercury (HgO), are insoluble in water, but soluble in acids. See CHEMISTRY, in SUPP.

BASE, or BASS (from *basis*, the foundation), in Music, is the deepest or lowest part, by whatever instrument it may be performed. The B., next to the upper part, is the most striking, the freest in its movements, and richest in effect. Its movement downwards is unfettered, unconcealed, and undisturbed, whereas the middle parts are circumscribed and concealed. In respect to harmony, the B. is the most important part in music, containing more frequently the fundamental notes of the chords, while on it is formed that most important and effective figure in music called 'organ-point' (q. v.).—B. is also the name of the lowest and deepest quality of the human voice. The compass of a B. voice is

generally from  , which should all be

chest-notes, except, perhaps, the highest.

useful range, however, is from 

the characteristic use of the B. voice, the old masters were unquestionably the greatest, especially Handel and Bach. The B. voice only begins to shew itself at the years of manhood, and is generally a change from the alto voice of a boy.—B. is also the name of an old stringed instrument, with from five to six strings, tuned variously to suit the music, and played with a bow. It was a sort of middle instrument between the contra-bass and violoncello, but is now out of use. Double B. (contra-bass) is the deepest toned of stringed instruments.

BASE OF OPERATIONS, in Military enures, is some spot or line which the gene army relies upon as a stronghold and army cannot take with it all the f... ammunition for a long war; the co enormous, and a constant supply is i... Again, the sick and wounded cannot acco... army through toilsome marches; the co endeavours to send them back to a safety. Furthermore, fresh troops mu... spot from which they can safely advance enemy's country. To secure

B. of O. is necessary. It may be a port, a stretch of sea-coast, a river, a mountain-range, according to circumstances; but it must be such as to serve as a magazine of supply, a place for retreat under disaster, and the end of a line of open communication extending to the spot occupied by the army. When Lord Raglan and Marshal St Arnaud advanced from the Alma towards Sebastopol, in September 1854, they intended to attack the great fortress on the north side; but the tactics of the Russians prevented this; and the allies, changing their plan, resolved on the celebrated flank-march to Balaklava, by which they secured the whole coast from Balaklava to Kamiesch as a *B. of O.* during the siege of Sebastopol. See BALAKLAVA. In the military contests arising out of the Indian mutiny, in 1857 and 1858, Cawnpore was the chief B. of O. whence Havelock, Outram, and Clyde made those advances towards Lucknow which led ultimately to the suppression of the revolt. In the Italian war of 1859, the Austrian B. of O. was very fluctuating, owing in part to the disaffected state of the Lombard population around the great fortresses of Mantua, Peschiera, &c.; and indeed the only reliable base was furnished by the Eastern and Tyrolese Alps. The French and Sardinian base, in the same war, was virtually Genoa, and the line of country extending thence to the great stronghold of Alessandria.

BA'SE-COURT (*basse-cour*), the outer court of a feudal mansion, which contained the stable-yard and accommodation for servants. It was distinct from the principal quadrangle, and was sometimes constructed of timber.

BA'SEDOW, JOH. BERNH. (properly, Joh. Berend Bassedau, or Bernh. von Nordalbingen, as he is often called), a remarkable educationist of the 18th c., was born, 8th September 1723, at Hamburg, where his father was a peruke-maker. He attended the Johanneum there from 1741 to 1744, and afterwards studied philosophy and theology in Leipsic, from which he went in 1746 as a private tutor to Holstein. In the year 1753, he was appointed a master in the academy for young noblemen at Sorõe. In 1761 he was removed from the Gymnasium at Altona on account of heterodox opinions. Rousseau's *Emile* awakened in him, in 1762, the thought of improving the method of education, and of reducing to practice Rousseau's maxims and those of Comenius. Contributions from princes and private persons, amounting to 15,000 thalers (about £2171 sterling), covered the cost of his *Elementarwerk*, which, after the most pompous announcements, appeared as an *Orbis Pictus*, with 100 copper-plates by Chodowiecki, and was translated into French and Latin. Therein the young receive a large number of representations of the actual world, whereby B. sought at once to delight the eyes, and to awaken a sentiment of cosmopolitanism, at which his whole method aimed. As a model school on this method, he established in 1774 the *Philanthropin* at Dessau, to which place he had been called in 1771. His restlessness of disposition, and the quarrels in which he was involved, especially with his active but capricious coadjutor Wolke, caused him to leave the Philanthropin; but he proceeded with as much eagerness as ever in endeavours to give effect to his ideas by educational works, which, however, aimed more at popularity than solidity, until, after many changes of residence, he died at Magdeburg, 25th July 1790. His influence on the public mind of his age, particularly in Germany, was very great. He has been justly reproached with disparaging the ancients, a consequence chiefly of his own want of sound scholarship, and with a multitude of exaggerations, mistakes, and conceits; yet it cannot be disputed that his numerous philosophical and educational works powerfully awakened attention and interest in the much-neglected subject of education, and that he set many excellent ideas and weighty truths in rapid circulation among men.

BA'SEL, or BA'SLE (Fr. *Bâle*), a city and canton of Switzerland. The canton was divided in 1833 into two sovereign half-cantons, called *Basel-city* (Basel-stadt, or Basle-ville) and *Basel-country* (Basel-landschaft, or Basle-campagne), each having half a vote in the diet. The half-canton of Basel-city consists only of the city, with its precincts, and three villages on the right bank of the Rhine; the remainder of the canton forms the half-canton of Basel-country. The canton of B. is bounded by France and Baden, and by the cantons of Aargau, Soleure, and Berne, and has, according to different estimates, an extent of from 170 to about 200 square miles. Lying on the northern slope of the Jura, it is a country of hills and valleys. The mountains attain an elevation of from 2000 to 3000 feet. The chief rivers of B. are the Rhine (which flows through the north part of the canton) and its tributaries, the Birz, and Ergloz. The soil is fertile and well cultivated. The climate, except in elevated situations, is very mild. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, the cultivation of fruit-trees and of the vine, cattle-husbandry, fishing, salt-works, the manufacture of ribbons (which are manufactured to the value of £400,000 sterling annually), paper, woollens, linens, and leather. The transit trade is very considerable.

The city of B. arose out of the Roman fortified post of Basilia or Basiliana, near Augusta Rauracorum, of which once more important place the little village of Augst, near B., exhibits a few ruins. On the division of the Frank Empire, the district of B. fell to Louis or Ludwig the German. The Emperor Henry I., in the earlier part of the 10th c., rebuilt the town, which had been destroyed. It then became a place of importance, and belonged for a time to Burgundy, but after 1032 formed part of the German empire. It became at an early period the seat of a bishop, who, from the 11th c., shared in the supreme power with the imperial governor, a number of noble families, and the burgesses. Amidst many internal and external disturbances, the power of the nobility was gradually broken, that of the bishop restricted, and the authority of the burgesses extended. Surrounding towns were also destroyed, or conquered, and purchased, along with their territories, so that the city extended its dominion over a country district which until very recently was kept in a state of dependence and subjection. Involved in many feuds with the House of Hapsburg, B. closely allied itself to the Swiss confederacy; and after the peace between the Emperor Maximilian I. and the confederacy, B. formally joined it in 1501. From 1519 onwards, the writings of Luther were printed in B.; and at the end of twenty years from that time, the reformed doctrine had become generally prevalent, the chapter of the cathedral had left the city, and the convents had been suppressed. After the union with Switzerland, the triumph of the burgess party became also more complete, part of the nobility emigrated, and those who remained were placed upon the same level with the freemen of the municipal corporation. Orderly industry, economy, and an external severity of manners, became the characteristics of the citizens; but the peace of the city was not unfrequently disturbed by strifes consequent upon the assertion of what was deemed undue authority by the magistrates. The government of the city, to which the whole canton was subject, was intrusted to a Great and a Little

Council, under the presidency of alternate burgomasters and chief wardens of the guilds; but the Little Council, uniting legislative and judicial functions with the highest executive authority, became gradually more and more preponderant. All parties in the city, however, remained always well combined against the country district; and persons belonging to the city were appointed to all offices, civil and ecclesiastical, whilst the depression of the country district was completed by the neglect of a proper provision for education. This state of things caused great dissatisfaction, which repeatedly broke out in fruitless rebellion. Under the impulse communicated by the French Revolution, equality of rights was conceded in 1798; but in 1814, although the equality of rights remained apparently intact, the new constitution of the canton was so framed, and the representation so distributed, as virtually to make the city again supreme. The discontent of the country district became so great that, after unsuccessful attempts to obtain redress of grievances by petition, civil war broke out in 1831, which did not cease till the troops of the Swiss Confederation took possession of the canton, and the diet recognised the separation of the city and the country district, as sovereign half-cantons, in 1833. The constitutions of the two half-cantons are in most respects similar, and are framed on the basis of the old constitution, modified in accordance with the principle of universal suffrage. According to the census of 1871, the half-canton of Basel-city contained 47,760 inhabitants, of whom 34,457 were Protestants; and Basel-country, 54,127, of whom 10,245 were Roman Catholics. Each division sends one member to the diet, but they have only one vote between them, and that does not count at all when the deputies take opposite sides, which as a rule they do. The capital of Basel-country is Liestal. Since its separation from the city, more ample provision has been made for education, and there has been a rapid increase of material prosperity. Both Roman Catholic and Protestant clergy are paid by the state, and the parishes of the Reformed Church have received the right of choosing their own pastors.

The city of B. was much more populous in the middle ages than it is now. Its population in 1870 was 44,834. In the 14th c., the number of its inhabitants was greatly reduced by the plague, or 'black death' (q. v.), which raged in it with terrible severity, and is sometimes mentioned as the 'death of Basel.' It is well-built and clean, but its appearance does not proclaim it the wealthiest city in Switzerland, which, however, it is. Amongst its buildings are a cathedral, founded in the beginning of the 11th c., by the Emperor Henry II., and a bridge over the Rhine, built in 1226. The Rhine divides the city into two parts—Great B., on the south side, and Little B., on the north. B. is connected by railway with Strasburg on the one hand, and Berne, Lucerne, Zurich, &c., on the other. It has many benevolent and educational institutions, among which are an orphan asylum, and an institution for deaf mutes; a university, founded in 1459, which has a library of 50,000–60,000 volumes, and a very valuable collection of manuscripts, a numi-matological collection, a botanic garden, and a museum of natural history; the new museum, in which there are several pictures of the younger Holbein, who was long resident in B. (some accounts say, he was born here); a public library of 70,000 volumes. During the Reformation, the university was a central point of spiritual life, and it has numbered among its professors men of great eminence in learning and science, including Erasmus, who died here in 1536, and the mathematicians Euler and Bernouilli, who were natives of B.; but it is now little frequented. The population of the whole canton in 1870 was 82,217.

BA'SEL, COUNCIL OF, a memorable and important ecclesiastical council, held in the city of Basel. It was summoned by Pope Martin V., and his successor Eugenius IV., in accordance with an announcement made at the Council of Constance, and was opened on 14th December 1431, under the presidency of the Cardinal Legate Julian Cesarini of St Angelo. The hall in which it met is still shewn at Basel. It addressed itself to the reconciliation of the Hussites with the Roman Catholic Church, and to the reform of abuses in the church itself. But the first attempt to conciliate the Hussites, whom an army of crusaders had in vain sought to subjugate, was met with resistance by the pope, who not only refused his sanction, but empowered the cardinal legate to dissolve the council. The council strongly repelled the pope's pretension of right to dissolve it, and proceeded with its business. His injunctions, that it should remove to Italy, were equally disregarded. It renewed the decree of the Council of Constance, asserting the right of a General Council to exercise authority over the pope himself, and on his persevering to issue bulls for its dissolution, caused a formal process to be commenced against him, and cited him to appear at its bar. It assumed the papal powers, and exercised them in France and Germany, where its authority was acknowledged. It concluded a peace, in name of the church, with the Calixtines, the most powerful section of the Hussites, by the Prague Compact of 20th November 1433, granting them the use of the cup in the Lord's Supper. By this, the Emperor Sigismund was much helped in obtaining possession of Bohemia; and he in return sought to reconcile the council with Eugenius IV., who, being hard pressed by insurrections in the States of the Church, and afraid of losing his whole influence in France and Germany, solemnly ratified all its decrees, by a bull dated 15th December 1433. Desirous, however, of limiting the papal prerogatives, the council restored to the chapters of cathedral and collegiate churches the free right of election to stalls and benefices, of which the pope had assumed the right of disposing; and with a view to the reformation of gross abuses, restricted the power of granting interdicts, and prohibited *annats* and other grievous exactions. It left the pope the right to dispose of those benefices only which belonged to the diocese of Rome, and prohibited the bestowal of reversions to ecclesiastical offices. It also appointed punishments for certain immoralities in the clergy; and prohibited Festivals of Fools, and all the indecencies which had been commonly practised in churches at Christmas. It adopted decrees concerning the election of popes, and for the regulation of the College of Cardinals.

Eugenius, exasperated to the utmost, complained loudly to all sovereign princes. At this time, a prospect was opened up of the union of the distressed Greeks with the Church of Rome; and both the pope and the council endeavoured to make use of this for the advancement of their own interests and influence. Both despatched galleys for the Greek deputies, but through the intrigues of his agents, the pope was successful, and brought the Greek deputies to Ferrara. The Archbishop of Tarentum, a papal legate at B., circulated an ordinance in name of the council, and sealed with its seal, recommending Udine or Florence as the place of conference. The ordinance was a forgery, and this proceeding put an end to forbearance on the part of the council, which, on July 31, 1437, again cited the pope to its bar; and not only on his failing to appear, declared him contumacious, but on his opening an

opposition council at Ferrara, went so far as, on January 24, 1438, to decree his suspension from the functions of the popedom. His party, however, was so strong that this decree could not be carried into effect; and some of those who had been among the most influential members of the council, the Cardinal Legate Julian himself, and the greater number of the Italians, left B., and went over to his side. All the more resolutely did Cardinal Louis Allemand, Archbishop of Arles, a man of most superior understanding, courage, and eloquence, now guide the proceedings of the council, which, on May 16, 1439, declared the pope a heretic, for his obstinate disobedience to its decrees; and in the following session, formally deposed him for simony, perjury, and other offences. On this occasion, the holy relics which were in B. were deposited in the places from which the Spanish and Italian members of the council had disappeared; and the sight of them produced much emotion, and reanimated the courage of the assembly, still consisting of 400 prelates, priests, and doctors, mostly French and German. On November 17, 1439, the council, notwithstanding the still further diminution of its numbers, caused by the plague in B., elected Duke Amadeus of Savoy to be pope, who then lived as a hermit in Ripaglia, on the Lake of Geneva. He accordingly styled himself Felix V., but was recognised only by a few princes, cities, and universities. The Emperor Sigismund was dead, and even France and Germany, although they accepted the reforming decrees of the council, thought proper to remain neutral in the question regarding the popedom. The friendship of the Emperor Frederick III. strengthened the party of Eugenius; and the council gradually melted away, till careful only for personal security, its members, after three years of inactivity, held its last session at B. on May 16, 1443, and removed its seat to Lausanne. Here a few prelates still remained together under the presidency of Cardinal Allemand, till in 1449, after the death of Eugenius, and the resignation of the anti-pope Felix, an amnesty was offered to them by the new pope, Nicholas V., which they joyfully accepted. The B. reforming decrees are contained in no Roman Catholic collection of decrees of councils, and are held to be invalid by the canonists of Rome; yet they are of authority in canon law in France and Germany, where they were included in pragmatic sanctions, although their application has been modified by more recent concordats.

BA'SEL, TREATY OF. Basel gives its name to two important treaties of peace, concluded there on 5th April and 22d July 1795, between the representatives of the French Republic, Prussia, and Spain, by which Prussia withdrew from the coalition against France, took under her protection all the states of Northern Germany which should, like herself, relinquish the war in which the German empire was engaged, and also gave up to the victorious republic her possessions beyond the Rhine; whilst Spain gave up her portion of St Domingo, and prepared the way for that alliance with France which was afterwards productive of consequences so important.

BASE'LLA, a genus of plants, generally regarded as belonging to the natural order *Chenopodiaceæ* (q. v.), but by some botanists as the type of a distinct order, *Basellaceæ*. The species are all tropical. *B. alba* and *B. rubra* are known in Britain as stove biennials. They are plants with twining stems, in common use as pot-herbs in the East Indies, and cultivated in China. In the neighbourhood of Paris, they are raised on hot-beds, transplanted into warm borders, and furnish a substitute for spinach in summer. *B. rubra* yields a very rich purple dye. The great fleshy root of *B. tuberosa*, a South American species, also with a twining stem, is edible.

BA'SEMENT-STORY. See STORY.

BA'SHAN, or BATANÆA, a country of Palestine, stretching from Mount Hermon in the Anti-Libanus on the north, to the brook of Jabbok on the south, and bounded on the west by the Jordan, its eastern limits not being very clearly defined. Ashtaroth and Edrei were its chief cities, and the residence of its kings during the Amoritish dynasty. The last of its Amorite rulers was Og, who with all his sons was killed by the Israelites under Moses, at the battle of Edrei; and the half tribe of Manasseh settled in the land. The men of B. were remarkable for their stature, its pastures for their richness, and its sheep and oxen for their size and fatness. B. belonged to the tetrarchy of Philip, and afterwards to that of Agrippa II.

BASHAW' (Turkish, *bash;* Arabic, *basha;* Persian, *pasha*, the way in which the word is now commonly written) signifies head, or master, a Turkish title of honour given to viceroys, provincial governors, generals, and other distinguished public men. The term B. is also used to characterise a man of an arrogant and domineering disposition.

BASHEE' or BASHI' ISLANDS, a small cluster in the line between Luzon, the chief of the Philippine chain, and Formosa, the lat. and long. being respectively 21° N. and 122° E. Politically, they are a dependency of the Philippines, having been colonised by the Spaniards in 1783. Physically, they form a link in the vast archipelago which, from Formosa to Sumatra inclusive, connects the south-east of China with the west of Malacca. They were discovered in 1687 by Dampier, who called them the Bashi Islands, on account of the popularity among the islanders of an intoxicating liquor of that name.

BASHI-BAZOU'KS are irregular troops in the pay of the Sultan. Very few of them are Europeans; they are mostly Asiatics, from some or other of the pashalics in Asiatic Turkey. They are wild turbulent men, ready to enter the Sultan's service under some leader whom they can understand, and still more ready to plunder whenever an opportunity offers. During the Russo-Turkish war of 1854, &c., they had many encounters with the enemy in that kind of irregular warfare which the Russians intrust to Cossack horsemen; but the peaceful villagers had almost as much distrust of the B.-B. as of the Russians. When the British government resolved, in 1855, to take into pay a Turkish contingent, to aid in the operations of the war, they intrusted to General Beatson, an officer who had seen much Indian service, the collecting and drilling of a corps of bashi-bazouk irregulars; but it was a troublesome and unpleasant duty, and the war came to an end before the men were fit for service.

BASIDO'H, or BASSADO'RE, the principal station for British ships in the Persian Gulf, situated at the west end of the island of Kishm.

BASIE'NTO, or BASE'NTO, a river of Italy, which, rising in the Apennines, west of Potenza, flows in an east-south-east direction through the province of Basilicata to the Gulf of Taranto, which it enters 25 miles west-south-west of Taranto city. Near its mouth are the remains of the once famous city of *Metapontum*, where Pythagoras ended his days.

BA'SIL, surnamed THE GREAT, and called St B., one of the most eminent and eloquent of the Greek Fathers, was born about 329 at Cæsarea, in

Cappadocia; studied under the heathen philosophers at Athens, and became an advocate in his native city, but afterwards founded a monastic society; was ordained a presbyter in 362; and succeeded Eusebius as Bishop of Cæsarea in 370, in which office he continued till his death in 379. He resolutely resisted invitations to the court of Julian the Apostate, with whom he had contracted an intimacy as a fellow-student at Athens, and displayed great constancy when the Emperor Valens began to persecute him, on account of his opposition to Arianism. He was engaged in most of the controversies of his time, but conducted controversy in a peaceful and generous manner. His rules of monastic life are still followed in the Greek and other oriental churches, in which he is highly honoured as one of the greatest of saints. In the Roman Catholic Church, also, they are followed in a few convents, styled of the order of *Basilians*. The influence of B. was greatly felt in the promotion of monasticism throughout the West as well as the East, and to him is ascribed the introduction of the three universal monastic vows of obedience, chastity, and poverty. The best editions of his works are that of the Benedictines (3 vols., Par. 1721—1730, fol.), and that of the brothers Gaume (3 vols., Par. 1835—1840, 8vo); but the authenticity of many of the moral and ascetic pieces is doubtful. His anniversary is celebrated, in the Greek Church, on the 1st of January —the day of his death; in the Latin Church, on the 14th of June—the day of his ordination.

BA'SIL I., the Macedonian, Emperor of the East, was born in a village of Macedonia, in 813 A. D., or, according to others, in 826. His early life is differently related, but his biographers agree that he came to Constantinople when still a young man, and was appointed chamberlain to the Emperor Michael in 861. Subsequently, the emperor made him his colleague in the sovereignty. B. now used his influence to restrain Michael from committing those excesses which rendered him hateful to the people; but when he found his remonstrances unavailing, he headed a conspiracy against him, the result of which was the assassination of the emperor in 867. His first care was to heal the wounds both of the church and the state. He replaced Ignatius upon the patriarchal throne, and dismissed Photius, whom, however, he re-established in his authority the year after. His valour made him the terror of the Saracens, from whom he reconquered Asia Minor. The prodigality of Michael had exhausted the public treasury; by a wise economy, B. refilled it. All extortioners, moreover, were sought out and punished. The profligate companions of the late monarch were condemned to disgorge one half of the largesses which Michael had showered upon them. B. also entered into a treaty of alliance with the Russians of Kiew, to whom he sent missionaries to preach the gospel, and who, from that time, began to embrace Christianity, and acknowledge the authority of the Greek Church. He died in 886, from wounds which he received while hunting a stag. Several letters of his are still extant, besides a book full of wise advice addressed to his son.

BASIL (*Ocymum*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Labiatæ* (q. v.). The species are all natives of the tropics, or of the warmer temperate parts of the world, and are generally characterised by a pleasant aromatic smell and taste. They are reckoned among *sweet herbs*.—SWEET B. (*O. Basilicum*) is an annual plant, a native of the East Indies, about one foot high, with ovate or oblong leaves, and flowers in whorls of six, which has long been cultivated in Europe for culinary purposes, being used as a seasoning. It has also enjoyed the reputation of being a palliative of the pains of childbirth. BUSH B. (*O. minimum*), also a native of the Ea

Basil (*Ocymum Basilicum*).

Indies, is cultivated for the same p possesses the same qualities. It is a p six inches high, with an orbicular bushy Britain, the seed of both species, obtained south of Europe, is generally sown on a from which the plants are afterwards remov the open ground.—A native British plant same order (*Clinopodium vulgare*) bears th of WILD B., and another (*Acinos vulgaris*, merly *Thymus Acinos*) is known as B. Th Both are fragrant and aromatic.—B. Vinegar is in the same manner as Mint Vinegar, by steep the leaves in vinegar. It is used for seasoning winter, when the fresh plant cannot be obtained.

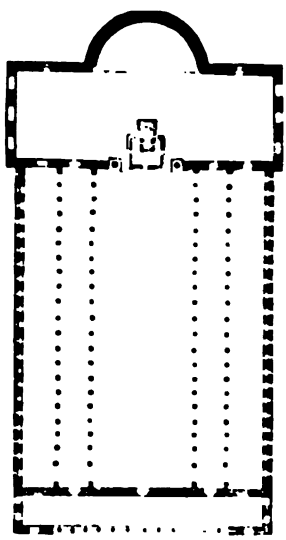
BASI'LICA, a code of laws of the Greek emp the compilation of which was begun in the re of the Emperor Basil I., the Macedonian, who d in 886—from whom it is generally supposed to h derived its name; completed by his son Leo, Philosopher; and revised, in 945, by order of stantine Porphyrogenitus, the son of Leo. is some doubt whether the work has come to us as completed by Leo, or as revised by C stantine, and unfortunately we do not p whole of the sixty books of which it consisted. It was very much an adaptation code of Justinian to altered circumstances, of great value for the interpretation of the *Juris*. The principal editions are that of (7 vols. fol., Par. 1647), and the re Heimbach (vols. 1—5, Leip. 1833— includes portions discovered since F. The B. has been the subject of many

BASI'LICA (Gr. *Basilikē*, fr king). Originally, the B. seems t hall or court-room in which the l the laws made by himself and the his council. When monarchy wa Athens, the second of the magistrates wh to the kingly power was called the

the first being styled the Archon by pre-eminence; and it is as the court or hall (stoa) in which the Archon-basileus administered justice, that the B. first appears in authentic history. But it was amongst the Romans that the B. attained its chief importance; and in addition to its original use as a court of justice, became a market-place, an exchange, a place of meeting for men of business generally. It was not till a comparatively late period, however, that a B. was erected at Rome. The first we hear of is the B. Porcia in 182 B.C. From this period till the time of Constantine, they were constructed in great numbers. Some twenty are known to have existed in Rome and latterly,

Section of Trajan's Basilica, Rome.

every provincial town, even those of small extent, had each its B., as that of Pompeii, which is now the most perfect example, still testifies. The most frequented part of the city was always selected for the site of a B.; and as this was almost always the Forum, the words Forum and B. are occasionally used as synonymous by ancient writers. The earliest basilicas were entirely open to the external air. It was usual, for this reason, as well as for the convenience of those who might be compelled to frequent them in bad weather, to select for them a sheltered and convenient position. Latterly, an external wall was substituted for the peristyle of columns with which the original basilicas were surrounded; the external columns, if continued at all, being used only as a decoration, and confined generally to the vestibule. It was in this form that the B. suggested the idea of the Christian Church, as has already been explained under Apse (q. v.); and the readiest mode of explaining the structure of the B. to a modern, is to imagine the process which was then performed reversed, and in place of converting the B. into a church, to convert the church into a basilica. This will be effected by simply removing the roof from the *nave*, the aisles remaining covered, and even being frequently furnished with galleries, as in Protestant churches. The judge's seat was generally in a circular portion of the building which protruded from its further end, in which the altar was afterwards placed (see APSE), the great entrance to the B. fronting it, as the western door of a cathedral fronts the high-altar. The space required by the prætor for his court was separated by a railing from the other portions of the building, which were devoted to the various purposes we have mentioned. It must not be supposed from this description, that the form of the B. was always the same. Sometimes there was no hemicycle or apse, as in the B. at Pompeii, in which case the tribunal was cut off from the nave; sometimes there were two, as in the B. of Trajan. Again, the B. was sometimes entered, not from the end, but from the sides, where the transepts of a modern church are situated; and at the end opposite that in which the tribunal was placed, there was often a row of small chambers, the uses of which do not seem to be very accurately ascertained, and probably were not invariable. In the plan of the B. of Pompeii, there was an outside stair which led to the upper gallery, which in this case passed entirely round the building. The gallery was the place to which loiterers usually resorted for the purpose of watching the business



Ground-plan of Basilica of St Paul, Rome.

proceedings below; and the one half of it is said to have been devoted to men, the other, to women. Of the vast size of some of these buildings, we may form a conception from the accommodation which must have been required for the tribunal alone, where, in addition to the curule chair of the prætor, and space required by the suitors and their advocates, seats had to be provided for the *judices* or jurymen, who occasionally amounted to as many as 180.

Many of the principal churches in Italy, and particularly in Rome, are still called Basiliche.

The term B. was also applied in the middle ages to the large structures erected over the tombs of persons of distinction, probably from their resemblance to small churches; thus, the tomb of Edward the Confessor, in Westminster, is called a B. (see chronicle of the Mayors of London, quoted by Parker).

BASILICATA, a former province in the south of the kingdom of Italy, now Potenza, includes nearly the same territory as ancient Lucania. Capitanata and Principato Ultra bound it on the N.; Bari and Otranto, on the N.E. and E.; the Gulf of Taranto and Calabria Citra, S.E. and E.; and the Principato Citra and the Mediterranean, on the W. Its area is 4000 square miles. Pop. (1871) 508,880. The capital is Potenza; the other chief towns are Francavilla and Tursi. B. lies mainly on the east side of the main ridge of the Apennines, between it and the Gulf of Taranto. The interior is wild and mountainous, and though there are some large forests in the province, the general aspect is bare and barren. Four considerable rivers—the Basiento, Brandano, Agri, and Sinno—flow through it from the west in an east-south-east direction, forming as many valleys, which slope gradually into an exceedingly fertile plain, varying in breadth from 4 to 10 miles. Here corn is raised in abundance, also wine, hemp, tobacco, and liquorice. Swine, sheep, and goats are reared in the mountainous districts, and silk forms a product of the valleys. B. is greatly in need of good roads, and is much subject to earthquakes.

BASI'LICON (Gr. 'royal,' or of great virtue), a name given to an ointment composed of yellow wax, black pitch, resin, and olive oil. Hence it was called *Unguentum Tetrapharmacum* (*tetra pharmaka*, four drugs). The resin, wax, and pitch are melted together over a slow fire; the oil is then added, and the mixture, while hot, strained through linen. The straining is directed in consequence of the impurities which resin often contains. B. ointment, or resin cerate, as it is sometimes called, is much used as a gently stimulant application to blistered surfaces, indolent ulcers, burns, scalds, and chilblains.

BASI'LICON DO'RON (Gr. royal gift), a celebrated prose work of King James VI. of Scotland, written for the instruction of his son, Prince Henry, a short time previous to his accession to the English throne. It consists of three books. The first treats 'Of a King's Christian Duty towards God;' the second, 'Of a King's Duty in his Office;' and the third, 'Of a King's Behaviour in Indifferent Things.' It was first published in 1599; afterwards in London in 1603, 8vo; and translated into Latin by Henry Peacham, who presented it, richly illuminated, to the prince. This Latin version was published in London in 1604, 8vo. A French edition appeared at Paris in 1603, 8vo, and another in 1604, 16mo. Like the royal author's famous work on *Demonology*, and his *Counterblast to Tobacco*, the *B. D.* is now only considered as a literary curiosity.

BASI'LIDES, an Alexandrian Gnostic, who flourished during the reigns of Trajan, Hadrian, and Antoninus Pius. Regarding his life, little is known. He is said to have taught in Antioch; afterwards in Persia; and, finally, in Egypt, where he is supposed to have died shortly before the middle of the 2d c. He was a disciple of one Glaucias, not elsewhere mentioned in history, but whom he terms an interpreter of St Peter, and from whom he alleges that he had received the esoteric faith of that apostle. B. probably considered himself a Christian, but his fantastic speculations bore a greater resemblance to the doctrines of Zoroaster, and in some points to the Indian philosophy, than to the religion of Christ. According to the system of B., there are two eternal and independent principles—the one, good; the other, evil. Whatever exists, emanates from these. The good principle—i.e., the Supreme God, or Father—constitutes, with his seven perfections, viz., the Mind, the Word, the Understanding, Power, Excellences, Princes, and Angels, the blessed ogdoad (combination of *eight*). These seven perfections, or powers, in which the Supreme God is reflected, are in their turn themselves reflected, but more feebly, in seven other angelic powers, which emanate from them; and so on through the whole circle of emanations, which amount to 365, the mystic number so often inscribed on the symbolic stones in the Gnostic schools (see ABRAXAS STONES). Each of these angelic powers governs a world. There are, consequently, 365 worlds, to each of which B. gave a name. The head of the 365th, or lowest world, rules the material universe, which, along with other angels, he also created. He is the God or Jehovah of the Old Testament, and when the earth was divided among the rulers of the material universe, the Jewish nation fell to the share of himself, who was the prince of the lowest class of angels. But wishing to absorb all power himself, he strove against the other angels, and to make them subject to his 'chosen people,' the result of which was war, strife, division in the world, together with the loss of the true religion, to restore which the Supreme God sent the first *Æon* (*Nous*, or Intelligence), who united himself to the man Jesus at his baptism, and so taught men that the destiny of their rational spirit was to return into God. This *Nous*, however (who was the true Christ), did not really suffer crucifixion, for, changing forms with Simon of Cyrene, he stood by *laughing* while Simon suffered, and afterwards returned to heaven. B. also taught the doctrine of a purgatorial transmigration of souls in the case of the wicked. His disciples (Basilidians) were numerous in Egypt, Syria, Italy, and even in Gaul, where they continued to exist till the 4th c. They were accused by their enemies of Antinomianism and 'magic,' but whether on good grounds or not, cannot be ascertained.

BA'SILISK, according to ancient and mediæval authors, a terrible creature, which, however, may be regarded as entirely fabulous—the fables concerning it being so many and so monstrous, that it is vain to seek for any foundation of truth, or to inquire if any of them originally had reference to any particular creature whatever. The ancients, as Dioscorides, Galen, and Pliny, des[cribe] it as a serpent: in the middle ages, it was [usually] represented as more of a lizard appe[arance], provided with eight instead of four fe[et], and to have been at last pretty e[xactly] with the Cockatrice (q. v.), [which] be generated in a very wo[nderful] produced from an egg laid [by a] cock, and hatched by a toad; [others] find the B. sometimes [with] cock's head. The B. [was] serpents, all of which [had] it approached; whence [the name], diminutive of *basileus*, a [king]—sometimes translated into Latin by *regu[lus]*. It [had] minences on its head, which, [as] in books, assumed very exactly a crown. It inhabited the de[sert], indeed, could only inhabit a [place] burned up all vegetati[on] bones of any animal w[hich] and its very look was [fatal]; could venture into [the] of a mirror, which [reflected] upon itself.—These t[ales] mentioned, were it o[therwise] to them by poets and other w[riters]. the B. was, of course, ext[inct]. cians. It occupies an im[portant] the legends of the sai[nts]. to have delivered [Rome] caused a deadly pe[stilence].

The word

times used in the Latin Vulgate, where the authorised English version of the Old Testament sometimes has *adder*, and sometimes *cockatrice*; but no trace of any of the marvels concerning the B. is to be found there.

BA'SILISK (*Basiliscus*), in modern Zoology, a genus of saurian reptiles of the family of *Iguanidæ* (see IGUANA), differing from the iguanas in the want of the dewlap or appendage of skin under the throat, and of the series of pores on the inside of each thigh; also in having a continuous elevated crest along the back and tail, capable of being erected or depressed at pleasure, and apparently intended to aid the motions of the animal in water like the corresponding fin of a fish.—The basilisks are remarkably adapted both for climbing trees and for swimming. Their feet are not webbed, their toes rather long. They are perfectly harmless creatures, very active and lively, and it is difficult to say why they should have received the name of the fabulous monster of antiquity, unless because their appearance is far from agreeable to those unaccustomed to it, and perhaps because an appendage at the back of the head may have been thought to represent the crown of the dragon king. This appendage is most conspicuously developed in the Mitred or Hooded B. (*B. mitratus*), a native of the tropical parts of America, and consists of a hood or membranous

Hooded Basilisk.

bag, capable of being dilated with air, and then about the size of a pullet's egg, which is supposed, notwithstanding its extremely different situation, to have a use somewhat analogous to that of the air-bladder of fishes. The mitred B. is from 25 to 30 inches long, including the long and very tapering tail. —Another and larger species, of a generally greenish colour (*B. Amboinensis*), inhabits the islands of the Indian Archipelago, and is much used there for food. Its flesh is said to be very white and tender. It is often seen on the branches of trees above water, into which it drops when alarmed.

BA'SIN, a geographical term of considerable importance. The *B.* of a river is the whole tract of country drained by that river, and is, of course, more or less concave. The line or boundary which separates one river-basin from another is called the water-shed. By tracing these water-sheds, the whole of a country or continent may be divided into a number of distinct basins; and this is one of the most instructive elements in the physical geography of a country. The *B.* of a lake or sea, again, is made up of the basins of all the rivers that flow into it.

BA'SIN, in Geology, is a term applied to depressions in the strata, in which beds of a later age have been deposited. Thus, the London B., consisting of tertiary sands and clays, occupies a hollow in the chalk, which is bounded by the North Downs on the south, and by the chalk-hills of Berks, Wilts, Bucks, and Herts on the north. The term has also been applied to synclinal depressions of strata, which have been produced by the elevation or depression of all the strata contained in the B., as the coal-B. of South Wales.

BA'SINGSTOKE, a town in the north of Hampshire, 46 miles west-south-west of London. It is a place of much activity, being situated at the junction of five main roads to London from the south and west of England. The country around is fertile and wooded. The chief trade is in corn, malt, coal, and timber. Near the town is a tract of 108 acres, on which every householder has the right of pasturage. There is also, not far from the town, an ancient camp, surrounded by an irregular oval embankment, 1100 yards in circumference, with an entrance on the east and west sides. Basing House Castle, belonging to the Marquis of Winchester, long withstood the forces of the Commonwealth, but Cromwell at last took it by storm, and burned it to the ground in 1645. Pop. (1871) 5574.

BA'SKERVILLE, JOHN, a celebrated English printer and letter-founder, was born in 1706 at Wolverley, in Worcestershire. He became a writing-master in Birmingham, and afterwards carried on the business of japanning there with great success. He began about 1750 to make laborious and costly experiments in letter-founding, and succeeded in making types which have scarcely yet been excelled. He printed an edition of Virgil at Birmingham in 1756, which was followed by other Latin classics, a few English and Italian authors, and a New Testament (Oxf. 1763), much admired as specimens of printing, although not otherwise possessing high merit. His services to the art of printing met with little encouragement and no requital. He died in 1775. He was a man of obliging disposition, but of a gloomy temperament, and condemned all religious service as superstition. B. was buried in a tomb of masonry in the shape of a cone, under a windmill, in his garden; but the ground becoming valuable for building purposes, his remains were exhumed in the summer of 1821, and deposited in the vaults of Christ Church, in the neighbourhood of the spot where they were originally interred. Baskerville editions of works are now prized by persons of taste.

BA'SKET (Welsh, *basgel*, or *basgawd*, a netting or weaving of splinters), a domestic utensil, usually made of willows, reeds, or chips, interwoven, although sometimes the materials are gold, silver, iron, glass, &c. Baskets have been in use from very early ages. The Israelites were commanded (Deuteronomy xxvi. 2) to offer unto the Lord, as soon as they came into possession of the land of Canaan, 'the first of all the fruit of the earth' in a *basket*. The baskets used on such occasions by the rich Jews were made of gold and silver, and were returned to the offerers; but those used by the majority of the people were of barked willow, and were retained by the priests. The ancient Britons were remarkably expert in the manufacture of baskets, which were much prized by the Romans for their neatness and elegance. The process of B.-making is very simple, and appears to be well known among the rudest peoples—even among the aborigines of Van Diemen's Land. In this country the willow is chiefly used in the manufacture of baskets. In several parts of England and Scotland, great attention is paid to the cultivation of the willow; and judging from the statements of some of the cultivators, the returns yielded are very satisfactory. One calculates his profits at £18, 10s. per acre, and another at £10 per acre. The tools required being few and inexpensive, a large number of poor persons are engaged in the manufacture of baskets, that are hawked about the streets by their wives and children. B.-making also forms a part of the industry of almost all blind asylums. Baskets are of all shapes and sizes, and their uses are so well known to all as to

obviate the necessity of description here. Baskets to the value of £30,000 or £40,000 are annually imported from the continent.

BASNAGE DE BEAUVAL, JAQUES, the most distinguished of a distinguished French family, mostly supporters of the Protestant cause, was the son of Henry Basnage, an able advocate in the parliament of Normandy, and was born at Rouen, August 8, 1653. Having studied theology at Geneva and Sedan, he became pastor of the reformed church in Rouen (1676). That church being interdicted in 1685, B. obtained leave to retire to Holland, where he finally settled as stipendiary minister of the Walloon Church in the Hague, having gained the friendship of the Grand Pensionary Heinsius. Here, while zealously discharging his religious duties, he was called upon to take an active part in state affairs, particularly in negotiating the defensive alliance concluded between France, England, and the States-general, 14th February 1717. Amid all these duties and distractions, B. cultivated literature with ardour, and was no less distinguished for his extensive learning than for the polish of his manners and the integrity of his character. B., who commanded in a singular degree the esteem both of Protestants and Catholics, died on the 22d September 1723.

His chief works, which have been frequently laid under contribution without being named, are *La Communion Sainte* (Rott. 1688), a work approved even by Catholics, and often reprinted; *Traité de la Conscience* (Amst. 1696, 2 vols.); *Histoire de l'Eglise* (Rott. 1699, 2 vols. fol.); *Histoire des Juifs* (Rott. 1706, 5 vols.), one of B.'s best productions, and translated into English by Th. Taylor (Lond. 1708); *Dissertation Historique sur les Duels et les Ordres de Chevalerie* (Amst. 1720).

BASQUE PROVINCES, a district of Spain, in lat. 42° 25′—43° 28′ N., and long. 1° 44′—3° 25′ W., and comprising the three provinces of Biscay, Guipuzcoa, and Alava, which constituted the ancient *Cantabria*. They form a sort of triangle, the base of which is the Bay of Biscay on the north, and the apex the town of Logrono in the south; the boundary-lines of Navarre on the east, and Santander and Burgos on the west, forming the two sides. The total area of the provinces is about 3000 square miles, and the population in 1867, 461,880. The surface of the B. P. is very mountainous, particularly that of Alava, which is everywhere cut up into deep narrow valleys by offsets from the main chain of mountains. The rivers of Biscay and Guipuzcoa, none of which are important, empty themselves after a short course into the Bay of Biscay; those of Alava flow down the opposite slopes into the Ebro, which carries their waters to the Mediterranean. The climate in all the three provinces is, on the whole, mild and salubrious. The general aspect of the country is very picturesque, the hills in most cases being covered with wood to the very summit. The principal trees are oak, beech, and chestnut. The fruit of the chestnut forms an article both of diet and of export. The soil in the valleys and plains, though not very rich, has been rendered productive by the energy of the people, who spare no labour in the cultivation. But as yet, science and machinery have done little or nothing to assist nature and manual exertion. A spade, or prong-fork, is the chief mechanical aid the Basque peasant has. The farms are small, usually only about four or five acres, and rarely more than can be managed by the farmer and his family. Notwithstanding, the roads and agriculture of these provinces contrast very favourably with those of Spain generally. The products are wheat, barley, maize, flax, hemp, &c.; the wheat, however, only ripening in the most favoured localities. Pasture-land occupies a considerable portion of the surface; and a poor wine, called *chacoli*, is made in large quantities, and forms the chief beverage of the inhabitants, who appear to relish it, although it is disliked by all travellers.

There are numerous rich veins of iron in the hills, which are extensively wrought; and copper and tin are also obtained, as well as marble of various kinds, porphyry, and jasper. The fisheries employ a goodly number of people on the coast, and many are engaged in the preparation of charcoal. The Basques are said to be the first Europeans who went to the whale-fishing.

The Basques are a simple, brave, and independent people, willing to undergo any hardships rather than surrender their mountain-freedom. None of their many invaders were ever able to effectually subdue or expel them. The B. P. still retain a separate constitution, guaranteeing them many political and fiscal privileges not possessed by the rest of Spain. They have freedom from conscription, and free-trade in salt and tobacco, upon which a heavy duty is levied in the adjoining provinces. The Basques are even prouder than Spaniards, and the mere fact of being born in their territory secures the privilege of 'universal nobility.' *Euscaldunac* is the name the Basques give themselves; their country they call *Euscaleria;* and their language, which is peculiarly their own, *Euscara*—the prefix *Eus* being 'the old *Osc*, *Esc*, *Vasq* of Italy and Iberia.' The origin of the Basques is doubtful. Humboldt considers them descendants of the ancient Iber, who once occupied the whole of the peninsula, and spoke the language now confined solely to the B. P.; while Mr Borrow's opinion is, that the language is of Tatar origin. The Basques are fond of music, and on their chief holiday, Sunday, they indulge in singing, dancing, and single-stick, which they enjoy immensely. For a more particular account of the B. P., we would refer to that excellent manual, *Ford's Hand-book of Spain.*

BAS-RELIEF. See ALTO-RILIEVO.

BASS. See BASE.

BASS ROCK, a remarkable island-rock near the mouth of the Firth of Forth, about 2 miles from Canty Bay, Haddingtonshire, opposite the ruined castle of Tantallon. It is composed of fine granular greenstone or clinkstone, and is about a mile in circumference, nearly round, and 350 feet high. It

Bass Rock.

is inaccessible on all sides except the south-east, where it shelves down to the water, and there the landing is difficult, and almost impossible, when there is any swell. On the west, north, and east,

the precipices rise perpendicularly out of the sea, often to the height of 200 feet. These are the abode of immense numbers of solan geese (it is estimated that 10,000—15,000 of these fowls resort here annually) and other aquatic birds, which give to the surface of the rock quite a snowy appearance in the distance. A huge cavern traverses the rock from north-west to south-east, and is accessible at low tide. There is a spring on the island, and a few sheep are pastured on it, the mutton of which is much prized. How early the Bass was tenanted, is doubtful; but there is a tradition to the effect that St Baldred resided on it as early as the 7th c. It is also not very certainly known when the Bass was first fortified, but it formed a retreat for the son of Robert III., afterwards James I. of Scotland, before his nineteen years' captivity in England. James VI. visited the Bass in 1581, and was anxious to obtain it for state purposes; but its owner, 'Lauder of the Bass,' refused to part with it. The Registers of the Church of Scotland were sent to the Bass in 1651, for preservation from Cromwell; but the Protector forced their surrender in the following year. In 1671, Charles II. purchased the rock for £4000, and within its dreary dungeons many of the most eminent of the Covenanters were confined during that and the following reign. It is a somewhat curious fact, that the Bass was the last spot in the British Islands which held out for the Stuarts. A mere handful of adventurers in the Jacobite interest, 24 in number, had the address to capture the island, and to retain it in name of King James, from June 1691 till April 1694, against all the forces which the government of William III. sent against them; at last, the spirited little garrison surrendered on honourable terms, and only from a consciousness of failing provisions. For an account of this romantic incident, see *Pictorial History of England*, vol. iv. p. 16, new edition. In 1701 the fortifications were demolished by order of William III. Five years afterwards, the Bass passed into the possession of Sir Hew Dalrymple, to whose lineal descendant it now belongs. The king of the Belgians (then Prince Leopold) visited the rock in 1819, and, three years afterwards, George IV., on passing it on his voyage to Scotland, was honoured with a royal salute from some guns then on it. The Bass is let to a 'keeper,' who pays a considerable sum for it annually, the rent being made up by the money obtained for the young geese, which are used as food, and by the fees exacted from visitors to the rock. There is an interesting volume on the Bass, historical, geological, and botanical, the joint production of Dr M'Crie, jun., Hugh Miller, and Professors Fleming and Balfour.

BASSA, or **BAFFA**, an excellent port on the Grain Coast, Guinea, formerly much resorted to by trading vessels for coarse pepper; latterly, for slaves. The country around produces lemons, oranges, and bananas in abundance.

BASSANO, a town of Italy, in the former province of Venice, 19 miles north-east of Vicenza, on the Brenta—population about 12,000. It is situated on a rising-ground in an extensive plain, and has a considerable trade in wine, olives, silk, leather, &c., as well as a great printing establishment. It has 30 churches, and a number of fine palaces. One of its gates, the work of Palladio, is greatly admired. It is famous for a victory of Bonaparte over the Austrian field-marshal, Wurmser, on 8th September 1796, and was the scene of other battles between the French and Austrians in the wars of that period.

BASSANO (or, more properly, GIACOMO DA PONTE), an artist of great eminence, was born at Bassano, in the north of Italy, in 1510. He was first educated in the principles of his art by his father, Francesco da Ponte, who was himself a painter of considerable merit, and afterwards visited Venice, where he became a pupil of Bonifazio Veneziano. Here he enjoyed opportunities of studying the designs of Parmegiano, Titian, Tintoretto, and others. The earlier stages of his professional career clearly indicate that these great painters had kindled a rich and emulative enthusiasm in B., for his works display a loftier genius, both as regards conception and execution, than at a later period. His principal effort, belonging to this higher epoch, is a fresco painted on the front of the house of the Michelli family. It represents Samson destroying the Philistines; the figure of the mighty Israelite being considered not unworthy of Michael Angelo. After his father's death, he returned to Bassano, where he devoted himself to a simpler style of art. From this time, however, dates his celebrity. He may even be said to have founded a school, whose peculiarity was the delineation of common things, markets, fairs, country inns, farm-yards, &c. He had a passion for introducing cattle into his pictures, even under the most inappropriate circumstances. The special merits of this lower style, into which B. finally lapsed, are its vigorous and picturesque colouring, and its accurate imitation of nature. B.'s landscapes, however, betray a comparative ignorance of perspective. Occasionally, during his later years, B. shewed that his early love of the sublime was not wholly extinguished, by painting several altar-pieces, which exhibit a noble grandeur of execution, such as the 'Entombing of Christ,' in the church of St Maria, Padua; a 'Nativity,' now in the Louvre, Paris; 'St Roche interceding with the Virgin for a People infected with the Plague,' at Vicenza; 'The Wise Men's Offering,' and the 'Seizure of Christ in the Garden.' His rural pictures are abundant in the Italian galleries and in English collections. B. also painted heads of several of his contemporaries, Tasso, Ariosto, &c., and was in high favour with the Emperor Rudolph II., for whom he also executed several works. He died in 1592. He left four sons, who all followed their father's profession, but were not marked by any special originality of manner.

BASSE (*Labrax*), a genus of sea-fishes of the Perch (q. v.) family, distinguished from the true perches (*Perca*) by having the tongue covered with small teeth. The species are found on the shores both of Europe and America. The only British one is the Common B. (*L. lupus*), a fish which in its fins, scales, &c., much resembles a perch, but has a more elongated and salmon-like form. It is pretty abundant on some parts of the British coasts, and is not unfrequently taken by angling from the rocks, or by small seine-nets on sandy shores; often, also, by the hand line and by the long line. It is a strong, active fish, and was well known to the ancients; *labrax* is its Greek name; the Romans called it *lupus* (i. e., wolf), from its remarkable voracity. It is much esteemed for the table. It sometimes attains a large size, fifteen pounds or more in weight, but is generally much smaller. It not unfrequently ascends rivers to some distance, and the experiment of keeping it in a fresh-water pond has even been tried with success.—The Striped B., or Rock-fish of the United States (*L. lineatus*), very nearly resembles the common B., but attains a larger size, and is marked by seven or eight longitudinal black lines. The name Stone B. is given to the *Polyprion cernium*, a fish very rare on the coasts of Britain, but abundant in more southern parts of the Atlantic Ocean, as far as the Cape of Good Hope, and found on the

American coasts and in the Mediterranean. In general appearance, it resembles the common perch more nearly than the B., but differs from both in having only a single elongated dorsal fin. It sometimes follows ships of which the bottom is covered with barnacles, is easily taken, and is esteemed excellent for the table.

BASSE-CHANTANTE, in Music, the higher of the two basses in a score, partaking of more melody, and performed by the violoncello.

BASSE-CONTRAINTE, a French term in music, meaning a bass melody of a few bars repeated throughout the piece, while the other parts vary.

BASSEI'N, the name of two cities in India.—1. B., *in Pegu*, the capital of a district of the same name, stands on the left bank of an arm of the Irrawaddy, which joins the Bay of Bengal a few miles to the south of Cape Negrais. It lies in lat. 16° 45′ N., and long. 94° 50′ E.; and though it is 90 miles from the sea, yet it is easily and safely accessible to the largest ships. In a military view, also, the place is important, as it completely commands the navigation of the stream. It was captured by its present masters, the British, in 1852, the first year of the second Burmese war. Its estimated population is about 3000.—2. B., in the *presidency of Bombay*, is situated on an island of the same name; lat. of the island, 19° 20′—19° 28′ N., and long. 72° 48′—72° 54′ E. It appears to be the mere wreck of former grandeur, having been found by Bishop Heber, in 1825, with many churches and convents, to be altogether uninhabited and desolate. In 1534, it was ceded to the Portuguese; in 1765, after a possession of 231 years, it was wrested from them by the Mahrattas; in 1780, it surrendered to the British, after a regular siege of twelve days. The island, which contains about 35 square miles, is separated from the continent by a narrow channel, which, as a shelter for shipping, constituted its value in the eyes of the Portuguese. Historically, B. is of some interest, having been promised, though never delivered, as part of the dowry of Charles II.'s Portuguese consort.

BA'SSES, two ledges of rocks to the south-east of Ceylon, distinguished as *Great* and *Little*—the former group being more to the south-west, and the latter more to the north-east. They lie in N. lat. 6° 11′—6° 26′, and in E. long. 81° 40′—81° 59′. Their importance arises merely from their position, which is in a great thoroughfare of traffic.

BASSE-TERRE, a French term, equivalent to the English *Lowlands*, or, rather, *Lowland*, appropriately applied to several localities in the West Indies.—1. The capital of St Kitt's, on the west coast, in lat. 17° 17′ N., and long. 62° 42′ W. It is a low, hot, dusty place, standing at the outlet of a lovely valley of the same name. Its population is about 7000; and its trade, as the port of the island, is considerable. The designation of the valley and town is a memorial of the former occupation of the half of St Kitt's by the French.—2. The capital of Guadeloupe, giving its name to the larger of the two islets into which Guadeloupe is divided by an arm of the sea, known as Salt River. B. stands on the south-west coast, in lat. 16° N., and long. 61° 44′ W., having nothing worthy of the name of harbour, but merely a roadstead. It contains about 6000 inhabitants.—3. The chief town of Marie Galante, a dependency of Guadeloupe, which is about 12 miles to the north-west. It is otherwise ambitiously called Grand Bourg.

BA'SSET HORN (corno di bassetto), the richest and softest of all wind-instruments, invented in Passau, in 1770, improved by Lotz in Presburg, in 1782. It is similar to a clarionet in tone and fingering; its compass is two and a half octaves, the notes written for it being from

but the instrument sounds a fifth lower than the notes are written.

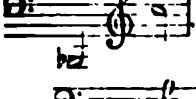
BA'SSIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Sapotaceæ* (q. v.). The species are trees, tropical or sub-tropical, the flowers of which are remarkable for their fleshy corolla, and for the abundance of oil or butyraceous fat which the seeds contain, and which is used for many purposes by the inhabitants of the countries to which they are indigenous. The fruit has a pulpy rind, and 3 or 4 1-seeded cells. The ovary has 8 cells; but some of them are always abortive. The BUTTER-TREE, described by Mungo Park as growing in the interior of Africa, in the country of Bambarra, has been supposed to belong to this genus, and named *B. Parkii*. According to the eminent botanist Robert Brown, however, the seed of the butter-tree, as figured by Park, scarcely belongs to the genus B., but rather to the nearly allied genus *Vitellaria* or *Lucuma*. It produces the *Galam Butter*, also called *Shea Butter* (i. e., Tree Butter), which is highly valued, and forms an important article of internal commerce in the interior of Africa. The seeds of the fruit, which resembles an olive, are dried in the sun, or in a peculiar kind of oven, and the kernels are then boiled in water, in order to obtain the butter from them, which not only keeps for a whole year without salt, but is also whiter, more solid, and more pleasant to the taste than the butter of cows' milk. This butter is used both as an article of food and of medicine. It has been supposed that the introduction of this tree might be of great importance in other tropical countries.—The MADHUCA, MAHWA, or MAHOWA Tree of the East Indies (*B. latifolia*), is described as resembling a good oak in size, and is a valuable timber-tree. It is found in the mountainous parts of the Circars, Bahar, Bengal, &c. Its flowers are eaten raw, and a kind of arrack or spirit is distilled from them. The seeds yield, by expression, a considerable quantity of a concrete greenish-yellow oil, which is used for lamps, and occasionally for frying articles of food.—The Indian BUTTER-TREE, or PHULWARA or FULWA Tree (*B. butyracea*), is found in some of the more mountainous parts of India, and attains a height of 50 feet. Its timber is light and of no value. The leaves are 6—12 inches long. The fruit is of the size of a pigeon's egg, and although eaten, is not much esteemed; but from the seed, a concrete oil or butter is obtained, by expression, of a delicate white colour, much valued for medicinal uses, and as an unguent. It keeps for many months without becoming rancid.—The seeds of the ILLIPE-TREE, or Indian OIL-TREE (*B. longifolia*), a native of Coromandel, yield a large quantity of oil, which is used for lamps, for soap-making, and also by the poorer classes in cookery. The fleshy flowers are eaten, and are much esteemed; and the timber is very hard and durable, so much so, indeed, as to be compared in quality to teak.

BA'SSINET. See HELMET.

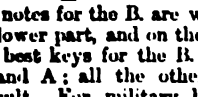
BASSOMPIERRE, FRANÇOIS DE, Marshal of France, was born in 1579 at Harnel, in Lorraine. Belonging to one of the oldest French families, he came, at the age of 20, to the French court, where he gained the favour of Henry IV. After the murder of Henry IV., he attached himself to the party of the queen, who appointed him colonel of the Swiss Guards; but on the murder of Concini, he sought to establish himself in the favour of the young king, and when the quarrel broke out between

mother and son, he particularly contributed to the overthrow of the former. He was raised to the rank of Marshal of France in 1622; was sent on embassies to Spain, Switzerland, and England; was actively employed in the siege of La Rochelle; took the pass of Susa by storm in 1629; and commanded for a little while the troops raised in Languedoc against the Huguenots. He became, however, an object of suspicion and dislike to Richelieu, who caused him to be cast into the Bastile in February 1631, from which he was not liberated until the death of Richelieu, in 1643, after he had been twelve years imprisoned. He died in 1646. He was an accomplished courtier, extravagant, and excessively addicted to gallantries. At the time of his arrest, he destroyed 6000 love-letters. His *Mémoires* (2 vols., Cologne, 1665; 4 vols., Amst. 1723), written in the Bastile, are rendered interesting by their spirited style.

BASSOON (Ital. *Fagotto*), a well-known wind-instrument of the reed species, made of maple-wood or plane-tree. The B. is an Italian invention; its name fagotto, meaning *a bundle*, probably from its being made in different pieces laid one against the other. The French call it *Basson de hautbois;* the Germans retain its Italian name. Its invention is attributed to Canonicus Afranio, in Ferrara, in 1539. In the middle of the 16th c., it had already reached great perfection. Sigmund Schnitzer, in Nürenberg, who died in 1578, was a celebrated maker. The B. consists of a bored-out tube of wood in several pieces, fixed together alongside each other, so as to bring the holes and keys within the reach of the fingers of each hand. The B. has, in general, not less than 8 holes and 10 keys. In the narrow end of the wooden tube is fixed a small tapering brass tube in the form of an S, on the end of which is placed the reed for producing the tone. The compass of the B. is from



but the best tones are those from



. The lowest C sharp, and B natural, are wanting. The notes for the B. are written on the bass clef for the lower part, and on the tenor clef for the higher. The best keys for the B. are E flat, B flat, F, C, G, D, and A; all the other keys are more or less difficult. For military bands there are different sizes of bassoons—one a fourth lower; another, the contra B., an octave lower; and a third, the tenor B., a fifth higher—all of the same construction. The best instruction books for the B. are by Almenräder, Fröhlich, Ozi, and by the Paris Conservatorium. B. is also the name of an organ-stop, the pipes of which are made to imitate the tones of the instrument.

BASSO'RA, BUSSORA, or **BASRAH,** a town of Asiatic Turkey, pashalic of Bagdad, is situated on the western bank of the Euphrates, here called the Shat-el-Arab, about midway between the mouth of the Tigris and the Persian Gulf, from which it is 70 miles distant. Lat. 30° 30′ N., long. 47° 34′ E. There are many gardens within the walls of the city, and many plantations of roses around it, but it is very dirty. The river, which is navigable up to B. for ships of 500 tons, is there divided into a number of channels, and by evaporation and frequent overflowing, makes the climate very unhealthy. The inhabitants, 60,000 in number, are for the most part poor Arabs and Persians; the officials and military alone are Turks. Commerce is in the hands of Armenians. Most of the houses are low huts, built of unburned bricks. An extensive trade is carried on in the exchange of the productions of Turkey and Persia with those of India, and also in European goods, particularly articles of British manufacture. Amongst the exports, are strong and beautiful horses. Caravans travel to Persia, and also by Bagdad and Aleppo to Constantinople. To guard against the incursions of the Arabs, a wall of about 94 miles in length has been erected in the neighbouring desert, at all the gates of which a watch is maintained. B. was founded in 636 by the Calif Omar, and soon became one of the most famous and opulent cities of the East. The possession of it has been the subject of many contests between the Turks and the Persians. It is a place of great note in the history of Arabic literature. A number of Arabian poets and scholars derive from it the surname of Basri.

BASSORA GUM, a whitish or yellowish-opaque substance resembling gum-arabic, but differing from it by being mostly insoluble in water. Its source has not been satisfactorily ascertained.

BASSO-RILIE'VO. See ALTO-RILIEVO.

BASS'S STRAIT separates Tasmania from Australia. It contains many islands, chiefly in its southern section, and is greatly beset by coral-reefs. It runs almost due east and west, has an average breadth of about 200 miles, and is pretty nearly bisected by the parallel of 40°.

B. S. deservedly bears the name of its explorer, who, without having been professionally a seaman, is entitled to a very high place among maritime discoverers. After having made shorter excursions from Port Jackson, in a mere wherry of 8 feet in length, Mr Surgeon Bass resolved to settle, in a whaling-boat, the question as to the connection or separation of New Holland and Tasmania. In his frail craft, he penetrated as far as Western Port, near the entrance of Port Phillip, where, from the trending of the land and the swell of the sea, he inferred that he had most probably reached the open ocean. He did not rest contented, however, until, in a tiny bark of 25 tons, he actually circumnavigated Tasmania. The discovery, so deliberately prosecuted, and so satisfactorily completed, soon proved to be fertile of results; for in 1802, only four years after the exploration of Bass, Port Phillip was entered; in 1804, Tasmania was colonised; and now the strait is the highway for a trade of more than a million sterling between Victoria and Tasmania—a trade which has very recently received an additional impetus from the laying of a telegraphic cable between the two colonies at their joint expense.

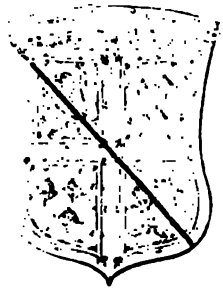
BAST, or **BASS,** also called *Inner Bark, Liber,* or *Endophlæum* (see BARK), the fibrous inferior layer of the bark in the stems of exogenous plants, which is particularly conspicuous in exogenous trees, as a peculiar substance interposed between the true bark and the wood. It consists in great part of sap-vessels (laticiferous vessels, see LATEX and SAP) lying close together, and assuming the appearance of tough fibres. In a fresh state, it has generally a whitish colour; and it is often composed of several layers, to which, however, the collective name of B.-layer is very often applied. The uses of this part of plants in the arts are very numerous; the fibres of hemp, flax, jute, &c., are nothing else than bast. The name B., however, is more commonly applied to the inner bark of trees, and is originally Russian, designating the inner bark of the lime-tree (q. v.) or linden-tree, which is employed for making a coarse kind of ropes, mats well known as B.-mats, and a kind of shoes much worn by the Russian peasantry. The trees are cut when full of sap in spring. For B. to be plaited into shoes, young stems of about

three years old are preferred; and it is said that two or three are required to make a single pair of shoes. Trees of six or eight years old are cut down for the better kind of mats, which are exported in large quantities from Russia, and particularly from the port of Archangel, and so much used for packing furniture, for covering tender plants in gardens, supplying strands with which plants are tied, &c. The trees from which the B. is taken are very generally burned for charcoal. After the bark is dried, its layers are easily separated by steeping in water. The finest layers are the inner, and the coarser are the outer ones.—The manufacture of B.-mats is nearly confined to Russia and Sweden. Not fewer than 3,500,000 are annually exported from Russia, and from 500,000 to 800,000 are annually imported into Britain. A few are made in Monmouthshire. Lime-tree B. is used in the south of Europe for making hats. The name B.-hat is, however, very often given to a hat made of willow-wood planed off in thin ribbons, and plaited in the same manner as straw-hats. The inner bark of *Grewia dilyma*, a tree of the same natural order with the lime-tree, is used for making ropes in the Himalaya Mountains.

BA'STARD BAR. In popular speech we frequently hear of a *Bar-sinister*, as a mark of bastardy. But a bar-sinister, strictly speaking, is an impossibility, inasmuch as the Bar (q.v.) is not formed of diagonal but of horizontal lines. A Bend-sinister (q.v.), which, by the French, is called a bar, has with more reason been confused with the true mark of illegitimacy, and has on that account been avoided even by heralds. But the real B. B. differs very essentially from the bend-sinister, being half of the scarp, which again is half of the bend-sinister.

Bastard Bar.

'The half of the scarp,' says Nisbet, 'with the English, is called a Batton-sinister; by the French, Baston-sinister; it is never carried in arms but as a mark of illegitimation, commonly called the Bastard-barr.' In modern practice, the baton does not touch the extremities of the shield, or of the quarter in which the paternal arms are placed, but is *couped*—that is, cut short at the ends. In this form the baton, when used as a mark of illegitimacy, is placed over the paternal coat of the bastard, whether used singly or in a quartered shield. Nisbet informs us that the baton-sinister, both in England and Scotland, is comparatively of modern invention, natural children in earlier times not having been permitted to assume the arms or even the names of their fathers. 'The unlawful children of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, begot on Katharine, daughter of Sir Payen Roat Guyn, King of Arms, did not carry the arms of their father the king, though nobilitate, with a baton-sinister, as now used; . . . but after the legitimation of these three natural sons by act of parliament, they then assumed the sovereign ensigns of England, within a bordure gobbonated (q.v.), argent and azure.'



Earl of Murray's Arms.

According to the practice of France, which probably was followed in England also, the bastard could not cancel or alter the baton without the consent of the chief of the family, or the authority of the sovereign. Even where the baton was not removed, it was common for the sovereign to grant his permission to carry it *dexter*, in place of sinister. Charles VII. of France allowed John, the Bastard of Orleans, for his valour against the English, to turn his baton traverse to the dexter, with which he and his successors afterwards *bruised* the arms of Orleans, as dukes of Longueville. The same privilege was granted to James, Earl of Murray, natural son of King James V. of Scotland, by his sister Queen Mary, and he thenceforth carried the Lion and tressure of Scotland thus bruised, quartered with the feudal arms of the earldom of Murray. The general practice of the milder heraldry of our own day is to substitute the gobbonated bordure for the B. B. not only in the case of the legitimate children of bastards, but of bastards themselves.

BASTARD EIGNÉ is the name given in English law-books to an eldest son illegitimate by birth, but whose father and mother were subsequently married, and had other children born in wedlock. See BASTARDS AND BASTARDY.

BA'STARDS AND BA'STARDY. Bastards, as described by Blackstone, are such children as are not born either in lawful wedlock, or within a competent time after its determination. The Scotch lawyers, again, true to their peculiar law of marriage, define a bastard as a child born of a woman who was not married to the father at the time of conception, *and who was never thereafter married to him*. It was at one time the law of England, when divorces *a mensa et thoro* were adjudged by the ecclesiastical courts, that if the wife had children during the legal separation occasioned by the form of divorce, such children were *primâ facie* [illegible] for the law presumed the parties to live [illegible] ably to the sentence of separation. But in modern times, the presumption has changed, and now favours legitimacy.

Bastards are incapable of inheriting real property; nor can they claim any share of personal estate as next of kin to a party dying intestate. They are said to be *filii nullius*, or *filii populi*, the sons of nobody, or the sons of the people, having no inheritable blood in them. As laid down, however, in many authorities, and among others in the last edition of Stephen's *Commentaries*, there is [illegible] tion to this rule in the case of a bastard [illegible] *mulier puisné*, and where, it may be observed, the principle of the Scotch law of legitimation to some extent to be admitted. Thus, where [illegible] has a bastard son, called a *bastard eigné* [illegible] afterwards marries the mother, and by her [illegible] legitimate son, who, in the language of [illegible] called a *mulier puisné*—if the father dies [illegible] *bastard eigné* enters upon his land, and enjoys [illegible] his death, and dies seised thereof, whereby [illegible] inheritance descends to his issue, the [illegible] and all other heirs are totally barred of their [illegible] because the laws of England pay such a [illegible] person in the situation of the *bastard* [illegible] after the land had descended to [illegible] would not unravel the matter [illegible] estate to be shaken. But this in[illegible] to no other kind of bastard; for [illegible] never married to the father, such bastard [illegible] no colourable title at all. And the above would almost appear to be the law of [illegible] the present day. But a recent statute [illegible] opinion somewhat doubtful, for by the 3 [illegible] IV. c. 27, s. 39, it is enacted that no *descent* [illegible] the 31st day of December 1833, shall [illegible] of entry or action for the recovery of [illegible] cast is meant an heir of a party [illegible] illegally to enjoy the land [illegible] his life, and was there [illegible] his heir, who thenceforth

not be impeached either by the original rightful owner, or by any of his descendants. The above statute, however, has cut off the rights in this behalf of all such descents cast, and the true owner can now, under the provisions of the act, always recover. But is the son of a *bastard eigné* such a 'descent cast' as is contemplated by the 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 27? It may be doubted whether he is. The expression 'descent cast' is generally applied in law-books to the case of a *stranger* who, under a forcible, wrongful, and illegal entry on the land, had succeeded in diverting the inheritance from the direct and original channel. But such is not the position of a *bastard eigné*. He is not, in any sense of the word, a stranger; nor is the above privilege or favour allowed him and his family at all in respect of his position towards, or of anything that can be called his title to the *land*, but such privilege and favour are given him solely because of his *peculiar bastardy*. In fact, it is just because he is *not* a stranger, but his father's eldest son by birth, that the law from ancient times decided that he should not be altogether deprived of what otherwise would have been his natural rights. The rule, as we have suggested, appears to be founded on the principle of the Scotch law of subsequent legitimation; and the intention probably was to give effect to the good feeling of the second or other legitimate son, who, from a regard to his mother's character, as well as his brother's position, might find himself excused from asserting his claims. Whether the above statute can, by its general terms, be understood arbitrarily to alter such a reasonable and natural law of family succession, is a question for lawyers and law-courts. The point, however, is important for popular explanation. In all other cases, the law of England appears to be as distinct as it is severe. It has even been decided that a child born before wedlock in a foreign country, and according to whose law such child was legitimate, could not inherit land in England where his bastardy was indelible.

There can be no collateral succession through bastards; for as they cannot be heirs themselves, so neither can they have any heirs but those of their own bodies. A bastard is not entitled to the name either of his reputed father or of that of his mother, though he may acquire for himself a surname by reputation; nor can he take property by the mere description of *child* of his reputed parent, until he has acquired the reputation of standing in that relation to him. Nor does a bastard follow, as legitimate children do, his father's place of parochial settlement under the poor laws, but he has and follows the settlement of his mother until he attains the age of 16, or until he acquires a settlement in his own right, and after that age his primary settlement is in the parish where he was born. Another peculiarity of the status of bastardy is, that a bastard being *filius nullius*, the consent of his father or mother to his marriage is not required, and is of no avail; but a guardian may be appointed by the Court of Chancery for the purpose, or a licence may be granted upon oath made that there is no person authorised to give consent. To this may be added, that although in general a father may by deed or will appoint a guardian for his infant child, in the event of his decease, he has no such privilege if the child be illegitimate.

Such may be stated to be the principal peculiarities attaching to bastardy in the law of England. In other respects, a bastard is very much in the same position as a legitimate person. Thus, he can hold land in fee simple, and can dispose of it as he may think proper, making an unlimited alienation of it; and of course he can make a will bequeathing his whole estate; a simple and reasonable privilege, however, which, strange to say, was not conceded to bastards in Scotland dying without lawful issue, till the year 1836, when an act of parliament was passed, the 6 Will. IV. c. 22, which, on the preamble that 'it is just, humane, and expedient,' empowered bastards in that country to dispose of their personal property by testament or will in like manner as other persons might do, any law or practice to the contrary notwithstanding! In regard to his whole estate, although the crown is entitled to such in the case of a bastard dying intestate, the royal claim is not strictly enforced; but upon petition, the crown's right will be transferred to the nearest member of the deceased bastard's family. In the Scotch law, also, the crown may, by what is called a *gift of bastardy*, grant not only the personal, but the real estate of an intestate bastard to the 'donatory,' or person similarly entitled, as in the case of personal property in England. It is also to be observed, that the prohibitions as to marriage which extend to collaterals, and to those related by the half blood only, also apply although one of the parties be a bastard. Again, the laws relative to incest apply to a bastard with equal force as to others; the principle of the two latter points being that, although the bastard be *filius nullius* as to many civil consequences, his relationship to his natural parent is recognised for moral purposes. Of course, it need not be added that a bastard may be made legitimate by an act of parliament for all purposes, even for that of inheriting land, 'as was done,' says Blackstone, 'in the case of John of Gaunt's bastard children by a statute of Richard II.'

The paternity of a bastard or illegitimate child in England is ascertained by several statutes—7 and 8 Vict. c. 101, 35 and 36 Vict. c. 65, 36 and 37 Vict. c. 9; and the father is bound to make a proper allowance for the child's support till sixteen. But it is on the mother herself that the maintenance of the child in the first instance devolves. She is for this purpose entitled to its custody in preference to its father; and she is bound to maintain it as part of her family while she remains unmarried, or until the child attains the age of 16, or gains a settlement in its own right, or during a female is married; and in the event of the mother's marriage, the same liability attaches to her husband. If the mother be of sufficient ability to maintain the bastard, while he is so dependent on her, and neglect that duty, so that he becomes chargeable to a parish, she is liable, by 7 and 8 Vict. c. 101, s. 6, to be punished under the provisions of the *Vagrant Act* (q. v.). Whether the mother is of sufficient ability or not, she can, by affiliation proceedings, compel the father to pay a sum not exceeding five shillings a week till the child is sixteen (35 and 36 Vict. c. 65).

Besides the points in the Scotch law to which we have adverted, it is to be observed that in that system, the maintenance, or 'aliment,' as it is called, of illegitimate children, is a joint burden upon both parents. The mother is entitled to the custody of the child, but it does not appear whether she is to have such custody for any fixed time. It is in the discretion of the Court of Session to determine this, and it would seem that the period may vary according to circumstances, from seven to fourteen years. During this time, the father is bound to contribute his proportion of the expense; and if neither the father nor mother can support the child, it must be maintained by the parish in which the mother has a settlement.

There is a nice and curious difference in the laws of England and Scotland as to the mode of ascertaining the paternity of a bastard child. According to the statutes we have referred to, that fact may

be proved in England by the evidence of the mother, provided her statement is supported in 'some material particular' by other testimony. But in Scotland, the order of the inquiry is reversed; the woman's evidence in that country being taken *last*, and only where the other and independent evidence amounts to what is called a *semiplena probatio*—that is, such evidence as induces a reasonable belief, although not complete evidence, in which case she is admitted to give what is called her *oath in supplement*.

Both in England and Scotland, the widow of a bastard, whether there be issue or not of the marriage, is entitled to dower, terce, *jus relictæ*, and all the other legal rights of widows. See LEGITIMACY, SEPARATION, DIVORCE, MARRIAGE, DESCENT CAST, INHERITANCE, FEE-SIMPLE, SUCCESSION, PARISH SETTLEMENT, ULTIMA HÆRES, VAGRANT ACT, OATH IN SUPPLEMENT, and SEMIPLENA PROBATIO.

BA'STARDY, GIFT OF. See preceding article.

BA'STARDY, DECLARATOR OF. This is a suit which may be instituted in the Court of Session in Scotland, for having it declared that the lands or effects which belonged to the deceased bastard, belong to the donatory in virtue of the gift from the crown. The 'defender,' or person against whom the suit is formally brought, is the party who would have succeeded to the bastard, had he been legitimate. B. can also be judicially declared by a similar mode of proceeding at the suit of a party who has any other interest, or, indeed, any interest whatever, to have such illegitimacy determined.

By a recent act of parliament, the 21 and 22 Vict. c. 93, the same conclusion may be substantially obtained by the English proceeding, directed by the act in the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes. The act in question, it is declared, may be cited for all purposes, as the 'Legitimacy Declaration Act, 1858.'

BASTI'A, the former capital of Corsica, is picturesquely situated on the slope of a mountain, rising from the sea in the form of an amphitheatre, in the north-eastern part of the island, in lat. 42° 42′ N., and long. 9° 27′ E. It has about 20,000 inhabitants. The streets are narrow and crooked. It has a harbour suitable for small vessels, defended by a mole, at the mouth of which is a rock resembling a lion couchant, and designated 'Il Leone.' There is a considerable trade in leather, skins, wine, oil, figs, and pulse; and many stilettos and daggers are manufactured here, which are principally exported to Italy. Until recently, the printing-presses of B. were actively employed in the production of Italian publications that would not have been permitted to appear in that country itself. B. was founded in 1380 by the Genoese Leonel Lomellino. During last century, it was oftener than once taken by the British. It was made, in 1791, the capital of the French department of Corsica, which rank was afterwards transferred to Ajaccio. It is the seat of the highest courts of the island.

BASTIAT, FRÉDÉRIC, an eminent political economist, was born at Bayonne on the 29th of June 1801. His father was a merchant, and educated his son with a view to the same profession. After completing his studies, B. entered the commercial house of one of his uncles, established at Bayonne, and employed his leisure hours in the study of political economy. Circumstances called him into Spain and Portugal in 1840, where he took advantage of the opportunity afforded him to study the customs and institutions of these two countries, which have still much to learn before they can be on a footing of equality with other nations in matters of finance and political economy. His first appearance as an author was in 1844, when he published, in the *Journal des Economistes*, an article 'On the Influence of French and English Tariffs on the Respective Futures of the two Peoples.' It contained in germ B.'s theory of political economy, who, from that moment, was a decided opponent of the system of protection. Subsequently, in the same journal, he combated the economic fallacies of Socialism and the rights of labour. During a visit to England, he made the acquaintance of Cobden, and on his return to France, he translated (1845) the speeches of the free-traders, which he published with an introductory preface, entitled *Cobden and the League, or the English Agitation in Favour of Free Trade*, in which he gathered up into one solid mass the inconveniences of the protective system. B. now went to reside in Paris, where he continued to propagate his views with considerable success; he became secretary of the societies, and chief editor of the journal, established to vindicate the principles of free trade. After the revolution of 1848, he was elected successively a member of the Constituent and Legislative assemblies. In 1850, he came forward as the antagonist of the Socialist writer, Prudhon. Suffering from pulmonary disease, he repaired to Italy for change of climate, but died at Rome on the 24th December 1850.

Besides the writings mentioned, B. published *Sophismes Economiques—Propriété et Loi, Justice et Fraternité—Protectionisme et Communisme, Harmonies Economiques*, and several other important tractates, all of which exhibit extensive knowledge of the subjects discussed, convincing logic, and a power of sprightly and biting satire. The *Harmonies Economiques* has been translated into English by P. J. Stirling (*Harmonies of Political Economy*, Murray, Lond. 1860). The soundness of the principles which the writings of B. uphold, notwithstanding the protectionist tendencies of the government, is now generally acknowledged in France.

BASTIDE, JULES, a French journalist and politician, Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1848, and member of the Constituent Assembly, was born at Paris in 1800. In 1821, he became one of the first members of the French Carbonari; and after the July revolution, he was conspicuous among the writers of the radical opposition. On the reconstitution of the National Guard, B. was elected commandant-in-chief of the legion of artillery, in which the republicans were grouped, and took part in two insurrectionary movements, for the second of which—the *émeute* at Paris, 5th June 1832—he was condemned to death, but escaped to London. Pardoned in 1834, he returned to Paris, and again devoted himself to politics in the columns of the *National*. B., however, being one of those Neo-catholic republicans who regarded the Church of Rome as the religious synonym of democracy, could not heartily sympathise with the tone of that newspaper on religious topics, and in 1847 he founded the *Revue Nationale*, in which he advocated his peculiar opinions. During the revolution of 1848, he was a supporter of General Cavaignac, and an opponent of Socialism. In 1858, he published *La République Française et l'Italie en* 1848; and in 1859, *Guerre de Religion en France*.

BA'STILLE was, in France, a general term for a strong fortress, defended by towers or bastions (q. v.), and in this sense it was used in England also after the Norman Conquest. The famous prison to which the name latterly was appropriated, was originally the castle of Paris, and was built by order of Charles V., between 1370 and 1383, by Hugo Aubriot, Prévôt or Provost of Paris, at the

Porte St Antoine, as a defence against the English. Afterwards, when it came to be used as a state-prison, it was provided, during the 16th and 17th centuries, with vast bulwarks and ditches. On each of its longer sides the B. had four towers, of five stories each, over which there ran a gallery, which was armed with cannon. It was partly in these towers, and partly in cellars under the level of the ground, that the prisons were situated. The unfortunate inmates of these abodes were so effectually removed from the world without as often to be entirely forgotten, and in some cases it was found impossible to discover either their origin or the cause of their incarceration. The B. was capable

The Bastille.

of containing 70 to 80 prisoners, a number frequently reached during the reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. Though small compared to the number which an ordinary prison contains, these numbers were considerable, when we reflect that they rarely consisted of persons of the lower ranks, or such as were guilty of actual crimes, but of those who were sacrificed to political despotism, court intrigue, ecclesiastical tyranny, or had fallen victims to family quarrels – and were lodged here in virtue of *lettres de cachet* (q. v.) – noblemen, authors, savans, priests, and publishers. On the 14th of July 1789, the fortress was surrounded by an armed mob, which the reactionary policy of the court had driven into fury, and to the number of which every moment added. The garrison consisted of 82 invalids and 32 Swiss. The negotiations which were entered into with the governor led to no other result than the removal of the cannon pointed on the Faubourg St Antoine, which by no means contented the exasperated multitude. Some cut the chains of the first drawbridge, and a contest took place, in which one of the besieged and 150 of the people were killed, or severely wounded; but the arrival of a portion of the troops which had already joined the people with four field-pieces, turned the fortune of the conflict in favour of the besiegers. Delaunay, the governor – who had been prevented by one of his officers, when on the point of blowing the fortress into the air – permitted the second drawbridge to be lowered, and the people rushed in, killing Delaunay himself and several of his officers. The destruction of the B. commenced on the following day, amid the thunder of cannon, and the pealing of the Te Deum. This event, in itself apparently of no great moment, leading only to the release of three unknown prisoners – one of whom had been its tenant for thirty years – and four forgers, and in which it is said only the 654 persons whose names now appear on the column in the Place de la Bastille, took part, nevertheless finally broke the spirit of the court-party, and changed the current of events in France.

BASTINA'DO (from the Fr. *baston* or *bâton*, a cudgel), the name given by Europeans to the punishment in use over the whole East, which consists in blows with a stick, generally upon the soles of the feet, but sometimes upon the back.

BA'STION, in Fortification, is one of the principal defence-works in a fortified place. It is a kind of tower, very broad in relation to its height. The plain wall, called the *curtain*, which often surrounds a fortified town, is usually a polygon of many sides; and in that case, bastions occupy all, or nearly all, the salient angles. Bastions are mostly five-sided: the two outermost sides are the *faces*, meeting in an angle towards the enemy; the two on either side of these are the *flanks*, meeting two curtains or portions of wall; and the fifth side, open to the interior of the fortified place, is the *gorge*. Bastions may be regarded as projections, which enable the defenders to watch the approach of the enemy to the foot of the wall, and to frustrate them by a flanking fire. Taking the average range of modern ordnance and muskets as a basis, engineers decide on a distance of 300 to 400 yards between B. and B.; but if Armstrong or Napoleon guns, and Enfield or Minié rifles, should hereafter be employed in attacking and defending fortified places, these figures will probably need modification. The length of each face and flank of a B. is so regulated, that two bastions can defend each other and the intermediate portion of wall. This principle was partly acted upon in the middle ages; but some of the Italian military engineers of the 16th c. first constructed the B. proper. The main substance of a B. is an immense mound of earth, capable of supporting heavy guns, and of receiving the fire of the enemy; but it is faced and strengthened in many parts with brick and stone. The top is broad enough to allow room for the large guns, and for infantry and artillery soldiers. A *hollow* B. has the space within it kept down to the level of the town or natural ground; but a *solid* B., filled up to the top with firm materials, is considered to be the best defensive construction. Vauban, the great French engineer, devised the plan of having large *detached* bastions opposite the chief angles of the place, with a ditch behind each; a tower or small B. being placed at the real angle of the wall behind. This was intended to enable the besieged to hold out for some time, even after the great bastions were taken.

The relation which bastions bear to the general system of attack and defence, is noticed under FORTIFICATION and SIEGE; while various details on the subject will be found under BATTERY, CASEMATE, CURTAIN, DITCH, EMBRASURE, ESCARP, PARAPET, RAMPART, &c. In wood-cuts illustrating many of these articles, the relative position of the B. will be better shewn than by any diagram in this place.

BA'SYLE is the name given by chemists to a simple or compound substance which can unite with oxygen to produce a base (q. v.). Thus, all the metals are examples of simple basyles, and ammonium (NH_4), ethyle (C_4H_5), methyle (C_2H_3), &c., represent compound basyles. Another property which a B. possesses is, that it can unite with a salt radical (q. v.), like chlorine or cyanogen, to form salts. Thus, the B. sodium (Na) combines with chlorine to produce a salt—in fact, common salt (NaCl); and mercury (Hg) unites with cyanogen (Cy) to form the salt cyanide of mercury ($HgCy_2$).

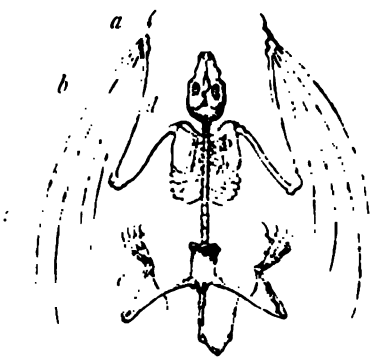
BAT, the common name of all animals of the class *Mammalia* which are furnished with true wings, and so are capable of really flying or propelling themselves in the air. They were all included by Linnæus in the genus *Vespertilio* (old Latin name), now subdivided and forming the family

Vespertilionidæ, which is very generally regarded as of precisely equal extent with the sub-order *Cheiroptera* (Gr. hand-winged), although some naturalists still follow Cuvier in regarding the *Galeopithecidæ* (Colugos or Flying Lemurs) as another

Long-eared Bat (*Plecotus auritus*).

family of Cheiroptera. But besides other characters which connect the Colugos with Lemurs rather than with bats, they greatly differ from bats in having a mere extension of the skin of the flanks attached to the limbs—as in the Flying Squirrels and Petaurists or Flying Phalangers, and in the Flying Dragon among saurian reptiles—capable of sustaining them in the air like a parachute in a very extended leap, but not of being expanded and closed by a succession of strokes for true flight. The power of true flight, bats, on the contrary, possess; and some of them not only fly rapidly, but wheel about very nimbly in the air, in pursuit of their insect prey.

It is very interesting to compare the organs of flight in bats with those of birds, both as to the points in which they agree, and those in which they differ. They beat the air, as birds do, with their anterior members; but the requisite extension of surface is not obtained by quills, but by a great elongation of the arms and fingers, upon which a thin membrane is stretched, folding close to the body by means of their joints, when the wing is not in use. A little attention to the accompanying figures of the skeleton of a bat and of a bat flying, will make plainer than mere words can the relation of the bones of a bat's wing to the bones of the human arm and hand, or to the ordinary bones of the anterior extremities in quadrupeds which have fingers or toes. The thumb, *a* (in figure of skeleton), is short, armed with a strong nail, and not at all included in the wing-membrane, nor used in flight.



Skeleton of Bat.

The bones most elongated of all are the metacarpal bones, or bones of the hand, *b*; the true finger-bones, *c*, are not so much so. The fore-arm, *d*, has not two bones (radius and ulna), but only one (the ulna with a sort of rudiment of the other; the rotator motion, of which these two bones afford the mean being not only unnecessary to bats, but at variance with the purpose chiefly designed in this part of their structure, of a powerful stroke in one particular direction. For a similar reason, 'the fingers of strange hand are incapable of closing towards palm, as ours do, when grasping an object. only movements are such as fold up the against the side of the body, by laying the close along the side of the fore-arm, as in fan.' Great strength, however, was requisite shoulder; and, accordingly, we find an ana birds in the size and solidity of the bones part, as well as in the thickness of the muscles which the wings are moved, and still more in th great dimensions of the sternum, or breast-bone, which they are attached. The sternum is als furnished with a medial ridge, as in birds, for th better attachment of the muscles. The ribs ar large; but the other bones generally, as those o the head and of the pelvis, are delicate. designed for lightness.—The wing- bats extends along the flanks to although these aid little in flight; but is to them so as to leave the feet free, which are like the feet of ordinary small quadrupeds with toes and claws, and are employed along with the thumb of the anterior limbs in creeping upon the ground in climbing perpendicular rough surfaces, or fa

Bat in repose.

hanging with the head downward in able posture of repose in which bats p of their lives, and in which they diffe other animals.

In the greater number of species of B membrane extends not only to the hind beyond them to the tail, which is include peculiar bone (*e* in fig. of skelet from each heel to afford further part of it, which seems to serve to the tail of birds, acting as a ru the animal to make those rapid e air, which it is so pleasing to see as in the summer evening. The fruit-eati tropical regions, which have no need such evolutions, are destitute of this part of the membrane; and accordi for which each species has been de are long or short, entirely included in or only for part of their length, or p little beyond it, and terminating in a that the tail is capable of bei creeping or climbing, evidently able power, and being

manner which suggests a slight analogy to the prehensile tails of monkeys.

Bats were placed by Linnæus in his order *Primates*, along with monkeys and lemurs, with which they agree in their pectoral teats and in other characters, particularly of the organs of reproduction. In one genus (*Dysopus*), there is an additional resemblance to the Primates in the partially opposable thumbs of the hind-feet, and a trace of this character is to be found in the fore-thumbs, already noticed. Bats are now, however, generally placed by naturalists in the order *Fera* or *Carnaria*, although, like many other animals of that great order, most of them are by no means exclusively carnivorous. The greater part of them feed chiefly on insects, some chiefly on fruits. They exhibit considerable variety both in the number and character of their teeth, as might be expected in animals which differ so much in their food. All of them have four rather large canine teeth; the incisors vary much in size and form, as well as in number. The digestive apparatus exhibits a variety corresponding with that of the teeth; the intestinal canal of the Vampyres (q. v.), which live by sucking the blood of animals, proceeding almost in a straight line from one extremity of the body to the other, whilst that of some of the

Head of Pteropus.

frugivorous bats, as the Kalong (q. v.) (*Pteropus*) of Java, is seven times as long as the body.

Except in the power of flight and things essential to it, bats present no resemblance to birds. The old English name *Flitter-mouse*, and the German *Fledermaus*, indicate an early popular recognition of their true place in creation. They are generally nocturnal animals, or, at least, prefer the twilight, although one of the British species may occasionally be seen pursuing insects during winter at mid-day. They generally spend the day in caves, hollow trees, and other dark recesses, often under roofs of houses, and in crannies of ruined or deserted buildings. They are found in almost all parts of the world, except the very coldest, but are most numerous and of greatest size within the tropics. Those of temperate climates generally spend the winter in a state of torpidity, in which, although circulation continues very languidly, respiration does not ordinarily take place. The whole number known to Linnæus amounted to a very few species, not half so many as are now known to inhabit Great Britain alone. Upwards of 130 species have been described, and there is great probability that the actual number existing is very much greater. It is not unlikely that some exaggerated accounts of the great bats of warm climates gave rise to the fable of the Harpies, which Virgil introduced into the *Æneid*. The bats of Europe are all small; the body of the largest British one is not so large as a mouse, and the fullest stretch of its wings about 15 inches, whilst the common British species are much smaller; but in the Kalong, already mentioned, the stretch of wing is 5 feet. Of British species, the largest is the Noctule B. (*Vespertilio noctula*), a very local species, found chiefly in the south of England; the Pipistrelle B. (*V. Pipistrellus*) is perhaps the most common. It was long confounded by British naturalists with the common B. of the continent of Europe (*V. murinus*), which is much larger, and very rare in Britain. In some parts of the country, the Long-eared B. (*Plecotus auritus*) is very common. It is distinguished by its enormously large and very beautiful ears, which, when it is asleep, are folded up in a remarkable manner under the arm, the long *tragus* then resembling a slender

a Great Bat or Noctule Bat (*Vespertilio noctula*).
b Greater Horse-shoe Bat (*Rhinolophus Ferrumequinum*).
Both British.

ear. This great development of the ears is characteristic of certain genera of B., that part of the ear called the *tragus* attaining also a remarkable size, so that it seems like a smaller ear in front of each large one. In many species, only two of which are found in Britain, there is a still more remarkable membranous or leaf-like appendage on the nose, which in some is simple, in some, complex, and often of large size, giving an extraordinary appearance to the face. Some of the larger species, having a nasal crest, are called Spectre Bats (q. v.). Only two species of B. (*Rhinolophus*), possessing such an appendage, are found in Britain, both of them very rare; from the form which it assumes, they are called Horse-shoe Bats. It is supposed that this nasal appendage is of use as a very delicate organ of touch, perhaps also of smell; as the great ears may be of use both for touch and hearing. These senses must often, in bats, when that of sight cannot be employed; and the sense of touch appears to be possessed in no ordinary degree even by the wing membrane. By supposing it to be affected by the pulsations of the air, Cuvier accounted for the power displayed by bats which had been cruelly deprived of sight, of avoiding objects amongst which they flew, without the necessity of ascribing to them, as Spallanzani had done, the possession of a sixth sense.

It deserves to be here noticed that, amongst the peculiarities which distinguish certain genera of bats, is the absence not only of the upper cutting teeth in the East Indian and African genus *Megaderma*, but even of the bone in which these teeth are usually placed; and that another tropical genus, *Nycteris*, of which the species are found in Africa and Java, have the skin attached to the body only at a few points, and capable of being blown up like a bladder, at the pleasure of the animal, by means of air which is inhaled through the nostrils into cheek-pouches communicating by small apertures with the general skin-bag. The use of this is wholly unknown.

Bats walk, or creep awkwardly upon the ground, one side of the body being jerked forward, and then the other, yet they run with considerable celerity. There is a common notion, that they cannot rise easily from a level surface, but must find some eminence from which to throw themselves. Of the fallacy of this, any one will soon be convinced

who gets a B. and places it upon the floor.—Bats commonly produce one or two young at a birth.—

Bat walking (*Plecotus auritus*).

Some of the species are very gregarious; others often fly about in pairs; great numbers, and of different species, are often found congregated in their places of hybernation or repose.—Some of the species are easily tamed, and become very familiar; but their odour is disagreeable, and it is generally found difficult to keep them long alive.

Fossil remains of *Cheiroptera* are occasionally found in eocene rocks, but owing to the delicacy of the bones, great difficulty has been experienced in the determination of the genera and species.

BAT, or BÂT (Fr.), in military matters, was originally the name of a kind of pack-saddle; and hence a bat-horse was a baggage-horse bearing a bat or pack, and a bat-man was a servant in charge of the horse and bat. By a modification of meaning, a bat-man is now any soldier allowed to act as servant to an officer. When British troops are sent on foreign service, bat-horses or mules are provided (if carriages are not forthcoming) for carrying the regimental books, the kettles and tents, the medicine-chest, the veterinary medicine-chest, intrenching tools, armourers' stores, saddlers' stores, &c.—about 20 such horses or mules to each battalion. Bat-horses and bat-men are also provided for carrying officers' camp-equipage. An allowance for procuring these accommodations is usually called Bat-money.

BATA'NGAS, a seaport town of the Philippines, island of Luzon, and capital of the province of the same name. Lat. 13° 45′ N., long. 121° 5′ E. Distance from Manilla, 50 miles S.; founded 1581. Pop. of town and district, 17,000. B., which is well built, and has an elegant appearance, is finely situated on an extensive bay which opens into the Strait of Mindoro. Considerable advantage is taken of its facilities for commerce.

BATARDEAU', a strong wall of masonry, built across the outer ditch of a fortress, to sustain the pressure of water when one part of the ditch is dry and the rest wet. It is built up to an angle at the top, and is armed with spikes, to prevent the enemy from crossing; and sometimes a stone tower is provided to strengthen the defence. There is a sluice-gate to regulate the admission of water.

BATA'TAS, or SWEET POTATO (*Convolvulus Batatas*, or *Batatas edulis*, the genus *Batatas* having recently been separated from *Convolvulus* [q. v.], chiefly upon account of the four-celled ovary), a perennial plant with long creeping stems, heart-shaped leaves on long stalks, and variously lobed, large purple flowers much resembling those of the best known species of Convolvulus, and very large oblong acuminated tubers. It is a native of the East Indies, but is now cultivated in all tropical and subtropical countries for its tubers, which are highly esteemed as an article of food, and are eaten either roasted or boiled; they are sweet, wholesome, and nutritious, but somewhat laxative. The B. forms, next to maize, the principal food of the poorer classes in some parts of America. Its cultivation is very easy; it is readily propagated by tubers [illegible] cuttings of the stem, requires little attenti[on] soon produces its tubers. In hot-houses [illegible] these are without difficulty obtained of l[arge] weight. The cultivation of the B. has been intro[duced] into the south of Europe. In America, it [is] little cultivated to the north of New Jersey, [and] even there is inferior. The leaves are used as [a] boiled vegetable. It is the B., or sweet potato which is usually meant by the older English writers when they mention potatoes. Its tubers were imported into England by way of Spain, and sold as a delicacy, before the potato was known.—*Batatas paniculata*, or *Convolvulus paniculatus*, a nearly allied

Batatas.

species, is cultivated in the same way as the B., and its tubers are similar in qua[lity]. —A new genus *Batatas*, has been referred to, formerly known as *Ipomœa macrorhiza*, now *jalapa*, so called from supposed purgative qualities of the root, which, however, it is found to possess, being white, insipid, saccharine, and farinaceous, and of great size, 50—60 lbs. in weight. The plant inhabits sandy soils in Georgia and [Florida].

BATA'VI (or, according to some MSS., Batavi), the name of a German people, who [originally] inhabited a part of the present Holland, namely, the island which was called after them Batavia, formed by the branch of the Rhine [which] runs into the sea at Leyden, the Waal, and the Meuse. Their country, however, extended [beyond] it, but its boundaries cannot now be determined. According to Tacitus, they were originally a branch of the Chatti, who [dwelt] on the Rhine. They were conquered by [Drusus], became subject to the Romans, and [behaved] so well, that they obtained the honorary title of friends and brothers of the Roman people; were exempted from taxes and assessments, but were required to provide a proportion of troops. They were permitted to choose their own [leaders] amongst themselves. Their cavalry [was particularly] good, and were often employed [in battle]. The first who terms the insular district of these Gauls, Batavia, is Ze[sar], who tells us that in the time of Con[stantine] it had fallen into the hands of [the Franks].

BATAVIA, properly the name of the island occupied by the ancient Batavi, became at a later date the Latin name for Holland and the whole kingdom of the Netherlands. The name BATAVIAN REPUBLIC was given to the Netherlands on their new organisation of 16th May 1795, and they continued to bear it till they were converted into the kingdom of Holland, under Louis Bonaparte, 5th June 1806.

BATAVIA, the capital of the empire of the Netherlands in the East Indies, stands on the north-west coast of Java, at the mouth of the Tjiliwong, frequently called the Jaccatra, from the former native town, on the ruins of which the present city was built. There is good anchorage for large ships in the offing, and it is navigable for smaller vessels towards the interior. The influence of a vertical sun on this Holland in miniature led it to become proverbial as the grave of Europeans. Latterly, however, the climate has been greatly improved by draining. The temperature, though not extreme, is oppressive from its uniformity, the mean of winter being 78·4° F., and that of summer only 78·6°. The latitude is 6° 7′ 40″ S., and the longitude 106° 52′ E. Pop. 55,000. Notwithstanding the growing prosperity of Singapore, B. continues to be the commercial emporium of the far East. Its markets present at once all the productions of Asia, and all the manufactures of Europe. In 1811, while Holland was a vassal of France, B. fell into the hands of the English, by whom it was restored to its former owners in 1816. Latterly, B. has found Singapore a formidable competitor for the trade between East and West. The Dutch government has recently laid a telegraphic cable along a line of 600 miles from B. to Singapore.

The province of Batavia is low, but rises gently towards the south. The forests have all been cut down for the use of the sugar factories. It is well adapted for fruit-trees and vegetables, which are cultivated by Chinese gardeners. Pop. 401,563, consisting of 4145 Europeans, 41,137 Chinese, 355,338 natives, and 943 foreign orientals. The peculiar character of the people has been lost by the influx of and intermarriage with strangers from all districts of the Indian archipelago. The language is a mixture of Sundanese, Malay, and other tongues, and is called low Malay. The largest estates are held by Europeans, the smaller by Chinese and natives. The religion is chiefly Mohammedan. There are good post roads. The industries continue to increase, and chiefly consist of factories for making machinery for distilling and for sugar works; distilling arrack, copper and tin work, dyeing, &c. The nutmeg, cacao, and cocoa nut tree are successfully grown.

BATAWA' PALM. See ENOCARPUS.

BATENBURG, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of Gelderland, situated on the right bank of the Maese, 9 miles west of Nymegen. It is worthy of notice only on account of its association with the Romans, whose *Oppidum Batavorum* it was.

BATH, the chief city in Somersetshire, England, is beautifully situated in a wooded valley in the north east part of the county, on the Avon, 20 miles from its mouth, and 106 miles west of London. The houses are built wholly of white freestone 'Bath oolite,' worked in the neighbouring quarries, bricks being entirely discarded. The city has a finer appearance than any other in England, the variety of level giving very commanding sites for its fine and regular streets, crescents, and public buildings. The beauty and sheltered character of its situation, the mildness of its climate, and especially the curative efficacy of its hot chalybeate springs, have long rendered B. a favourite fashionable resort. The springs, which are four in number, were known to the Romans, who built baths on the spot in the 1st c., of which extensive remains were discovered in 1775. The temperature of the springs varies from 97° to 117° F.; they rise near the river bank, in the centre of the city, and discharge 184,320 gallons of water daily. The water is most useful in bilious, nervous, and scrofulous complaints, palsy, rheumatism, gout, and cutaneous diseases. Though the gaiety of B. has greatly waned since the days of the Prince Regent, there has been a great general improvement in the city, but the population somewhat diminished during the twenty years 1851—1871. It has two parks, and many public walks and open places; theatre, concert-rooms, and other places of amusement; subscription library, museum, club-house, educational institutions, &c. The Abbey Church is a cruciform structure in the latest perpendicular style, with a fine roof in the style of Henry VII.'s chapel, and a central tower 150 feet high. About a mile to the north-west is Beckford's Tower, built by the eccentric author of *Vathek*, but now a cemetery chapel. It is 154 feet high. B. returns two members to parliament. Pop. (1871) 53,704, at times much increased by visitors. B. has no manufactures of any note. Coal is found in the neighbourhood. The Great Western Railway from London to the west passes through the city. B. is of great antiquity; it was a Roman station called *Aquæ Solis*, at the intersection of the great Roman ways from London to Wales, and from Lincoln to the south coast of England. Richard I. granted B. its earliest extant charter, which was subsequently confirmed by Henry III., and greatly extended by George III. A greater number of Roman remains have been found in and near B. than elsewhere in Britain; they form a collection unrivalled in extent and value.

BATH, KNIGHTS OF THE. The name of this order is derived from the ceremony of bathing, which used to be practised at the inauguration of a knight, as an emblem of the purity henceforth required of him by the laws of chivalry. The

Collar and Badge of the Bath.

ceremony is of unknown antiquity, and is spoken of by writers of the 13th c. as an ancient custom. See KNIGHT. The earliest authentic instance of its observance which we have in this country, is in the time of Henry IV., who, in preparing for his coronation, made forty-six knights at the Tower of London, who had watched all the night before, and

bathed themselves. The last knights of the B. created in the ancient form were at the coronation of Charles II. in 1661. From that period till the accession of the House of Hanover, the order fell into oblivion. It was revived by George I. in 1725, and is now the second order in rank in England, the first being the Garter. By the statutes then framed for the government of the order, it was declared that, besides the sovereign, a prince of

Star of the Bath.

the blood, and a great master, there should be thirty-five knights. At the conclusion of the great war, it was thought expedient, with a view to rewarding the merits of many distinguished officers, both military and naval, to extend the limits of the order, which was effected on the 2d January 1815. But the order was still purely military, and it was not till 1847 that it was placed on its present footing by the admission of civil knights, commanders, and companions. The following is its present organisation.

First Class.—Knights Grand Cross (K.G.C.); the number not to exceed, for the military service, 50, exclusive of the royal family and foreigners; and for the civil service, 25.

Second Class.—Knights Commanders (K.C.B.); military, 102, and civil, 50, exclusive of foreigners. These, like the first, have the title *Sir*, and take precedence of Knights Bachelors.

Third Class.—Companions (C.B.); military, 525, and civil, 200. They take precedence of Esquires, but are not entitled to the distinctive appellation of knighthood. No officer can be nominated to the military division of this class unless his name has been mentioned in the *London Gazette* for distinguished services in action; and the order has never been conferred on an officer below the rank of a major, or commander in the navy.

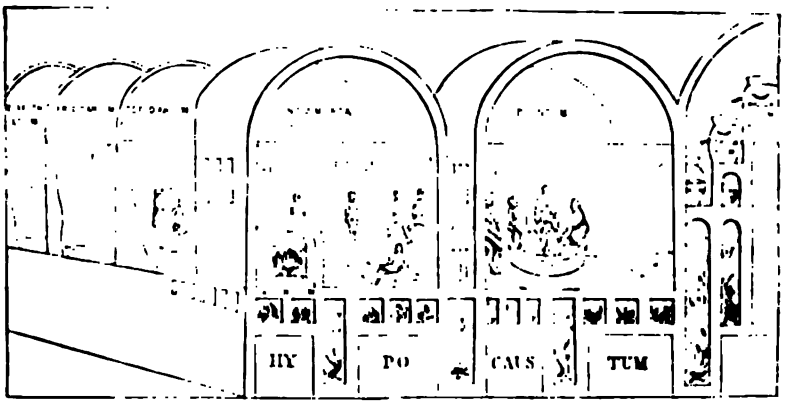
BATH, BATHING. By bathing is usually understood the immersion of the body, or a part of it, in water. In a more extended signification, it means the surrounding of the body with any medium differing in nature or temperature from its usual medium; thus, we speak of a blood-bath, a vapour-bath, a cold-air bath, a compressed-air bath (q.v.), an earth-bath. A fourfold division may be made of baths: 1. According to the substance with which the body is surrounded into water, oil, milk, gas, sand, and other baths; 2. According to the manner of application into river, slipper, plunge, shower, dropping, vapour, and douche baths; 3. According to the parts of the body subjected to the application into whole, half, sitz, foot, hand, and eye baths; and 4. According to the temperature of the substance applied – into cold, tepid, warm, and hot baths.

The practice of bathing undoubtedly reaches back to the earliest times in the existence of the human race, and the most ancient historical accounts as well as popular myths make mention of it. Among the Egyptians, the bath was practised as a religious rite; and, in general, we find the opinion prevailing throughout antiquity, that purification of the body induced or signified moral purity. Man, it was thought, ought to present himself pure in body and soul, when he engaged in the service of his god, or in any transaction that brought him into immediate contact with that being. In making the bath a religious ordinance, Moses may have had in view the prevention or more speedy cure of those skin-diseases so prevalent in the East. The Mosaic Law prescribes expressly, in some cases, the use of running water, which has given rise, through misunderstanding, to the deleterious cellar-baths of the Jews. In Palestine, the wealthier Jews had private baths in their houses, and ponds in their gardens, an arrangement which prevailed in all the civilised parts of the East, and which does so still. There were, besides, public bath-houses among the Jews, as among other nations. Among the Greeks, also, bathing was very early in use. The practice is often alluded to in Homer. Bathing, among the Greeks, as among other nations, was counted a religious rite, and was connected with the preparations for sacrifice, for the reception of oracles, for marriage, &c. We possess, however, no detailed accounts of the construction and arrangements of private or of public baths in Greece, which were mostly connected with the gymnasia. That men bathed together; that there were public baths for women, appears probable from various inscriptions.

Among the Romans, although warm-baths (*thermæ*) were in use from the earliest times, yet it was only at a late period that they were so extensively adopted; and then the increase and universal spread of luxury had driven the primitive object of bathing into the background, so that the public baths were looked upon as places of general resort for pleasure. The most of these public baths were built under the emperors. They were numerous in Rome and in the provincial cities. Their construction may be gathered from their numerous remains, and from the descriptions of them given by Roman writers; they resembled the Turkish and Russian baths.

The essential parts of a Roman bath were as follows.—1. The *hypocaust*, or stove, in the basement story, for heating both the bath-rooms and the water. The water was contained in three large vessels or boilers, so arranged that the under one was immediately over the fire, contained the hot water; the one in the middle, the tepid water; and the uppermost, the cold water. These vessels were all connected by pipes, both with the bath-rooms and with one another, that the hot water that flowed from the lowest boiler was replaced by tepid water from the one above; and that, again, by cold from the uppermost.—2. The *apodyterium*, or room for undressing.—3. The *frigidarium*, a room with a basin for cold bathing.—4. The *tepidarium*, the purpose of which cannot be exactly determined, but which seems to have been intended for bathing in tepid water, and also for allowing the body to cool down in a mild temperature.—5. The *sudatorium*, in which sometimes the *sudatio*, or sweating-bath, and sometimes the real hot-water bath was taken. This room had hollow walls, and rested on low pillars over the hypocaust, and was surrounded on all sides with [illegible]. The *laconium*, which is spoken of as a kind of caldarium, was probably a kind of stove heated from the hypocaust, and con-

e the temperature. In the bath-rooms there e basins (*alvei*) for holding the water, and round walls were benches or seats, which, in the larium, were raised as in an amphitheatre, in r to give the bathers the choice of the higher temperature of the upper part of the room, or of the more moderate of the lower. The caldarium contained also a *labrum* or vase of several feet diameter, filled with cold water, into which the bathers dipped after the hot bath. With these essential parts of



Roman Bath, from a Painting on the Walls of the Thermæ of Titus at Rome.

ith, there were usually connected an *unctuarium* *rothesium* i. e., an anointing-room, and often lens, covered walks, rooms for games, &c.

he process of bathing was thus: After undressin the apodyterium, the bather was anointed in elaothesium with a cheap coarse oil, and then ssed to a spacious apartment devoted to rcises of various kinds, among which games at held a prominent place (hence the hall was ed *sphæristerium*). After exercise, he went into caldarium, either merely to sweat or to take the bath; and during this part of the process, the y was scraped with instruments called *strigiles*. ng now dried with cloths, and slightly anointed over with perfumed oils, he resumed his dress, then passed a short time successively in the darium and the tepidarium, which softened the ition from the great heat of the caldarium into open air.

he public baths for women were of similar struction, and were much frequented even by the t respectable. The women bathed in company, the men. The irregularity of men and women hing together is also alluded to by ancient ters; and in later times, the baths in general ame the scenes of all sorts of debauchery, as was ecase at Baiæ.

he most remarkable remains of Roman baths are se of the baths of Titus, of Caracalla, and of cletian in Rome, and the recently excavated ains at Pompeii: remains of the kind are also be found in Germany, France, and England. extent and magnificence of these edifices it is icult for us now to conceive. Speaking of the hs of Caracalla, Mr Fergusson, in his *Hand-book Architecture*, says: 'St George's Hall, at Liverpool, he most exact copy, in modern times, of a part these baths. The hall itself is a reproduction, h in scale and design, of the central hall of acalla's baths, but improved in detail and design, ing five bays instead of only three. With the courts at each end, it makes up a suite of rtments very similar to those found in the an examples. The whole building, however, is than one fourth of the size of the central mass Roman bath, and therefore gives but little idea he magnificence of the whole.'

The ancient Germans seem, according to Tacitus and other writers, to have been fondest of the cold river bath. When Roman luxury was driven out by German habits, and the north of Europe got the upper hand of the south, baths ceased to be of public importance, and amid the tempestuous irruptions and fluctuations of the different nations, those splendid edifices fell into ruins. Christianity, however, by the institution of baptism, had preserved for the bath its religious signification; and in the middle ages, among the ceremonies preceding the solemnity of conferring the honour of knighthood, the bath was held essential. The Arabians and the Mohammedans generally had more completely adopted bathing into their manners and customs. Islam enjoins on the believer the careful preservation of corporal purity; and for this purpose, prescribes repeated daily ablutions. Besides these, certain circumstances and times make the use of the Bath ritually obligatory on both men and women. For this end, not only did the rich erect splendid baths in their houses and gardens, but bath-houses for the people in general were established in every town in which there was a mosque. The public baths of the Turks of the present day are a copy of those ancient Arabian baths. The construction of those oriental baths, imitations of which are now to be found in some European cities, is as follows: The building is of stone, the bath-rooms have a floor of marble, which is heated from below, and tubes in the walls conduct the heat in all directions. The bather undresses, wraps himself in a blanket, puts on wooden slippers, to protect him from the heat of the floor, and enters the bath-room. Here a general perspiration soon breaks through the skin, which is washed off with cold water. The body is then rubbed with woollen cloths, and smeared with a soap or salve beneficial to the skin. This is generally accompanied by the operation of 'kneading.' The bath attendant stretches the bather on a table, pours warm water over him, and then begins to press, squeeze, and twist his whole body with wonderful dexterity. Every limb is straightened and stretched, and when he has finished one side, he begins on the other. He kneels upon the bather; he seizes him by the shoulders, makes his backbone crack, and every vertebra quiver, or applies soft

blows to the fleshy parts. He then takes a hair-cloth, and rubs the whole body, rubs off the hard skin of the feet with pumice-stone, anoints the bather with soap and perfumes, and finishes by cutting his hair and beard. This treatment lasts some three-quarters of an hour; and the feeling after it is as of being born anew. An inexpressibly delicious sensation of comfort pervades the body, and soon ends in a sweet sleep. After bathing, people repose in a cooler room, stretched on couches, and finally partake of coffee, sherbet, or lemonade.

In England, France, and Germany, public establishments for bathing were long unknown. It was during the Crusades, which brought the East and West into contact, that Europeans first became acquainted with the baths of the Asiatics; and the want of such institutions came to be more sensibly felt from the leprosy and other skin-diseases which intercourse with Asia introduced into Western Europe. The evil was at first sought to be met by establishing hospitals; but as these were found insufficient, baths and bath-rooms were erected, which gradually became public establishments.

Besides the kinds of baths already described, there are now to be found in the larger cities of Europe, generally in connection with water-baths, imitations of the vapour-baths which have been long in common use in Russia. The RUSSIAN BATH consists of a small apartment built of wood, with broad benches running round it, on which the people lie undressed. By throwing water upon glowing hot pebbles, a dense hot steam is produced, which envelops the bathers, and throws them into such a heat, that the perspiration breaks out over the whole body. In this atmosphere of steam, the thermometer often rises to 112°—140° F. After they have sweated for some time, and from time to time cooled themselves again, by having cold water poured over them, the skin is rubbed with soap, and with towels made of inner bark, or with brushes; they are flogged with softened birch-twigs, and then washed with tepid, and afterwards with cold water; and at last have cold water dashed over them. A bather will also go direct from the sweating-bath, and plunge into a river or a pond, or roll himself in the snow. These baths are a necessary of life in Russia, and are to be found in every village. The German vapour-bath differs in this, that the steam is produced in a boiler, and that the bather remains for some time in an adjoining room of moderate temperature, wrapped in blankets, to allow the perspiration to go on, and the blood to become calm. A ruder kind of sweating-bath, in a hole in the earth, or in a baking-oven, is practised among many nations; among the Finns, the natives of Mexico and South America, &c.

As regards detergence, the vapour-bath is the only kind of bath that is really effectual. Seated naked in a room filled with hot vapour (which produces no inconvenience in breathing), the scurf, which, notwithstanding all sorts of previous ablutions, has accumulated on the skin, is gradually softened and loosened, and is rubbed off in a surprising manner by the hands of the bath-man who is in attendance at these establishments. As in the Turkish bath, the person is cooled down by being dashed with tepid and cold water. After this kind of bathing, the sensation is exceedingly agreeable. The process just mentioned may be said to resemble that in use by the Romans; the hands of the operator having much the same effect as the *strigils* of the ancients. Few of the ordinary bathing establishments in Great Britain have vapour-baths, at least not on a proper footing; and the great value of this species of bath as a purifier of the skin is little known.

Bathing is a very important agent in the preservation and restoration of health. Besides promoting cleanliness, the refreshing and invigorating effects of cold bathing in its various forms have always been more or less understood, as have also the soothing effects of the warm bath. But the virtues of water as a curative agent have been more fully developed in modern times, since the rise of the system of therapeutics known as the water-cure or hydropathy. With that exaggeration which is incident to everything new, the first promoters of this system gave it out as a panacea 'for all the ills that flesh is heir to.' But now that these quackish pretensions are all but universally given up, it is very generally admitted that water is capable of a large range of effects, some of them apparently of the most opposite kinds; while the mode of action is nothing mysterious, but capable of explanation on the recognised principles of physiology. The fuller exposition of this part of the subject will be more conveniently considered under HYDROPATHY.

A MEDICATED BATH is one in which some substance, intended to act as a medicine, has been mixed with the liquid. This is one of the most important methods known to medical art of bringing remedies to bear upon the system. The skin is by no means impervious to foreign substances; and no other organ presents at once so large a surface to the matter to be imbibed; at times, also, the other channels by which remedies are introduced into the body cannot be used. Baths of this kind are partly imitations of natural mineral waters, and partly other remedial mixtures. The mineral substances used are common salt, chloride of lime, nitric acid, corrosive sublimate, potash or soda caustic or carbonated, ashes, soap, iodine, sulphur, iron, &c.; the vegetable are wine, vinegar, solutions of essential oils, infusions of thyme, rosemary, lavender, wormwood, willow, oak, and Peruvian bark, &c.; such animal substances as milk, blood, bouillon of meat, &c., are also sometimes employed as baths, with a view to impart nourishment, but whether much is taken up into the system, is doubtful. In the case, also, of vapour-baths, medicaments are added to the water with good effect; these must, of course, be volatile. If the whole body is to be immersed in the vapour, nothing must be used that might injure the organs of respiration; when the application is partial, and by a special apparatus, this precaution is less necessary. In connection with this may be mentioned the so-called SMOKE-BATHS, or medicated fumigations, in which the whole body, with exception, of course, of the head, or particular parts of it, are brought in contact with the vapours of dry medicinal substances. Resinous aromatic substances, incense, myrrh, benzoin, amber, sulphur, cinnabar, and mercury are used for this purpose. The application must be made in what is called a fumigating box, in which the particular part of the body alone is enclosed along with the vapour, in order that the respiratory organs may not be incommoded. The utmost precaution is requisite with the vapours of sulphur and mercury, as they are apt to occasion serious accidents.

Another species of vapour-bath is what is called an ANIMAL BATH, which was known to the ancients, and was in great reputation in cases of lameness. Either the whole body of the patient is wrapped in the skin of a newly slaughtered animal, or an opening is made, and the diseased limb inserted into the breast or belly of the animal while yet alive, or into the newly drawn blood. Sometimes smaller animals are killed, split up, and immediately applied to the diseased part.

Of GAS BATHS, the most generally used are those

of sulphuretted hydrogen and carbonic acid gas, which are to be had at certain mineral springs. The first, mixed in small quantity with atmospheric air, lowers the irritability of the air-tubes, and affords relief in many diseases of the respiratory organs. A stronger mixture of it, brought in contact with the outer surface, is of use in disorders arising from depression of the functions of the skin. Carbonic acid gas gives a gentle stimulus to the skin, promotes menstruation, and is much used in many places in the form of half-baths. In recent times, at Ischl and other places, the vapours that arise from the mineral springs loaded with saline particles, are received in close rooms, in which the patients walk about, and allow the vapours to act upon the lungs and skin.

The terms *water-bath* and *sand-bath* have been adopted in chemistry, to signify a contrivance by which vessels that are to be heated to a certain temperature are not brought into immediate contact with the fire, but receive their heat through the medium of hot sand or water, so that the heating takes place uniformly, and overheating is avoided.

BATHS AND WASH-HOUSES, PUBLIC. The last few years have witnessed the erection of a number of public establishments, at which the masses may enjoy a bath for the merest trifle of their weekly earnings. Where steam-engines are employed in connection with cotton-factories or other works, there is usually a certain quantity of waste steam or waste hot water at disposal, which could, at an insignificant cost, be directed into baths for the use of the workmen of the establishment. We are aware of one instance where seven baths were comfortably fitted up at the small expense of £80, in which the men and women bathe on alternate days, to the number of from thirty to eighty a week—paying a mere trifle to the keeper, who attends an hour and a half each evening, and finds towels, soap, &c., nothing being charged by the proprietors for the original outlay. But this is only a small part of the cure for a great evil. Where the masses are densely packed in lanes and alleys, where house accommodation is dear and limited, where the necessaries of life have to be continually struggled for, and these conventional evils increased, in too many instances, by improvidence—the house is but a night shelter, affording little or no convenience for the necessary operations of the housewife. Independent of this, a public wash-house is, in point of economy, preferable to any number of isolated efforts. By co-operation, superior accommodation, better apparatus, and a cheaper and more satisfactory result can be obtained; and thus the public wash house, where self paying and self supported, may be classed among the co-operative arrangements which characterise the social features of the age.

Mrs Catherine Wilkinson of Liverpool, in a year of cholera, bravely offered the use of her small house, and the value of her personal superintendence, to her poorer neighbours, to facilitate the washing of their clothes at a time when cleanliness was more than usually important. The success attending the exertions of a single individual led to the formation of a benevolent society, and ultimately to important municipal arrangements.

In 1844, a public meeting was held at the Mansion House, attended by many persons of wealth and influence, to encourage the formation of B. and W. in London; hence resulted an 'Association for Promoting Cleanliness amongst the Poor.' Independently of this movement, a reform had already been commenced by a 'Committee for the Houseless Poor,' who, among other things, purchased or rented an old roomy building in Glasshouse Yard, surrounded by the poor and dense population of the London Docks district. A bath-house and a wash-house were fitted up; baths, cisterns, boilers, cold and hot water, towels, soap, soda, were provided; and the poor were invited to come in, and wash and bathe without expense to themselves. There were also provided pails, brushes, and whitewash, to those who would take the trouble to give a little cleanliness to their poor dwellings. This was effected mainly through the benevolent exertions of Mr Bowie, a surgeon, who applied himself with earnestness to the subject. The association, afterwards founded at the city meeting, sought two objects—to induce a wish for cleanliness among the poor; and to render public B. and W. *self-paying*, as a guarantee for their permanency. Having obtained plans and estimates from architects, the association built a model establishment in Goulston Square, Whitechapel; but the outlay unfortunately reached £26,000. In the meantime, another society had succeeded in establishing B. and W. in George Street, Hampstead Road, favoured by a liberal arrangement on the part of the New River Company in the supply of water: this establishment was opened in August 1846. In the same year, parliament passed an act to enable borough councils and parish vestries to establish public B. and W., supported by borough and parish rates, if the householders should sanction such a proceeding. In 1847, another act strengthened the former; and the two together contain the necessary clauses for defining the details of the plan (see the following article). The parish of St Martin's-in-the-Fields was the first to take advantage of the new act; and before the close of 1852, six parishes had erected public B. and W. At the beginning of 1856, the list had nearly doubled. The original free but humble building in Glasshouse Yard had been abandoned; but the model establishment in Goulston Square, and the separate undertaking in Hampstead Road, remained. There are, in 1873, about sixteen of these public and parochial B. and W. in the metropolis.

It is not to be supposed that these efforts have been confined to London. Liverpool took precedence in date, and has since worthily maintained her interest in the matter. Manchester, Oldham, Hull, Bristol, Birmingham, Preston, Bath, Wolverhampton, Coventry, Plymouth, Chester, Sunderland, Bolton, Macclesfield, Oxford, Maidstone, Exeter, Rotherham, Colchester, South Shields, Dublin, Belfast, Glasgow, Dundee, Aberdeen, and other towns, have since adopted a similar course; and it may safely be predicted that borough and parochial B. and W. will increase in number year by year; for if they do not actually pay their full expenses at the low tariff charge, the deficiency will be so small as to be practically unfelt by rate-payers.

When the legislature took up the subject, the purpose of the committee appointed in 1844 was in great part answered; but that committee continued to exist until 1855; and the exertions of its members were attended with very beneficial results, in drawing the attention of influential persons in various countries to the advantages of public B. and W. The French government voted 600,000 francs to assist the promotion of such institutions in France, after the plan of the model establishment; and a scheme was set on foot for erecting fourteen establishments in Paris, for which 2,000,000 francs would be required. The municipality of Venice marked out an expenditure of £33,000 in the erection of B. on the same plan. The Norwegian government applied to the committee for the plans, &c., of their wash-house at Goulston Square, as a guide for the erection of one at Christiania; and a subscription was made for the erection of B. and W.

at Copenhagen. The Belgian government, and the authorities at Hamburg, Turin, Munich, Amsterdam, Lisbon, New York, and other places, were in like manner furnished with information on the subject.

In nearly all the London establishments, which may also be taken as types of those in the country, the characteristic features are as follows: The B. for males and females are on opposite sides of the building. The separate B., in large well-lighted and well-ventilated rooms, are shut in by walls, generally of slate; and the B. themselves, supplied with fifty or sixty gallons of water for each bather, are either of zinc or enamelled iron. There are two, three, or four classes of B., charged differently according to the amount of accommodation afforded. At the St Martin's establishment, where there are only two classes of B., it has been found that the second-class bathers are thrice as numerous as the first. Arrangements, slightly varying in different establishments, afford means for conveying hot and cold water to every bath. In some instances, there are tepid as well as cold swimming or plunging B.; while two or three of them afford facilities for shower and vapour baths. The washing-rooms, in most of these establishments, are provided with numerous small compartments, doorless and roofless, each for one person. Each compartment contains a boiler and a washing-tub, with taps for hot water, cold water, waste water, and steam: all unlimited in quantity, wilful waste of course being guarded against. An American washing-board assists the operations; and a rack-work stand protects the feet. The steam from all the compartments is carried upwards to one great ventilating shaft. The 'wringing' of the wet washed linen is effected by putting the articles into a sort of perforated cylinder, which is then rotated with great velocity; the centrifugal force drives out the water through the perforations and interstices, leaving the linen, though damp, much drier than it can be made by the familiar laundry process. The clothes are then taken to the drying-room, where they are hung on frames or 'horses' in small chambers heated with hot air to about 200° or 210°. 10,000 articles of washed clothing can now be dried with about £1 worth of fuel, or much less in the towns of the north. In some of the improved establishments, there is a drying compartment belonging to each washing compartment, effecting a manifest saving of time to the washers; in some of them, too, there is an ironing-board to each compartment; but the general plan is to have a large ironing-room, well provided with irons, ironing-blankets and boards, and heating arrangements. The charge is from 1*d.* to 2½*d.* per hour, according to the class and the accommodation.

One particular establishment at Manchester may usefully be described more in detail, as a type of the general class of B. and W. There is a men's swimming-bath, 70 feet by 25, with a pavement of polished York stone on a foundation of concrete and cement; the sides are of porcelain tiles laid in cement. There are 32 enclosed dressing-closets. Over these, on iron pillars, are 17 men's warm baths, each 8 feet by 7. Separated from this gallery by an open passage are 5 extra first-class baths, larger in size, and having shower-baths. There is a second-class swimming-bath nearly like that for the first-class; with its gallery of small baths over. The women's baths, in a different part of the building, comprise 4 first and 7 second class. The laundry is at one end of the building. The washing-room is 64 feet by 38; it comprises 6 first-class and 30 second-class compartments, each of the former provided with three tubs, and each of the latter with two. There is provision for drying any amount of c in twenty minutes after the washing and wr are completed. All the women have access t patent wringing-machines. There is an room adjoining, fitted up with stoves. The wat tank has a capacity of 3000 gallons; the baths all full, would hold 50,000 gallons.

Since the taking up of this subject by the mun cipal authorities of various towns, there have be few reliable statistics obtainable relating to extent to which these valuable establishments a used; but it is known that the B. and W. esta lished by the several parishes either pay the working expenses wholly, or approach so near to as to encroach very little on the parish rates.

One satisfactory feature connected with the sy tem is, that when the local authorities are slow establish B. and W., wealthy manufacturers townsmen often take up the matter at their o expense, and then leave the ratepayers n more to do than to provide the small annual working accounts. As an e baths for men and boys (without w be cited the establishment opened a 1873, and presented to the corporation by M.P. for the borough. It comprises two s baths, one for men and one for boys, each long by 50 in width. There are 57 h dressing-boxes around the men's bath, and 72 boxes around the boys'. The two baths to hold 260,000 gallons of water, which is r once a week.

The least satisfactory part of the syst practical operation, is that which relates to houses. Laundresses, boarding and lo keepers, and families in the middle rank these W. rather than really poor families so because the expense is very low, not bec are unable to pay higher. It is sometimes that those for whose benefit the system was lished are ashamed to bring their scanty, and much-worn apparel to a place where it m meet the eyes of others: if this be so, surely remedy might be applied!

BATHS AND WASH-HOUSES, REGARDING. The establishment of the W. is regulated in England and acts of parliament—the 9 and 10 V 10 and 11 Vict. c. 61—which are to be as one act. The sanitary regulations a are merely permissive, and in no resp compulsory on the public; but their wi volence, and consideration for the he people, strongly recommend their adop provisions of the act may be adopted for any porated borough, or for any parish not w such incorporated borough; subject, howe case of a parish, to the approval of on Majesty's principal secretaries of case of a borough, the adopti of to the discretion of the council the expense is to be charged fund, the council being empowered to as part of the borough rate, or by a sp such sums as may from time to time be In the case, again, of a parish, it is l vestry, with the sanction of one of the of state, to decide on the adopti of in such case, the vestry shall ap three, and not more than sev to be *Commissioners* for carry of the act. Regulations these commissioners are p in expense is to be charged the vestries of any two or m carrying out the act.

The act contains numerous other provisions and regulations relating to the facilities required for the operations of the borough councils and parish commissioners: thus, they may borrow money with the approval of the Treasury; they may have money advanced to them by the Public Works Loan Commissioners; they may avail themselves of the Railway Companies Clauses Consolidation Act of 1845 for certain limited purposes, such as borrowing money on mortgage, the accountability of officers of the company, the making of by-laws subject to other provisions, and the recovery of damages and penalties.

After these preliminary facilities, the act proceeds to specify the powers of the borough councils and parish commissioners, as to erection or purchase of buildings, &c., for the purposes contemplated. Among other things, it is provided that the number of baths and the number of washing-tubs for the labouring-classes shall not be less than twice the number of those for any higher class or classes.

The council and commissioners respectively are empowered to make by-laws for regulating the use of the B. and W., which, however, shall not be enforced until they have been approved by a secretary of state. These by-laws must make sufficient provision for a variety of purposes specified in the schedule (A) to the act 9 and 10 Vict. c. 47; the scope of those purposes being to secure order, cleanliness, and decency. The charges for the use of the B. and W. are regulated by another schedule attached to the act 10 and 11 Vict. c. 61. In the baths for the labouring-classes, a single cold bath is not to exceed one penny; a single warm or vapour bath is not to exceed twopence. B. for any higher class are not to exceed three times the charges for those of the labouring-classes. In the wash houses for the labouring classes, the use of a single washing-tub, and other conveniences, is not to be charged more than one penny for one hour, or threepence for two hours together.

The various Local Management Acts, passed since the above-cited acts of 1846 and 1847, have strengthened the powers of town councils, &c., for the establishment of B. and W.; but the principle of operation remains nearly uniform—viz., that any surplus outlay, beyond the receipts from bathers and washers, shall be defrayed out of the rates. It may safely be asserted that no item in house rate is more wisely applied than this. So great is the importance attached by medical men to bathing, that the Metropolitan Board of Works is considering the expediency of establishing free public swimming-baths in the metropolis, to supplement the parochial B. and W.; but the plans are not yet (1874) developed.

BATHGATE, a town in the centre of Linlithgowshire, 17 miles west-south-west of Edinburgh. The old town lies on a steep slope, and the new on a more level site. Free-stone, coal, and carboniferous limestone, are wrought in the vicinity. In 1663, King Charles II. granted B. a charter, since which time it has been a free burgh of barony. In the vicinity is the site of an ancient castle, which Margaret, daughter of Robert the Bruce, brought as a part of her dowry to her husband, Walter, great steward of Scotland, who died here. The celebrated gas coal called Torban Hill mineral, which has been the subject of so much litigation, and of discussion and difference of opinion among scientific men, is worked here. B. has manufactures of cotton goods, but mining is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Pop. (1871) 6942.

BATHORI, Elisabeth, the niece of Stephen Bathori, king of Poland, and wife of Count Nadasdi, a Hungarian nobleman, was born in the latter half of the 16th century. Her diabolical cruelty has condemned her memory to eternal infamy. By means of large bribes, she induced an old man-servant and two female servants to kidnap and convey to her, either by stratagem or force, young girls from the neighbouring country, whom she slowly put to death in the dungeons of her castle by the most horrible tortures. It is related that on a certain occasion, having violently struck one of her victims, the blood spirted up into her own face, and, as she fancied, left the skin whiter when it was wiped off. An infernal idea instantly possessed her. She invited to a grand banquet all the young girls round about, and caused 300 of them to be put to death, being under the impression that a bath of blood would renew her youth. So monstrous a story is probably exaggerated, but it at least shews that she was conceived capable of it. Inquiry was at length made into the appalling rumours, when it was discovered that this female fiend had murdered, in cold blood, not fewer than 650 maidens. The domestics who assisted her were either beheaded or burned alive; but the countess, whose crimes merited intimately the greater punishment, was merely imprisoned for life in her fortress of Esej, where she died in 1614.

BATHOS (Gr. *bathos*, depth) is a term employed by critics to designate a ludicrous descent from a lofty thought to a mean one, or a sinking below the ordinary level of thought in a ridiculous effort to aspire. See Climax. It is of the essence of B. that he who is guilty of it should be unconscious of his fall, and while grovelling on the earth, should imagine that he is still cleaving the heavens. A good example of B. is the well-known couplet:

And thee, Dalhousie, the great god of war,
Lieutenant-general to the Earl of Mar.

BATH-STONE, a building-stone extensively used in England on account of its beauty, is obtained from quarries in the Lower Oolite, in Wiltshire and Somersetshire. It is fine grained, of a rich cream colour, and is composed of about 94½ per cent. of carbonate of lime, and 2½ per cent. of carbonate of magnesium, but is free from silica. It is easily wrought in the quarry, some beds cutting almost as readily as chalk, and hardens on exposure to the air, but is not very durable. Within twenty-five years after the reparation of Henry VII's chapel, in Westminster Abbey, with this stone, it had begun to decompose. The name is derived from the neighbourhood of several of the quarries to Bath.

BATHURST, Earl (Henry Bathurst), an eminent Tory statesman, born 22d May 1762, son of second earl (Lord Chancellor from 1771 to 1778), was in 1804 appointed Master Worker of the Mint. In 1807, he became President of the Board of Trade, and was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs from 11th October to 6th December 1809. Appointed, 11th June 1812, Secretary for the Colonies, in the administration of the Earl of Liverpool, he held that office for sixteen years. In 1828, in the Wellington administration, he became President of the Council, which office he retained till the resignation of the ministry in 1830. He died 26th July 1834. At the time of his death, he was a teller of the Exchequer, clerk of the Crown, and elder brother of the Trinity House, K.G., D.C.L., F.R.S., F.S.A., &c. He was much esteemed by his party. His son, Henry George, succeeded as fourth earl. He died in 1866, and was succeeded by his brother, William Lennox, fifth earl.

BATHURST, a name applied to various localities in honour of Earl Bathurst, Colonial Secretary

at the time.—1. B. *in New South Wales*, the first county that was settled beyond the Blue Mountains (q. v.), long believed to be impassable. It was not before 1813 that a practicable route was formed; and in April 1815 Governor Macquarie crossed the range by the newly made road with his lady and a numerous retinue, in order to mark with becoming 'pomp and circumstance' so important an epoch in the growth of the colony. B. has been still further distinguished in the history of New South Wales as the seat of its gold-fields. As early as 1844, the precious metal had, on geological grounds, been supposed to exist in Australia; but it was only on 12th February 1851 that Mr Hargreaves, a digger of California experience, washed the glittering prize out of a tin dish of gravel on the B. Plains. The county is bounded on the N.E. by the Macquarie, and on the S.W. by the Lachlan. The whole district is admirably adapted to pastoral pursuits. It is well watered, and, being 1970 feet above the level of the sea, it has a moderate temperature. Its chief town, which is now the third in New South Wales, is a handsome city with numerous elegant public buildings, and was erected into a municipality in 1862. Pop. (1871) of city and district, 16,826.—2. B. Island, *off North Australia*, about lat. 12° S., and long. 130° E. It is fully 2° due west of Port Essington, with Melville Island between. Its area may be estimated at 1000 square miles. Excepting the west end, which is barren, the island is densely wooded.—3. B., the principal settlement of the British colony on the Gambia. It is situated on a small island at the mouth of the river, in lat. 13° 28′ N., and long. 16° 32′ W. Pop. about 3000, chiefly negroes. The principal buildings are the government house, an hospital for liberated Africans, and Wesleyan schools. The exports consist of gum, wax, hides, ivory, gold, tortoise-shell, rice, cotton, teak, palm-oil, and native cloths.—4. B., in Upper Canada, a district on the right bank of the Ottawa, here the boundary between the two Canadas. It contains the Rideau River and Canal, thus occupying an important position with regard to the interprovincial trade. The removal, in 1858, of the seat of government to Ottawa, tended still further to promote the prosperity, of the district.—5. An island in the Arctic Ocean, intersected by the 100th meridian, and situated immediately beyond the 75th parallel. Sherard Osborn here found the vertebræ of an ichthyosaurus—one of the few instances of organic remains occurring on the American side of the polar basin. See ARCTIC OCEAN.

BATIGNOLLES, a thriving town of France, in the department Seine, north-east of Paris, of which city it forms a suburb.

BATLEY, a town in Yorkshire, near Dewsbury (q. v.).

BATN-EL-HA'GAR (Womb of Rocks), a stony district, stretching along the Nile, in lat. 21°—22° N., and long. 30° 40′—31° 10′ E. The Nile, in the upper portion of the district, is often forced by the approaching rocks into a very narrow channel, and its navigation is frequently interrupted by small islands, rocks, and cataracts. The district is peopled by Bedouins, and other Arabs, who go naked and derive a scanty subsistence from beans and the fruit of a wild shrub called *kerkedan*.

BATON—variously written Battoon, Batune, and in old French Baston—is the figure in heraldry commonly known as the Bastard Bar (q. v.).

BATON is the name of a short staff, presented by the sovereign to each field-marshal, as a symbol of his newly bestowed authority. It is also the name of the long staff carried by the drum-major of an infantry regiment.

BATON ROUGE, since 1847, capital of the state of Louisiana, having in that year superseded New Orleans. As far back as 1838 it was the seat of a college. Its population in 1870 was 6498, [illegible] the Louisiana Penitentiary, B. R. contains an asylum, where all the deaf and dumb of the state 10 to 30, and all the blind from 8 to 25, are to be educated and maintained at the public [illegible] It contains also an elegant state-house, 4 churches and 2 newspaper offices. On the opposite side, in of the Mississippi, another town of the same name contains nearly an equal population.

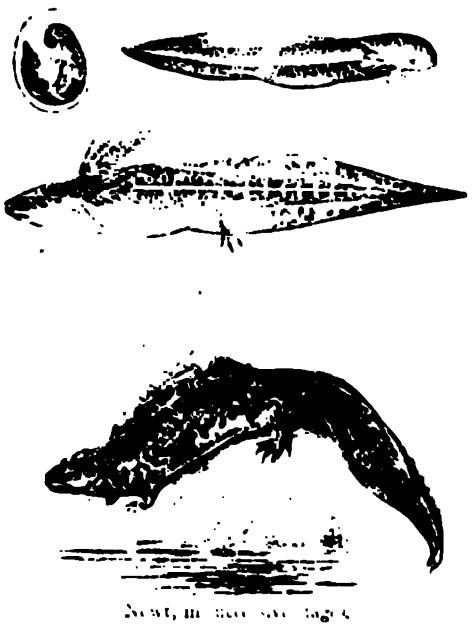
BATRA'CHIA (from Gr. *ba'trachos*, a Zoology, one of the four orders into Reptiles (q. v.) is now usually divi[illegible], some naturalists regard the differences this and the other three orders as so imp they make this a distinct class of animals, under the name *Amphibia* (q. v.). differences, the most essential and important the young B. undergo metamorphoses, and by gills alone, in the earlier part of their whilst in their adult state they either [illegible] by lungs alone, or possess at once b[illegible] gills. The body is also covered w[illegible] skin, through which water is imbibed, which the aëration of the blood app[illegible] part carried on. The B. are all ov[illegible] eggs are not covered with a hard shell, with a soft membrane. Fecundation takes place after the eggs have been deposited is sometimes given as a distinctive character that, in their adult state, they have limbs, [illegible] some genera these are very rudimentary, and are altogether wanting in *Cecilia* (q. v.), a g[illegible] which is now decidedly referred to this order. [illegible] it has been found to undergo the [illegible] from a gill-breathing to a lung-bre[illegible] which Cuvier, with hesitation, pla[illegible] pents, because the fact of its metam[illegible] not then been ascertained. The ordinary [illegible] limbs is four, but in the *Siren* (q. v.) there two.—Another character frequently given as tive of the B., that their feet are destitute of is in like manner only general, and not univ[illegible]

In the earlier period of life, form [illegible] is fish-like, of which the c[illegible] nole, [illegible] of the frog, is a familiar e[illegible] fa[illegible] some of them retain with [illegible] lu[illegible] modification, whilst some of th[illegible] a form resembling that of li[illegible] newts were indeed ranked by Linnæus in the same genus; and others, as frogs [illegible] assume a peculiar quadruped form, the tail disappearing, except in the elongated [illegible] bone which represents it to the anatomist.

In their anatomy, the adult B. present important points of resemblance to [illegible] important points, they di[illegible] fr[illegible] from other reptiles. The l[illegible] tishes in its general form, [illegible] with other reptiles in [illegible] posed. Teeth are of [illegible] they are present only in [illegible] jaw; [illegible] they are generally small and numerous, single row or aggregated. In s[illegible] of genera, however, which are refer[illegible] to the teeth are of large size.—The ribs, or they have mere r[illegible] have, however, a breast-bo[illegible] cartilaginous, to which some of [illegible] muscles are attached. They bre[illegible] gulping.—The heart of the B. [illegible] have only one auricle and one ventricle, apparently single auricle is now [illegible] two divisions. As in the [illegible]

of the blood received from the circulating system is sent to the organs of respiration, and another part returns immediately into the circulation. See REPTILES.

In the wonderful transformations which the B. undergo, the circulation of the blood is changed in accordance with the change in the organs of respiration. These, in the earliest stage, are external gills, which appear as long coloured fringes, hanging loosely upon each side of the neck. In some B., these external gills, which resemble those of the aquatic mollusca, remain till the lungs are sufficiently developed for respiration; in some, as the Axolotl (q.v.), of which a description and figure have already been given in this work, they are permanent during the whole of life. In the greater part of the B., however, the external gills soon disappear, and are replaced by internal gills, when the tadpole exhibits its most perfectly fish-like form, its mode of progression also corresponding with that of fishes. Its respiration is carried on essentially as in fishes, water entering the cavity of the mouth, and being forced out through the gill openings, so as to come in contact with the minute filaments of the gills. The gills are attached, as in fishes, to arches connected with the hyoid bone. In this stage of existence, the large arterial trunk which proceeds from the ventricle of the heart, sends forth, from a bulbous enlargement which it forms, as in fishes, an artery to each of the gills, and the blood after being aerated in them, is collected into an aorta, and proceeds into the general circulation. But an



Newt, in three stages.

artery is also provided on each side for the conveyance of blood to the lungs, both the lungs and their arteries being at first rudimentary, but increasing, whilst the gills, on the contrary, diminish along with the blood vessels connected with them; and the gill breathing is gradually transformed into a lung breathing animal, no longer perfectly aquatic, as at first, or capable of existence only in water, but amphibious, or almost entirely terrestrial, and incapable of remaining long under water without coming to the surface to breathe.—Whilst these changes take place, others no less extraordinary are also going on. The tadpole which subsisted on vegetable food, and possessed a mouth adapted to the purpose of feeding on it—a small horny beak—acquires a mouth fitted for seizing and swallowing small insects, slugs, &c., upon which the adult B. chiefly or exclusively feed, and its habits change accordingly. The mouth of the *Siren*, however, always retains a character somewhat similar to that of the tadpole.—In the course of transformation, a pelvis is formed, and limbs sprout forth, which in some B., as frogs, become very perfect and powerful. Whilst the limbs grow, with all their bones, joints, muscles, blood-vessels, and nerves, the vertebræ, in many B., diminish in number, and the tail gradually shortens and disappears.

The extremely different characters of the adult B. suggest the idea of an arresting of the metamorphosis at different stages; but whilst this idea may be helpful to our understanding of the close affinities which really pervade the whole order, it must be remembered that it does not equally apply to all parts of the animal system; and that even as to those which have been particularly mentioned in the brief account above given of the metamorphosis of the B., some in their perfect state appear to have one part in what, for convenience, may be termed a more advanced state than another; whilst all are adapted with equal perfection to the situations in which they are appointed to live, both with reference to the wants of their own existence and the preservation of that of their species.

If the limbs of the tadpole or the frog are injured or destroyed during their growth, the loss is wonderfully repaired. This power of reproducing lost limbs continues to be possessed in an extraordinary degree by the adult newt (q.v.).

B. are generally inhabitants of warm or temperate climates. Those which inhabit temperate climates generally become torpid during winter. They are either almost entirely aquatic or are found in moist situations. The British species are very few. In some of the Scottish isles they are unknown.

B. are commonly divided into two sub-orders—*Caducibranchiata*, in which the gills (*branchiæ*) disappear (are *caducous*), and *Perennibranchiata*, in which they are persistent (*perennial*). The Perennibranchiate B. are comparatively few. Axolotl, Siren, and Proteus are examples. The Caducibranchiate B. are subdivided into *Tailless* or *Anourous*, as Frogs, Toads, &c.; and *Tailed*, as Newts, Salamanders, &c. Some of the frogs and toads of warm climates are much larger than those of Britain; but the largest known B. are the *Sieboldia maximus* of Japan, and *Protonopsis horrida* of the Ohio (variously styled Hellbender, Mud Devil, Ground Puppy, Young Alligator, and Fish Salamander), both creatures of the newt or salamander form, the latter of which is two feet long, and the former is of still greater size.

Fossil remains and footprints in rock attest the existence, in former geological periods, of B. of large size. 'It is only in tertiary and post-tertiary strata that extinct species referrible to still existing genera or families of this order have been found.' These occur both of the tailed and tailless forms. One of them has been a subject of particular interest, because its remains, when first discovered by Scheuchzer, in the beginning of the 18th c., were mistaken for the remains of a human being, and the discoverer enthusiastically urged them upon the attention of his contemporaries as a proof of the deluge. To this salamandroid fossil the name *Andrias* (from the Gr. for man) *Scheuchzeri* has been given.—Footmarks in the sandstones and shales of the coal-measures in Pennsylvania seem to have belonged to B. resembling frogs or toads, but of

great size, some of the footprints being two inches in diameter, and a breadth of nearly four inches between the right and left footprints.—Some of the older batrachian fossils differ so widely from all existing types, that new sub-orders have been formed for them. Those of the sub-order *Ganocephala*—of which *Archegosaurus* (q. v.) is the best known—are remarkable for having the head covered with bony plates; those of the order *Labyrinthodontia*, for the labyrinthic structure exhibited in the transverse section of the teeth. See LABYRINTHODON.

BA'TRACHOMYOMA'CHIA (the War of the Frogs and the Mice), a Greek mock-heroic poem, erroneously ascribed to Homer, with whose works it has been generally printed. Pigres of Caria, who lived in the times of the Persian wars, was named amongst the ancients as its author. It is a parody on the *Iliad*, in which the military preparations and contests of beasts, with single combats, intervention of the gods, and other Homeric circumstances, are described with much humour.

BATRACHUS. See FROG-FISH.

BATSHIA'N, one of the Moluccas, lying to the south-west of Gilolo. It belongs to the Dutch, who, in 1610, took it from Spain, or, rather, from Portugal, then a portion of the Spanish monarchy. Its area is estimated at 900 square miles. It is almost intersected by the equator, being only 35′ S., with a long. of 127° 35′ E. B. produces large sago and cocoa palms, good rice, and the best cloves in the Moluccas. Chief town, Batshian, near the centre of the island, with a pop. of 1100.

BATTA, in relation to the British army in India, is an allowance in addition to the ordinary pay of officers. The pay is fixed; but the B. varies according to the part of the country in which the troops are placed, and also depends on the circumstance of their being in the field or in cantonments. If in the field, or more than 200 miles from the presidential government cities, the officers receive full B.; if in garrison, or in cantonment within that distance, half batta. During the troubles of 1857 and 1858, the government was frequently embarrassed in determining whether particular officers were entitled to full or half B., owing to the confusion into which the whole military system was temporarily thrown.

BATTA'LION is the unit of command in infantry. It comprises the largest number of men who, when drawn up in array, can conveniently hear the word of command from an officer. In whatever ways the armies of Europe differ in other particulars, they seldom depart very far from a mean *war*-strength of 1000 men per battalion. Two or more of those units combine to form a *regiment* (with exceptions presently to be noticed); and those regiments are further aggregated into *brigades*, *divisions*, and *corps d'armée*, or other large groupings. The unit, or B., is divided into *wings*, and these into *companies* and *squads*. The continental regiments are for the most part so large as to comprise several battalions each; but the British infantry regiments, in time of peace, have mostly only one B. each. The usual way of increasing the British infantry in war-time is, not by creating new regiments, but by increasing the number of battalions per regiment, and of companies per battalion. In 1873, there were 110 regiments of line-infantry; of these, 83 have only 1 battalion each, 25 have 2 battalions, and 2 have as many as 4. The full complement of a B. is usually 12 companies; and when these are drawn up on parade, two ranks in depth, the two choice companies, called the 'grenadier' and the 'light infantry' companies, are placed at the right and left extremities of the whole line; the other eight companies, each designated by a number or letter, being between them. In this form, the front of a B. of 1000 men is about 390 yards in length.

An English B. of 900 private soldiers approaches near 1100 strong when the officers, &c., are included. The following may be taken as the common elements, under the average war arrangement of the British service: 10 regimental staff officers (lieutenant-colonel, 2 majors, adjutant, instructor of musketry, surgeon, paymaster, and quartermaster); 36 company officers (captain, lieutenant, and lieutenant); 1 warrant officer (regimental sergeant-master); 10 non-commissioned staff officers (sergeant-major and chief sergeants); 50 non-commissioned company officers (colour-sergeants and sergeants); 900 rank and file (50 corporals, 850 privates, and 50 drummers).

The relation which the B. bears to the regiment in various details of discipline and service, is better noticed under REGIMENT; while matters of a more general nature will be found treated under BRITISH ARMY.

BATTAS, a people inhabiting that part of Sumatra between 0° 20′ and 4° 20′ N. lat. They claim to be the first settlers of Sumatra, and cling to the customs of their ancestors. The B. are light-coloured, of middle stature, have somewhat prominent features and long hair. They believe in a supreme deity and the influence of good and evil spirits. The men are lazy, and engage in hunting, while the women grow rice, collect pepper for trade, weave and dye cloth. Iron is made into large knives and weapon-points. Their houses are of wood, and their villages have earthen walls. The B. are now governed by the kings of Simamore, Salindo, and Bătar. The language is a Malay dialect, written on bamboos, in a peculiar alphabet, from the bottom upwards, but laid horizontally, and read from the left. A man pays a dowry of ten buffaloes for the chief's daughter, and five for one of lower rank, but has usually only two wives, who are as slaves. Cannibalism exists, though checked by the Dutch. They never eat the flesh of women, and only murderers, prisoners of war, and adulterers, who are first speared to death.

BATTASZE'K, a market-town of Hungary, county Tolna, on the west of the Danube. Pop. (1871) 6542.

BA'TTEL, TRIAL BY, or WAGER OF BATTEL. This relic of our legal barbarism is happily one of those things of the past, having been abolished by an act of parliament, the 59 Geo. III. c. 46, and may have been passed over with a brief notice, had it not been for a circumstance which we shall presently mention, and which affords a curious and striking illustration of a principle peculiar to the genius of English law, as distinguished from the legal systems of other countries.

The trial by B. was a proceeding by way of appeal, and it obtained in civil and criminal cases, and also in military matters, to which, indeed, it was peculiarly appropriate. It consisted of a personal combat between the parties in presence of the court; and it was grounded on the impious notion of an appeal to Providence, the expectation being that Heaven would give the victory to the injured party. In civil cases, the B. was by champions, and not by the parties themselves; but in criminal cases, the parties fought in person, unless the appellor were a woman, a person under infant, or a man of the age of sixty, or lame or blind, all of whom might refuse the wager of battel, and compel a trial by jury. Peers of the realm also could not be challenged to wage B. on account of their personal dignity, nor, by ap-

the citizens of London, fighting being con
d foreign to their education and employ-
Whether by champions or in person, the
of proceeding was the same. The appellee,
fendant, as he might be called, threw down
ove, and declared that he would prove his
or defend himself with his body. The appellor,
secutor, in accepting the challenge, took up
ove, and replied that he was ready to make
his appeal, body for body; and thereupon
rties, holding each other's hands, joined issue
the court in a very formal and solemn
r. The weapons used were batons or staves
long, and a four-cornered leathern target, and
misdants were obliged to swear that neither of
would resort to sorcery or witchcraft! The
ed till the stars appeared in the evening, and
rty who by that time had either killed or got
ter of his opponent, was considered the suc-
suitor of justice. In a charge of murder, if
cused was slain, it was taken as proof of his
and his blood was attainted; and if so far
ished as not to be able or willing to fight any
, he was adjudged guilty, and sentenced to be
l immediately!

ate as the year 1818, this barbarous procedure
demnly decided by the Court of King's Bench
a valid and legal mode of trial, which the
subjects were free to adopt! Of course, the
le was, that all laws, no matter how unsuit-
the times, could be enforced, unless expressly
ed by act of parliament. As a matter of
ity, we may give the names of the parties (they
f the labouring-class) who strenuously submitted
ontention in the above form before Lord Chief-
Ellenborough and his brother judges of the
. The case is that of Ashford v. Thornton,
reported in the first volume of Barnwall and
son's *Reports*, p. 405. As we have stated, the
decided in favour of the validity of the trial,
the judges remarking that settlement had not
tated to induce their lordships to refuse the
d another more plainly and unequivocally
ed that the defendant was entitled to this
ent mode of trial.' But Lord Ellenborough
no matter more clearly by stating, that 'the
l law of the land is in favour of the wager of
l it is our duty to pronounce the law as it is,
t as we may wish it to be; what our predi-
thereof, may justly exist a case this mode
l, still, as it is the law of the land, the court
pronounce judgment for it.' Happily, the
ous litigant who obtained this judgment
duced to commit the act, and the above statute,
Geo. III. c. 46, was passed, by which the
ng ordeal was wholly abolished.

Scotland, we believe the matter would have
lifferently disposed of; for the judges there,
ing the doctrine of the Roman law, would
ld the proceeding to have been in desuetude
bolete, and there the matter would have

Mr Rush, the then American envoy to
rench court, thus pithily marks on this
in his *Residence at the Court of London*
shed 1833). 'The appeal laws belongs to the
ture. Contrary to sound and approved
ment is complex, and works slowly; tyranny
ple, and does its work at once. An absurd
ay sleep in a free code, because overlooked;
hilst there it is the law. It is evil, I suppose,
we must reason, and generally, the reason
be right. Yet it might have been thought
n a case like this, long disused, added to obvious
lity, would have worked the silent repeal of
w, according to the doctrine of desuetude
the Roman code.'

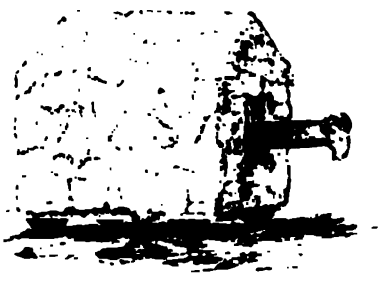
Montesquieu, in his *Spirit of Laws*, book 28, chapters 20 and 22, very ingeniously and plausibly deduces the modern practice of duelling and the so-called laws of honour from the above barbarous judicial combat. See ORDEAL.

BATTEN, or **LAY**, or **LATHE**, is the swing utensil of a loom, by which the weft or woof is struck home, and in which the shuttle runs. B. and lay are synonymous, B. being the English name, and Lay the Scotch. See WEAVING.

BATTENS, a species of sawn fir timber, of smaller dimensions than the kind called planks. B. are usually from 12 to 14 feet long, 7 inches broad, and 2¼ inches thick. Cut into two boards (1¼ inch thick), they are used for flooring; cut into three boards, they are put on roofs below slates; in narrower pieces, they are put upright on walls for fixing the laths for plastering. The best B. are brought from Norway, and sold wholesale by wood-merchants.

BATTER, in Architecture, used as a verb to express the manner in which the walls of towers, which are smaller at the top than the bottom, slope inwards. The walls of wharfs, and those built to support embankments and the like, usually batter.

BATTERING RAM, an engine of war used in ancient times, and in the middle ages. It consisted of a beam of wood, with a mass of bronze or iron on one end, resembling the head of a *ram* (in Lat. *aries*). In its simplest form, it was borne and impelled by



Battering Ram.

the hands of the soldiers; afterwards, it was suspended in a frame, and made to swing. Another form moved on rollers. The alternating motion was communicated by ropes. To protect those working it, a wooden roof (*testudo*) was constructed over it, and the whole was mounted on wheels. The beam of the ram varied from 60 to 120 feet in length, the head sometimes weighed above a ton, and as many as 100 men were employed in impelling the machine. When the blows were long enough continued, hardly any wall could resist. When or where it was invented, is unknown. It is mentioned by Ezekiel. The Romans derived it from the Greeks.

BATTERSEA, a south-west suburb of London, situated in Surrey, on the south bank of the Thames, at the bridge to Chelsea, which is nearly opposite. It lies in B. parish, which is partly laid out in market-gardens for London, and has many manufactories. The church has a monument to the celebrated Lord Bolingbroke. The flats, called B. Fields, once famed as a rural botanical station, are now formed into a public park. Adjacent to the park the Thames is crossed by B. Bridge (lately toll-free), Albert Bridge, Chelsea Suspension Bridge, and a railway bridge. The first asparagus raised near London was grown by the market-gardeners of Battersea; but railways have much changed the locality.

BA'TTERY, in criminal law, means the beating or wounding, or, more correctly, an assault by beating or wounding of another. Violence or force is not a necessary element in this offence, but the least touching, however trifling, of another's person in an angry, rude, insulting manner, is a B.; for the law, says Blackstone, cannot draw the line between different degrees of violence, and therefore totally prohibits the first and lowest stage of it, every man's person being sacred, and no one having a right to meddle with it in any the slightest manner. The remedy for an injury of this kind may be either by a civil action, as for damages, or by indictment, as for a misdemeanour. Where the B. is on a man's wife, the former may sue for damages by action of trespass, and it must be brought in the names of the husband and wife jointly; but if the maltreatment be so serious as to have deprived the husband for any time of his wife's company, the law then gives him a separate remedy, by an action in which he may recover special damage, on the ground of the loss of his wife's society, whilst suffering from the beating. By the Common Law Procedure Act, the 15 and 16 Vict. c. 76, the remedy for such ill usage is further varied, for by section 40 of that act, it is provided, that in any action brought by a man and his wife for an injury done to the latter, it shall be lawful for the husband to add thereto claims in his own right, and separate actions brought in respect of such claims may be consolidated, if the court or a judge shall think fit.

It is a good defence to prove that the alleged B. happened by accident, or that it was not in anger, or that it was merely the correction which a parent or master is entitled to use to a child, or scholar, or servant, or that it was done in self-defence, or in defence of a wife, a husband, a parent, a child, a master, or a servant; or that it was such personal force as a proper officer was entitled to employ, or that the defendant has already been summarily proceeded against under the 24 and 25 Vict. c. 100, by sections 44 and 45 of which act it is provided that further proceedings shall be barred where the complaint has been disposed of by two justices either by conviction or dismissal of the case, provided, in the former case, the defendant has paid the penalty, and suffered the imprisonment awarded; and, in the latter, the magistrates have dismissed the case, because it was justified, or so trifling as not to merit punishment, and this be forthwith certified under their hands.

In the Scotch law, there was what was called a B. *pendente lite*, which consisted in assaulting an adversary in a lawsuit during its dependence. This peculiar offence was created by two old Scotch statutes passed respectively in 1584 and 1594—and which curiously provided as a punishment the loss of the cause to the offender—but they were repealed in 1826 by the 7 Geo. IV. c. 19.

BATTERY, in military language, has two meanings: the one relating to field-operations; the other, to fortification. A battery in Field-operations consists of from 4 to 8 (in the British army, usually 6) pieces of ordnance, together with the necessary gun-carriages, ammunition-wagons, horses, artillerymen, and officers. A B. of foot-artillery (see ARTILLERY, ROYAL REGIMENT OF) is usually called a *field*-B., as distinguished from a *horse*-B. There are also *heavy* and *light* batteries, according to the weight of the ordnance. The term B. is also applied in a narrower sense to the *personnel*, or complement of men and officers attending such a set of guns. The designation for this used to be, in the foot-artillery, a *company*, and in the horse-artillery, a *troop*; but by an order issued in 1859, both these terms are now nearly superseded by the word B., thereby giving complexity to a term already used in two different meanings. The personnel of a field-B. of six 12-pounder rifled guns, is thus composed: 1 major, 1 captain, 3 lieutenants, 1 surgeon, 1 battery sergeant-major, 1 battery quartermaster-sergeant, 6 sergeants, 4 corporals, 4 bombardiers, 66 gunners, 2 trumpeters, 1 farrier and carriage-smith, 3 shoeing-smiths, 2 collar-makers, 1 wheeler, 61 drivers (privates)—in all, 158. In war, gunners and drivers would be added till the total strength of the battery became 277. Two batteries together form the command of a lieutenant-colonel, and have the services of a veterinary surgeon between them.

The *matériel* for a 12-pounder B. of 6 guns comprises 6 carriages for the guns, 1 spare gun-carriage, 3 store-wagons, 1 store-cart, 1 forge-wagon, 1 rocket-wagon, 12 gun-ammunition wagons, and 6 wagons for small-arms ammunition for the use of the infantry. To draw these guns and vehicles are required in war about 212 horses, together with 35 saddle-horses, and eight baggage-horses. The vehicles and boxes are prepared for the reception of 1284 rounds of ammunition for the guns, 150 rockets, and 98,280 rifle cartridges. There is also carried a supply of empty cartridges, port-fires, fuses, quick match, slow match, and an immense number of tools and small articles, besides stores for the wheelers, shoeing-smiths, and collar-makers. Nearly all these supplies are equally divided, so as to make each independent of the others; but some of the stores are in reserve, for the use of the whole battery.

A battery, in Fortification, is a row of large guns of any number from two to twenty or upwards, mounted on an earthwork or other platform. It differs from an artillery or field B. in having no horses or vehicles immediately belonging to it. Siege-guns are mostly placed in or on such batteries; and when an army is preparing to resist the occupation of a particular place by an enemy, a B. of position is frequently one of the defensive means adopted. On the other hand, the fortifications on and within the walls of a stronghold generally obtain other names than that of B.; although particular rows of guns in certain places may be so called. Military engineers distinguish many different kinds of batteries, according to the nature of the duty which they are to fulfil, or of the ground on which they are placed. An *elevated* B. has the parapet raised above the ground; the earth for forming it being obtained from a ditch in front. A *half-sunken* B. has the interior slope sunk a little below the surface. A *sunken* B. has the base from 24 to 42 inches below the level of the ground. The guns mounted on these three kinds of batteries partake in the varying elevations of the batteries themselves, and are adapted to different modes of firing on the enemy. A *siege*-B. consists of a range of heavy guns, for silencing the enemy's fire, ruining parapets and buildings, and making a breach through which infantry may enter. A *cavalier*-B. is especially elevated, to fire over a parapet without embrasures. *Enfilade, en revers, en écharpe, ricochet, cross*, oblique batteries, and others variously named, differ chiefly in the direction in which they pour out the fire of their guns upon the enemy. The distinction between *gun*-batteries, *howitzer*-batteries, and *mortar*-batteries, depends on the kind of ordnance employed. A mortar-B. has a ditch of extra width, to afford more earth for a platform of extra strength and solidity. A military engineer, in planning a B. imitates a civil engineer in planning a railway; he makes his calculations in such form that the quantity of earth taken out at one spot may about equal that heaped up in another.

These batteries are all nearly alike in the general principle of their construction. They consist

primarily of an *épaulement*, or built-up shelter, behind which the guns are placed; the platform on which the guns actually rest may or may not be above the ordinary level of the ground, according to the nature of the battery. The épaulement or parapet is of immense thickness, to resist the action of the enemy's cannon-balls. The thickness at the top is seldom less than 12 feet, and may be as much as 20; for it is found that a 24-pounder ball will penetrate 18 feet of earth. The guns are placed about 20 feet apart, behind the parapet. Some batteries are straight, with all the guns parallel; while others may be portions of a triangle (*redan*) or of a polygon, and the earthwork has to be constructed accordingly. There is generally a ditch from 12 to 20 feet wide, outside the earthwork; and the depth from the crest of the parapet to the bottom of the ditch is 12 to 16 feet. For gun and howitzer batteries, there are embrasures through which the firing takes place; but mortar-batteries are without those openings.

Sometimes the épaulement is thrown up loosely, in haste; but for the better kinds of batteries, fascines, gabions, and sand-bags are largely employed. The main structure is lined with fascines 9 feet long, and the embrasures lined with other fascines 18 feet long—40 or 50 of the two kinds being required per gun. The fascines here spoken of are long bundles of brush-wood, weighing 30 to 200 lbs. each. Sometimes sand-bags are used instead of fascines, each containing about a bushel of sand or earth; and sometimes gabions, which are wicker cylinders filled with earth. A 6-gun sand-bag B., made wholly of these materials, requires nearly 8000 sand-bags.

The fate of a field-B. often decides a battle. At the battle of the Alma, when once the Guards and Highlanders had reached the Russian batteries on the hill, the day was won. At the battle of Inkermann, the issue depended mainly on the possession of a small 2-gun sand-bag B., which remained, after many vicissitudes, in the hands of the allies.

BATTERY, Floating. See Floating Battery.

BATTERY, Electric and Galvanic. See Electricity and Galvanism.

BATTHYANYI, one of the oldest, richest, and most celebrated families of the Hungarian magnates, which can trace its origin as far back as the invasion of Pannonia by the Magyars, in 884 A.D., and which has given to Hungary many warriors and statesmen. The surname is derived from lands obtained in the 14th c. Balthasar von B., who was the head of the family in the latter half of the 16th c., fought with distinction in the Turkish wars, and constantly maintained at his own expense 1200 infantry and 500 cavalry.—Charles, Prince of B., a Lieutenant field marshal of the Empire, distinguished himself in the Bavarian War of Succession, and particularly by a victory over the French and Bavarians at Pfaffenhofen on 15th April 1745. Count Casimir B., a member of the principal branch of the family, was born 4th June 1807. He was Minister of Foreign Affairs in Hungary during the insurrection in 1849, in which he also distinguished himself as a military governor. After the catastrophe of Világos, he fled, along with Kossuth, into the Turkish territory, where he remained till 1851. He then went to France, and died at Paris, 13th July 1854. Count Louis B., belonging to another branch of the same family, and born at Presburg in 1809, having espoused the national cause, yet seeking to maintain the connection with Austria and his allegiance to the Austrian sovereign, was appointed President of the Ministry, when Hungary obtained a ministry of its own, in March 1848. His ability was not equal to the goodness of his intentions, and the circumstances in which he was called to act were very difficult and embarrassing. He did not hold the office long, and afterwards took part in public affairs, chiefly as a member of the diet, and with great moderation. Yet, after the Austrians entered Pesth, he was arrested in January 1849, and on 6th October was executed by sentence of martial law. His condemnation was unexpected, and awakened the more sympathy, because all men regarded it as unjust.

BATTLE, a town in East Sussex, 8 miles north-west of Hastings, where the country rises in wooded swells. Consisting of one street, built along a valley extending from N.-W. to S.-E. Pop. (1871) 3195. It is noted for its manufacture of gunpowder, well known to sportsmen as B. powder. It was anciently called Hetheland or Epiton, and derives its present name from the battle (usually called the Battle of Hastings), fought on the heath between it and Hastings, on 14th October 1066, when the Normans, under William the Conqueror, finally overthrew the Saxon dynasty in England. William, to commemorate his victory, founded in 1067, on the spot where Harold's standard was taken, a splendid abbey, which was endowed with all the land within a league of it. The abbey had the privileges of a sanctuary, and the Conqueror's sword and a roll of his barons were deposited in it. The existing ruins, which belong to a building erected subsequently to the original abbey, occupy three sides of a quadrangle, and are about a mile in circumference.

BATTLE is a combat between large masses of troops, or whole armies. Every B. ought to have for its object the determination, if possible, of the whole contest, or at least the effecting of some important step to that end. It is therefore the aim of a general to bring about an engagement at the decisive point. This constitutes Strategy, while Tactic is concerned with the handling of the troops in the actual battle. Victory on the battle-field is not enough for a general; it is only by following up his victory to the annihilation, if possible, of the beaten army, that its fruits are secured. Order of B. is the particular way in which the several corps of different arms are disposed for entering into an engagement. It varies at different times, and is modified according to locality.

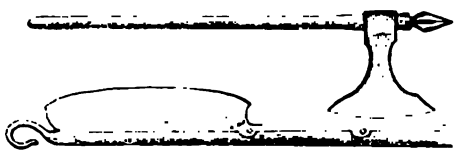
No general account of a B. can be given. Information on the various elements of which a B. consists will be found described under such heads as Attack, Artillery, Cavalry, Infantry, Charge, Fleet, Gunnery, Tactics, &c. The more important individual battles will be found described, in their causes and results, under the names of the places with which they are associated.

Considered in their political relations, the importance of battles is not always in proportion to their magnitude. 'There are some battles which claim our attention, independently of the moral worth of the combatants, on account of their enduring importance, and by reason of their practical influence on our own social and political condition, which we can trace up to the results of those engagements. They have for us an actual and abiding interest, both while we investigate the chain of causes and effects, by which they have helped to make us what we are; and also while we speculate on what we probably should have been, if any one of those battles had come to a different termination.'—Professor Creasy's *Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World, from Marathon to Waterloo.* The fifteen battles which, in Professor Creasy's opinion, have had the most decisive influence, are the following:

B.C.
490. Battle of Marathon.
413. Defeat of the Athenians at Syracuse.
331. Battle of Arbela.
207. " " the Metaurus.
A.D.
9. Defeat of the Romans under Varus.
451. Battle of Chalons.
732. " " Tours.
1066. " " Hastings.
1429. Joan of Arc's victory at Orleans.
1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
1704. Battle of Blenheim.
1709. " " Pultowa.
1777. Defeat of Burgoyne at Saratoga.
1792. Battle of Valmy.
1815. " " Waterloo.

BA'TTLE, WA'GER OF. See BATTEL.

BA'TTLE-AXE was a weapon much used by the early northern nations, Celtic and Scandinavian, requiring great strength in its use. Some were held with one hand, some with two; the former kind could be wielded equally by horse and foot, but the latter was for foot-soldiers only. The B. had a longer handle, and a broader, stronger, and sharper blade than the common axe. During the



Battle-axes.

middle ages, and somewhat earlier, it was much used in sorties, and to prevent the escalading of a besieged fortress. The *pole-axe* differed but little from the battle-axe. The *black bill* and *brown bill* were a sort of halbert, having the cutting part hooked like a woodman's bill, with a spike projecting from the back, and another from the head. The *glaive* was a kind of pole-axe or bill used by the Welsh.

BA'TTLEMENT, a notched or indented parapet used in fortifications. The rising parts are called

Early English Traceried Battlement.

cops or merlons; the spaces by which they are separated, *crenels*, embrasures, and sometimes loops. The object of the device is to enable the soldier to

Simple form of Battlement.

shelter himself behind the merlon, whilst he shoots through the embrasure. The bas-reliefs of Nineveh, and the Egyptian paintings, testify to its antiquity, and there is perhaps no nation by which it has not been adopted.

BA'TTLE-PIECES are paintings representing battles. The modern mode of warfare is less favourable for this branch of art than the ancient, where personal valour had more room to display itself. Among the greatest paintings of battles, are, the battle of Constantine, sketched by Raphael and executed by Giulio Romano; Le Brun's battles of Alexander; and the battle of the Amazons by Rubens. In smaller scenes, such as skirmishes and surprises, Antonio Tempesta, Hans Snellink, Wouverman, Snyders, Fulcone, Phil. Wouverman, &c., are distinguished. The most eminent of recent battle painters is Horace Vernet.

BA'TTUE (from Fr. *battre*, to beat). The B. is a method of killing game on a great scale, by causing the animals to be driven forward to a point where a number of shooters are waiting to shoot them. The driving is effected by beating the bushes, whence the term battue. This term, like the practice which it imports, is only of modern date; the practice of killing deer by driving them forward in a gradually ever-narrowing circle to a place where they can easily be shot, is an old usage in the Highlands, where it is called the *tinchel*. The B. is at best a common-place and butcherly amusement, for it can scarcely be said to have the merit of being attended with a reasonable degree of exercise and exertion. It is practised chiefly in extensive preserves of pheasants and hares during the autumn and winter months, when country gentlemen invite acquaintances to their mansions for the sake of field-sports. The shooting takes place early in the day, and with good arms and dogs; it is attended with neither fatigue nor danger. The number of shooters is usually eight or ten, each provided with at least two guns, which are loaded by an assistant as quickly as they are discharged. When the shooters are stationed at a distance from each other, and ready to commence, the beaters begin theirs by driving the game before them. Sometimes, however, pheasants will run a long way before rising on wing, and to make them take flight on approaching the guns, a low net is sometimes drawn across their path. It should be observed that in the B., hares, rabbits, &c., are killed as well as pheasants; and at length the ground is strewed with slain, like a field of battle. In the London B., large quantities of game are killed, and sold in market; the profits derived from this species of sport on some estates amounting to no inconsiderable sum annually. For an account of B.-shooting, see *The Shot-gun and Sporting Rifle*, and *British Rural Sports* (London, 1859).

BATU'M, BATOO'M, or BATOU'M, a town in the Turkish pashalic of Trebizond, which city it is 108 miles north-east (lat. 41° 37' long. 41° 37' E.), with about 3000 inhabitants, mostly Turks and Lasians, or Lazes. Its harbour is one of the best on the east coast of the Black Sea. A pretty extensive trade is carried on. Hides, wax, honey, and, above all, oak timber for shipbuilding, are the principal exports. Great numbers of Greek churches and other buildings are to be seen in the neighbourhood, which bear witness to its importance in the middle ages when B. was a place of consequence.

BATURI'N, a town of Russia, in the government of, and 78 miles east from, the city of Tchernigov, on the Seim. It was founded by Stephen Batori, King of Poland, and was at one time the favourite residence of the Hetmans of the Cossacks. One of these, Mazeppa, who, in 1708, sold himself to Charles XII., is the most notorious. The

with its once beautiful grounds, is now going rapidly to decay.

BAUDEKYN, a corruption of Baldachin (q. v.).

BAUER, Bruno, a celebrated biblical critic and philosopher, belonging to the extreme school of German rationalism, was born at Eisenberg, in the duchy of Saxe-Altenburg, on the 6th September 1809. He is the son of a porcelain-painter, and studied at the university of Berlin, where he became doctor of theology in 1834. From this period, he has devoted himself exclusively to what is termed in Germany the scientific criticism of Scripture—that is to say, a criticism based on the conviction, that the contents of the Bible have a natural, and not a supernatural origin, and ought to be subjected to the same process of philosophical analysis as other human productions are. In 1839, B. became a *privat-docent* in the university of Bonn, but in 1842 was forbidden to deliver any more theological lectures. He then removed to Berlin, where he has since resided. He has passed through various stages of anti-supernaturalism. At first, he contented himself with believing that the substance of the Christian religion might be extricated from the entanglements of a confused and erroneous system of interpretation. Such is the idea that runs through his earliest works, his *Criticism of Strauss's Life of Jesus*, published in the Berlin *Year-book of Scientific Criticism* (1835—1836), his *Journal of Speculative Theology* (1836—1838), and his *Critical Exposition of the Religion of the Old Testament* (Berlin, 1838). He soon, however, advanced so far in his 'scientific' demands, that it became quite clear the Scriptures, in his eyes, had lost even the moderate authority which he originally supposed them to possess. To this period belong his *Doctor Hempstenberg* (Berlin, 1839), and *The Evangelical Church of Prussia and Science* (Leip. 1840). In the former of these works, B. appears as an opponent of the school of apologetic theologians, and exposes what he conceives to be the weakness of their system as a method of apprehending characteristic differences in the historical development of Christian doctrine; in the latter, he wished to prove that true philosophic union is the dissolution of the outward dogmatic church in the realm of the universal and free self-consciousness language which is not very intelligible to the finite Anglo-Saxon mind. In his *Critique of the Evangelical History of John* (Brem. 1840), and *Critique of the Evangelical Synoptic Gospels* (Leip. 1840), he attempted to shew that the so-called facts of the gospel never really had a historical existence, and that those artistic compositions which we term the gospels, were simply the product of the human self-consciousness. B. considers Strauss, a mere apologetical theologian, a comparatively orthodox writer! and regards his conclusions with the supercilious contempt of one who has reached a far higher elevation, while he conceives that his own special work in this world has been to strike off the last head of the Hydra of the Tradition-hypothesis. The persecutions to which he was now subjected brought about a complete rupture between him and the church; the consequence of which was a brochure entitled *The Question of Liberty, and my own Private Affairs* (Zurich, 1843). Then followed his *Christenthum ohne Lüge* (Zurich, 1843), in which he expressed the same conviction that he had previously done in two ironical treatises, viz., that a dogmatic religion was opposed to our self-consciousness. About this time he broke with his old friends, the liberals, by writing a pamphlet against the emancipation of the Jews, *Die Judenfrage* (Brunswick, 1843). This tractate forms the transition point to the third period of B.'s intellectual activity, in which he seems to have abandoned theology altogether as something hopeless. He now occupied himself exclusively with literature and political philosophy. The number of his writings in this department is very great. The principal are, *History of the Politics, Civilization, and Enlightenment of the 18th Century* (Charlottenburg, 1843—1845); *History of Germany during the French Revolution and the Reign of Napoleon* (Charlottenburg, 1846); *History of the French Revolution until the Establishment of the Republic* (Leip. 1847); *Western Dictatorship; The Actual Position of Russia; Germany and Russia; Russia and England.* The prominent idea in the whole of his works belonging to this period is, that the failure of the popular and national struggles in the 19th c. results from the essential weakness of the 'enlightenment' of the 18th c. More lately, B. has again returned to theology. In 1850 1851, appeared his *Critique of the Gospels and the History of their Origin*, and his *Critique of the Epistles of St Paul*, the latter of which the author considers wholly apocryphal, and written during the 2d c. Besides the works mentioned, B. has composed various other treatises on important points of history, theology, and politics. All B.'s writings exhibit great learning, industry, research, and acumen; but are completely antagonistic to the received opinions in theology, or to any form of evangelical religion. He is generally admitted to be quicker in the discovery of error than of truth, and to have a greater talent for overthrowing than for building up.

BAUGÉ, a town in the department of Maine-et-Loire, France, 23 miles east-north-east of Angers. The English, under the Duke of Clarence, were defeated here in 1421. Pop. (1872) 2891, who are engaged in the manufacture of linens and woollens.

BAUHINIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Cæsalpineæ*. The upper petal is somewhat remote from the rest. The leaves are generally divided into two lobes. The species are natives of the warmer regions of both hemispheres, and some of them are remarkable for the size and beauty of their flowers. Most of them are twining plants, or *lianes*, stretching from tree to tree in the tropical forests; but some are small trees, as *B. porrecta*, the Mountain Ebony of Jamaica, so called from the colour of its wood. The inner bark of *B. racemosa* (the Malabo Climber), of *B. scandens*, and of *B. parviflora*, East Indian species, is employed for making ropes. *B. retusa* and *B. emarginata*, also East Indian, exude a brownish coloured mild gum; whilst the astringent bark of *B. variegata* is used in Malabar for tanning and dyeing leather, and also in medicine. The leaves of various species are used in Brazil as demulcent medicines, having mucilaginous properties. Livingstone mentions a species of B. in South Africa, called the Mopané Tree. It is remarkable for the little shade which its leaves afford. They fold together, and stand nearly erect during the heat of the day. On them the larvæ of a species of *Psylla* cause a saccharine secretion, in circular patches, beneath which the pupa of the insect is found. The natives scrape it off, and eat it as a dainty.

BAUMGARTEN, Alexander Gottlieb, a clear and acute thinker of the school of Wolf, was born at Berlin on the 17th of July 1714, studied at Halle, and in 1740 became Professor of Philosophy at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, where he died on the 26th of May 1762. He is the founder of Æsthetics (q. v.) as a systematic science of the beautiful, though his mode of treatment is objected to by the more transcendental Germans, as being purely psychological; that is to say, he makes æsthetics only a portion of

the philosophy of the senses, and contrasts it with logic, which belongs to the sphere of the reason. The idea of a science of the beautiful first appears in his treatise, *De Nonnullis ad Poema Pertinentibus*, published at Halle, 1735. In 1750—1758, he issued two volumes of his *Æsthetica*, but his death hindered the completion of the work. His writings in other departments of philosophy are marked by clearness and precision; his *Metaphysica* (Halle, 1739; 7th edition, 1779) is still considered one of the most useful books for the study of the Wolfian philosophy.

BAUMGARTEN-CRUSIUS, Ludwig Friedrich Otto, a German theologian, born at Merseburg, 1788, and died at Jena, 31st May 1843. He studied theology at Leipsic, and in 1810 became university preacher. In 1817, he was appointed Professor of Theology at Jena, and always distinguished himself as a champion of religious liberty, on behalf of which he wrote various treatises. In 1820 appeared his *Introduction to the Study of Dogmatics* (Leip. 1820), a work of considerable originality and richness of thought. More complete exhibitions of his opinions are to be found in his *Manual of Christian Ethics* (Leip. 1827); *Outlines of Biblical Theology* (Jena, 1828); and *Outlines of Protestant Dogmatics* (Jena, 1830). In 1831—1832, he published a *Text-book of the History of Doctrines;* in 1834, a work on *Schleiermacher, his Method of Thought, and his Value;* and also *Considerations on certain Writings of Lamennais.* After his death, Kimmel published the whole of his exegetical prelections on the Gospels and Pauline Epistles.

B. was conspicuous for the breadth and solidity of his learning, the originality of his spirit, and the acuteness of his understanding, but was nevertheless deficient in clear and vivid expression. He attached himself to no school theological or philosophical. At an early period, he had been greatly influenced by the metaphysics of Schelling, from which, however, he ultimately emancipated himself. His thinking was, to a certain extent, rationalistic, but on the whole approached more closely to the direction of the spiritual Schleiermacher.

BAUMGARTNER, Andreas Ritter von, or Chevalier de, was born at Friedberg, in Bohemia, 23d November 1793, and studied at Vienna, where, in 1823, he became Professor of Natural Philosophy. Whilst filling this office, he gave popular lectures on Sundays upon mechanics, &c., for artisans and operatives, which met with much approbation. A result of these lectures was his *Mechanik in ihrer Anwendung auf Künste und Gewerbe* (2d ed. Vienna, 1823), and his *Naturlehre* (Vienna, 1823). An ailment of the throat induced him to resign his professorship, but he was appointed director of the imperial porcelain, mirror-glass, and smalt manufactories, and afterwards superintendent of tobacco manufactories. In the year 1846, the setting up of the electric telegraph was committed to him, and he was intrusted with the principal charge of the making of the Austrian railways. After the events of March 1848, he was Minister of Mines and of Public Buildings, and chief of one of the departments in the Ministry of Finance. In May 1851, he was appointed Minister of Commerce, Trade, and Public Buildings. At the same time, he was appointed President of the Austrian Academy of Sciences, of which he had been vice-president for a number of years. He published in 1862, *Chemie und Geschichte der himmelskörper nach der Spectralanalyse*; in 1864, *Die mechan. Theorie der Wärme*. He died in 1865; and *Freiherr Von B. Eine Lebensskizze* was published during the following year.

BAUR, Ferdinand Christian, the founder of the 'New Tübingen School of Theology,' was born on the 21st of June 1792. In 1817, he became professor in the seminary of Blaubeuren, where he gave the first indications of his remarkable abilities by the publication of his *Symbolism and Mythology, or the Nature-religion of the Ancients* (Stuttgart, 3 vols., 1824—1825), a work which indicates the influence of Schleiermacher over the author. In 1826, he was called to Tübingen, where he held the chair of Protestant theology. His whole life was consecrated to religious studies—the history of doctrines, the symbolism of the church, and biblical exegesis. On account of the universality of his culture, the wonderful activity and fertility of his mind, his rare combination of speculative thought with solid knowledge, and that faculty of historic divination or insight which enabled him to draw decisive results from separate, obscure, and neglected data —he has been regarded by many in Germany as the most massive theological intellect since Schleiermacher. Unlike Bruno Bauer, he made comparatively little use of the Hegelian philosophy in his writings; and when he did, it was professedly only that he might more clearly understand historical phenomena in their internal spiritual connection, and be enabled to represent the logical process of their development. His method of investigating the progressive history of religious opinion, however, incurred the reproach of formalism from its adversaries, who said that he applied it too rigorously, and made dogmas develop themselves with a kind of abstract inevitable regularity from previous historical conditions, without allowing for immediate and extraordinary providences. His most important works in the history of doctrine are—*Die christliche Gnosis oder die christliche Religionsphilosophie* (Tübingen, 1835), (The Christian Gnosis, or the Christian Philosophy of Religion); a work which makes the Christian Gnosis of the 2d and 3d centuries the starting-point of a long series of religio-philosophical productions traceable uninterruptedly down through middle-age mysticism and theosophy to Schelling, Hegel, and Schleiermacher; *Die christliche Lehre von der Versöhnung* (Tübingen, 1838, (The Christian Doctrine of the Atonement); and *Die christliche Lehre von der Dreieinigkeit und Menschwerdung Gottes* (Tübingen, 1841—1843), (The Christian Doctrine of the Trinity and the Incarnation). In reply to Möhler, the celebrated Roman Catholic theologian, who had attacked the Protestant Church, he wrote *Der Gegensatz des Catholicismus und Protestantismus* (Tübingen, 1836), (The Opposition between Catholicism and Protestantism). Besides these works, based on a historical treatment of religion, to which class also belongs his *Lehrbuch der christlichen Dogmengeschichte* (Compendium of the History of Christian Dogmas), (Stuttgart, 1847), he published various critical treatises on parts of the New Testament; such as, *Die Christuspartei in der Korinthischen Gemeinde; der Gegensatz des Paulinischen und Petrinischen Christenthums; der Apostel Petrus in Rome* (1831), (The Christ-party in the Corinthian Community; the Opposition of the Pauline and Petrine Christianity; the Apostle Peter in Rome), a work in which the author endeavours to demonstrate the existence of deep-rooted differences in that sphere of primitive Christianity, in which we are accustomed to see nothing but unity and harmony. His inquiries concerning the Gnosis led him to study minutely the pastoral epistles, the result of which study was *Die sogenannten Pastoralbriefe des Apostels Paulus* (Stuttgart, 1835), (The So-called Pastoral Epistles of the Apostle Paul), in which he combats the idea that St Paul was their author, and refers them to the c. Of a similar nature

is his *Paulus, der Apostel Jesu Christi* (Stuttgart, 1845), (Paul, the Apostle of Jesus Christ). His work on the Gospel of John produced a startling effect, as up to B.'s time that gospel had generally been held prior in date to the three synoptic gospels, whereas B. strove hard to shew that it was of post-apostolic origin. In 1847, appeared his *Kritische Untersuchungen über die canonischen Evangelien, ihr Verhältniss zueinander, ihren Ursprung und Charakter* (Critical Inquiry Concerning the Canonical Gospels; their Relation to each other; their Origin and Character). In 1851, he published *Das Markus-evangelium nach seinem Ursprung und Charakter* (The Origin and Character of St Mark's Gospel). B. died Dec. 1860. In these and other works of a similar nature, B. maintained that we must extend our notions of the time within which the canonical writings were composed to a period considerably post-apostolic, and which can only be determined approximately by a careful investigation of the motives which apparently actuated their authors. The chief characteristic, therefore, of the 'Tübingen School,' as exhibited in the works of its founder, is, the union of a subjective criticism with a strong conviction of the historic reality of the New Testament writings. The most distinguished adherents of this new school of German theology are Zeller, Schwegler, Köstlin, and Hilgenfeld.

BAUTAIN, Louis-Eugene-Marie, a French philosopher and theologian, born at Paris, February 17, 1796. He studied under Cousin at the Normal School. In 1816, he was appointed professor of philosophy in the College of Strasbourg, and soon distinguished himself by the influence he exerted over the earnest youth of that city, who carried their admiration even to the length of imitating his walk and dress. The religious tendencies of his character, however, not finding a satisfactory expression in philosophy, he threw himself into the arms of the church, and became a priest in 1828. After the events of 1830, he resigned his professorship, which until then he had retained; but his reputation for orthodoxy, never very strong, had been destroyed in the eyes of his bishop by his work *La Morale de l'Evangile comparée à la Morale des Philosophes*, published a few years before, and he was in consequence suspended from sacred offices for several years, but reinstated in 1841. In 1838, he was made dean of the Faculty of Letters at Strasbourg, and afterwards director of the College of Juilly. At a still later period, he was translated to Paris, and appointed vicar general of the metropolitan diocese. In 1848, he attempted to give a religious direction to the revolution. He was selected as one of the professors of the Theological Faculty of Paris, and was an extremely popular preacher. His principal works are *Philosophie psychologique Expérimentale* (1840), *Philosophie Morale* (1842), *Philosophie du Christianisme* (1835), *La Religion et la Liberté considérées dans leurs Rapports* (1848), *La Morale de l'Evangile comparée aux diverses Systèmes de Morale* (1855). He died in 1867.

BAUTZEN, or, in official language, BUDISSIN, capital of the circle of the same name, kingdom of Saxony. It has a population (1871) of 13,165 including many *Wends*, remnants of the old Vandals. It is situated on a rising ground overlooking the river Spree, and is the seat of the chief offices of justice in the circle, which has a population (1871) of 330,133, including 30,000 Wends. It has several churches, a royal palace formerly the residence of the margrafs of Meissen, numerous schools, and two public libraries and an hospital. The chief branches of industry are manufactures of woollens, cotton, linen, hosiery, leather, and gunpowder. B. is a place of considerable antiquity, and was known in the time of Henry I. (931), but was first made a town under Otho I. Its several privileges, and the reputation of certain holy relics preserved in St Peter's Church, made the place important. It suffered greatly in the war with the Hussites, and still more during the Thirty Years' War. Meissner, the poet, who died in 1805, was born here. B., however, is chiefly celebrated as the place where Napoleon, with an army of 150,000 men, after an obstinate resistance, won a barren victory over 90,000 of the allied Russians and Prussians, May 20–21, 1813. The allies lost in the two days 15,000 in killed and wounded; in addition to 1500 prisoners, mostly wounded, which the French captured. The French left 5000 dead upon the field, and upwards of 20,000 were wounded. The result of the battle, and the splendid retreat of the allies, were most disheartening to the French army, and even to Napoleon himself.

BAVARIA (Ger. *Baiern*, and officially, *Bayern*), one of the states of the German empire; according to its size, the second in importance. B. is divided into two unequal parts, which are separated by the Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt dominions. The eastern portion, comprising fully eleven twelfths of the whole, is situated between lat. 47° 20′, and 50° 41 N., and long. 9° and 13° 48′ E. It is bounded N. by the Prussian province of Hesse Nassau, the Thuringian principalities, and the kingdom of Saxony; E. by Bohemia and Austria; S., by the Tyrol; and W., by Wurtemberg, Baden, and the Grand Duchy of Hesse. The western part, occupying the Rhine Palatinate, on the left bank of the Rhine, lies between lat. 48° 57′ and 49° 50′ N., and between 7° 5′ and 8° 27′ E. Rhenish Prussia, the Grand Duchy of Hesse, and Baden bound it on the W., N., and E., and France on the S.

B. is divided into eight circles, as follows:

Circles.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.
Upper Bavaria,	6,641	841,597
Lower Bavaria,	4,991	692,085
Palatinate,	2,272	613,164
Upper Palatinate,	3,659	497,291
Upper Franconia,	2,713	544,963
Middle Franconia,	2,914	561,417
Lower Franconia,	3,429	586,142
Swabia and Neuburg,	3,663	592,889
Military in France,		11,356
Total,	29,138	4,861,403

Surface, Hydrography, Railways, &c.—B. may be described as a mountainous country. It is walled in on the south-east, north-east, and north-west by mountains ranging from 3000 feet to upwards of 10,000 feet in height. The highest elevation is reached on the south, the Zugspitz of the Norse Alps being 10,150 feet high. On the east, the highest points of the Bohmerwald, dividing B. from Bohemia, are the Arber and Rachelberg, which are respectively 4613 feet and 4561 feet high. On the north-east, the Schneeberg, in the Fichtelgebirge range, attains a height of 3481 feet. A branch of this chain, which is connected on the north-west with the Thuringerwald, extends south between the rivers Regnitz and Vils. The Rhongeburge, the greatest height of which is 3000 feet, forms the northernmost chain of Bavaria. In the Rhine Palatinate, the principal mountain is the Haardt, whose culminating peak is about 2300 feet high. In the interior, B. is intersected in several directions by various less elevated ranges, alternating with extensive plains and fertile valleys. B. is rich in wood, nearly one third of its surface being covered with forests, mostly of pine and fir.

As to its *hydrography*, B. has the Rhine flowing along the whole eastern boundary of the circle of

Augsburg and Lindau on Lake Constance, a distance of 80 miles. These lines join Munich with Augsburg, Donauwörth, Nürnberg, Bamberg, Ulm, and Kufstein. B. has nearly 6000 miles of public roads, and over 1400 of telegraphs.

Climate, Soil, Products, &c.—The temperature of B. varies considerably, being cold and bleak in the mountainous regions, and very hot in summer in the plains and valleys. The climate may be described generally, however, as mild and salubrious. The soil, particularly in the valleys of the Upper and Lower Danube, is very fertile, second to none in Central Germany; but its capabilities as yet have not been fully developed, although even now the wealth of the country consists almost wholly of its agricultural produce. The plain south of Munich has been described as the granary of Germany, in consequence of its great productiveness, while the circles of Upper and Middle Franconia are styled the hop-garden of Bavaria. Wheat, rye, oats, and barley are the chief articles of produce, but buckwheat, maize, and rice are also grown to a small extent. The vine, as well as the hop-plant, is cultivated extensively in Franconia, and the wine is held in great esteem. Rhenish B. also produces good wine. The quantity annually produced in B. is estimated at upwards of 9,000,000 gallons. Fruit, tobacco, flax, hemp, linseed, liquorice, and beet-root beer, leather, glass, jewellery, optical a matical instruments, butter, cheese, &c. value of these is estimated at about £1,500 principal imports are sugar, coffee, wool stuffs, drugs, hemp, and flax. The posi gives it the transit trade between North and Austria, Switzerland and Italy.

Population, Religion, Education.—The the population of B. is much checked by tions which relate to marriages. No ma take place until the authorities who super relief of the poor are fully satisfied that t wishing to marry have adequate means a wife and family; and certain milita tions have also to be fulfilled before a enter into wedlock. These restrictive another consequence besides that of pre rapid increase of the population; they ha to increase inordinately the number of il children. B. has a very bad pre-eminen respect on the continent. In the capital, t mate births about equal the legitimate; the whole kingdom the proportion range 4·5 to 1 in 5 of the total births, equal to a of from 22½ to 20 illegitimate births. the population was 3,564,757; in 1833, and in 1855, it had only increased to During recent years, however, the increas

allows perfect toleration, guaranteeing the same civil rights to Catholic and Protestant alike. Individuals of every sect have the privilege of worshipping privately without fear of molestation; and on application to the king by a sufficient number of families, the right of public worship can be secured. A concordat with Rome divides the state into 2 archbishoprics and 6 bishoprics. The consistories of Anspach, Baireuth, and Speyer, under the superior consistory of Munich, govern the Lutheran Church, the Munich consistory being in some degree subject to a section in the home department, which manages the temporal concerns of all the churches. The president of the Munich consistory has a seat and vote in the council of the state. The revenues of the Church of Rome are derived from lands and endowments, the Protestant Church is supported by the state. Of late, the Bavarian government has become conspicuous by opposing the Ultramontanes, and encouraging the 'Old Catholics.'

B. has a good system of *education*, under the supreme direction of a minister of public instruction, to whom certain members of the provincial governments, specially instructed to watch the educational interests of the communities, are subordinate. They, again, have numerous inspectors under them, who make systematic reports as to the state of education in the country. It is obligatory on all children, whose parents have not received permission to have them educated at home, to attend school until they are 14 years of age, and they are then required to attend a Sunday school for two years longer. B. has three universities, Munich and Würzburg, which are Catholic, and Erlangen, Protestant. These universities are well attended both by natives and foreigners. Munich has the greatest repute both at home and abroad, Erlangen the least. There are numerous schools for special instruction in the kingdom.

Government, Revenue, &c.- B. is a constitutional monarchy, the throne hereditary in the male line. Its constitution dates no further back than 1818, when it was declared a part of confederated Germany. The king is the executive. The legislature consists of a chamber of senators, and one of deputies. The senators are hereditary, the king, however, having the power, within certain limits, to nominate members for life. The Chamber of Deputies consists of five different classes: one-eighth of the whole members being chosen from landed proprietors, who exercise judicial powers in right of their property, and have no seat in the upper house; another eighth from ecclesiastics of the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches; a fourth from the inhabitants of cities and market towns; and a half from landed proprietors who neither possess judicial rights, nor a seat in the other chamber. There are, besides, three members from the universities - one from each. There is one member in the Chamber of Deputies for every 7000 families, or 35,000 inhabitants. In the event of there not being a dissolution, the chamber lasts for six years. The usual length of the annual session is two months. The chambers, in ordinary circumstances, meet once a year for the dispatch of business, and it is compulsory on the king to summon them once in three years. No deliberation can take place unless two-thirds of the deputies are present. All matters relating to public burdens, &c., come first under the consideration of the Chamber of Deputies; with reference to other questions, the king exercises his own discretion as to which chamber shall first discuss them. No alteration in taxation, and no new law, can be promulgated without the consent of the legislature; but the royal prerogative is loosely defined.

The cabinet consists of seven members, chiefs of the departments of foreign affairs, justice, home affairs, public worship and instruction, finance, commerce, and public works and war. They are not necessarily members of the chambers, though they are privileged to be present at the deliberations. The privy council is composed of the king, certain royal princes, the ministers of state, and six councillors nominated by the king.

The *revenue* of B. in 1871 amounted to 87,144,606 florins of the Rhine (£7,262,050), of which 10,330,000 florins were raised by direct taxation, 27,755,155 florins by indirect taxation, the rest chiefly from domains and state monopolies. The expenditure during the same year amounted to 87,144,606 florins (£7,262,050). The interest on the national debt swallowed up about 31 per cent. of the whole expenditure; the army, 22½ per cent.; and the educational establishments, about 19¼ per cent. In 1870, the public debt amounted to 425,355,551 florins (£35,446,296), 163,428,890 florins being contracted for railways. In 1858, the public debt was 122,839,495 florins, and the debt on railways was 88,643,834 florins.

The raising of the *army* of B. was in 1871 adapted to the Prussian method of conscription, as was also that of all the states of the empire. Every Bavarian is liable to service for seven years, and no substitution is allowed. The period of active service is four years, the remaining three being spent in the army of reserve; and the soldier, after quitting the reserve, is bound to serve other five years in the Landwehr. When B., in November 1870, became one of the kingdoms of the German empire, her army, on the established conditions of its formation, was enrolled as the second corps of the imperial army, consisting of two divisions, under the command of the king of B. in times of peace, but controlled by the emperor of Germany in war. On the peace-footing, the infantry consists of 16 regiments, 48 battalions, 26,768 men in all. There are 10 battalions of cavalry, consisting of 5540, and 32 battalions of Landwehr, made up of 512 men each; the entire number of men being thus 32,820. The war-footing is, of course, on a much larger scale.

History. The Boii, a race of Celtic origin, were the first inhabitants of B. of whom tradition furnishes any account. From them, its German name, Baiern, as well as its old Latin name, Boaria, is said to have been derived. They appear to have conquered the country about 600 B.C., and they retained it until shortly before the Christian era, when they were subjugated by the Romans; the country being made an integral part of the Roman empire, under the names of Vindelicia and Noricum. After the decay of the Roman power, the Ostrogoths and Franks successively held possession of it, until Charlemagne conquered it. After his death, it was governed by lieutenants of the Frank and German kings, until 1070, when it passed into possession of the Guelph family; and it was transferred by imperial grant, in 1180, to Otho, Count of Wittelsbach, whose descendant now occupies the throne. The Rhenish Palatinate was conferred on this family by the Emperor Frederick III. in 1216. Now followed quarrels between relatives, and divisions of territory, until the dukedom of B. was severed from the Rhenish and Upper Palatinates (see PALATINATE); of the latter, however, it repossessed itself in 1621 the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, confirming the title of its princes to that possession, as well as its right to the electoral dignity to which it had been raised in 1624. In the war of the Spanish Succession, B. supported France, and suffered considerably in

consequence; but in 1777, on the extinction of the younger Wittlesbach line, it received the accession of the Rhine Palatinate. In 1805, B. was erected into a kingdom by Napoleon I. The king assisted Napoleon in his wars, and in consideration of his aid received large additions of territory. In 1813, however, the Bavarian king opportunely contrived to change sides, and thus managed to have confirmed to him, by the treaties of 1814—1815, an extent of territory nearly as valuable as the possessions which the treaties of Presburg and Vienna had given him, and which he had now to restore to Austria.

In 1818, as already intimated, the new constitution came into existence, but owing to various causes, it did not secure that measure of popular freedom and contentment that had been expected. In 1825, Louis I. ascended the throne. He was a well-meaning, liberal, and intellectual monarch, and was favourable to the liberty of the people and the press; but he lavished the wealth of the kingdom to an extravagant degree on the embellishment of the capital, and on works of art, while he neglected to a considerable extent works of practical value, that would have tended to enrich the country, diminish the public burdens, and consequently increase the welfare of his people. In 1830, a wave from the French revolution swept over the country, disturbing its equanimity, but not to any serious extent. The Bavarian government, however, took alarm, and restricted the freedom of the press. These restrictions excited so much opposition, that they were soon after rescinded, but new dissatisfaction was created by the imposition of new taxes. The Jesuits now obtained an immense influence with the king, which they used to the detriment of popular rights. The wrath of the people was further aroused against their monarch by his connection with the notorious Lola Montez, who was looked upon as an agent of the Ultramontanists—an imputation which that lady, in her autobiography, published in 1858, indignantly repudiates, maintaining that she was the inveterate enemy of that party, and the true friend of the people. In March 1848, following the example set by the French revolutionists, the people of Munich seized the arsenal, and demanded reforms and the expulsion of Lola Montez. The king had to consent; but in the same month he abdicated his throne, in accordance, says Lola Montez, with a promise made by him to her. His son, Maximilian II., ascended the throne. He died in 1864; and Louis II., a distinguished patron of Wagner, the great musician, now (1874) reigns. See GERMANY, in SUPP.

BAVARIA, a colossal female statue at Munich, which bears the name of the country of which it is a personification, is said to be second in size only to the famous Colossus of Rhodes. It was erected by King Louis I., the model having been executed by Schwanthaler. Externally, the figure bears a German aspect. A long folding garment reaches from the middle to the naked foot; over the half-naked breast a skin is cast, and the hair falls freely over the back. The brow is adorned with sprigs of oak; in the left hand, which is raised, she holds a wreath of oak; and in the right, which is bent towards the breast, a sword; at her side reposes the Bavarian lion, the guardian of her kingdom, in a sitting attitude. The statue is 65 feet high, the pedestal being 30, so that the whole monument has a height of 95 feet. The statue was cast from the bronze of Turkish and Norwegian cannon. Internally, it is very remarkable. Through the back part of the pedestal, a door leads to a stone staircase, consisting of 60 steps. The figure itself is hollow, and resembles a mine, with side-passages which lead into the lion. A staircase of cast iron, of 58 steps, leads through the neck up into the head, where there are two sofas, and several openings for the enjoyment of the view. At the highest part of the head, there is the following inscription: 'This Colossal figure, erected by Louis I., King of Bavaria, was designed and modelled by L. von Schwanthaler, and cast in bronze, in the years 1844 to 1850, by Ferdinand Miller.' The head contains standing-room for thirty-one persons. The whole figure consists of seven pieces, and the lion, of five. The monument was formally uncovered, amidst great rejoicings, on the 7th August 1850.

BA'VINS, in the pyrotechny of warfare, are small bundles of easily ignited brushwood, from two to three feet in length. They are made by arranging the bush-ends of the twigs all in one direction, tying the other ends with small cord, dipping the bush-ends into a kettle containing an inflammable composition, and drying them. They are employed among the combustible materials in fire-ships.

BAW'BEE', or BA'BEE', the popular designation of a half-penny in Scotland, now dropping out of use. The origin of the term is obscure; but it is most probably a corruption of *bas billon*, Fr. applicable to debased copper money. In the plural form, the word is often popularly used in Scotland to signify money generally. In Scottish song, it is synonymous with a girl's fortune or marriage-portion—as, *Jenny's Bawbee*.

BA'XTER, RICHARD, one of the most eminent of the Nonconformist divines, was born, November 12, 1615, of poor but genteel parents, at Rowton, in Shropshire. His early education was somewhat neglected. Instead of attending, as he wished, one of the universities, he was obliged to content himself with a course of private study, in the midst of which he was induced, singularly enough, for he was habitually serious, to try his fortune at court. Hither he accordingly hied, fortified with an introduction to the Master of the Revels. A month sufficed to convince him that he was out of his element at Whitehall, and a protracted illness after his return helped to deepen the earnestness of his religious convictions. Soon after, at the age of 23, he was ordained, and entered on the Mastership of Dudley Grammar School, from which he removed to act as assistant to a clergyman at Bridgenorth, where he resided nearly two years. In 1640, he was invited to become parish clergyman of Kidderminster, an offer which he accepted; and within a comparatively brief period, not only did he establish his reputation as one of the most remarkable preachers of the time, but what was better, succeeded in effecting a wonderful improvement in the manners of the people. On the breaking out of the civil war, his position became somewhat peculiar. Sincerely attached to monarchy, his religious sympathies were almost wholly with the Puritans; and though a Presbyterian in principle, he was far from admitting the unlawfulness of episcopacy. These views, which, some time before the Restoration, became extremely popular, were now too catholic for the general taste, and the open respect shewn by Baxter to some leading Puritans exposed him to some danger from the mob. He accordingly retired to Coventry, where he ministered for two years to the garrison and inhabitants. He afterwards accepted the office of chaplain to Colonel Whalley's regiment, and was even present at the sieges of Bridgewater, Exeter, Bristol, and Worcester. His influence was at all times exerted to mollify the intolerance of partisanship, and to promote 'the spirit of love and of a sound mind.' On the urgent invitation of his parishioners, he returned to Kidderminster, where he

health forced him to leave the army, and continued to labour there for some time. During this period, he greatly extended his fame by the publication of his *Saints' Rest* and *Call to the Unconverted*. He never dissembled his sentiments with regard to the execution of the king and the usurpation of Cromwell, even in the presence of the Protector himself, who endeavoured, without success, to enlarge his ideas on the subject of revolutions. On the return of Charles, B. was appointed one of his chaplains, and took a leading part in the conference held at the Savoy to attempt a reconciliation between the contending church factions, a project defeated by the bigoted obstinacy of the bishops. B. was tempted with the offer of the see of Hereford, but declined the honour, praying instead to be permitted to return to his beloved flock at Kidderminster. He asked no salary, but his request was refused. The Act of Uniformity at length drove him out of the English Church, and in July 1663 he retired to Acton, in Middlesex, where he spent the greater part of nine years, chiefly occupied in the composition of some of the most important of his numerous works. These he produced with a rapidity unparalleled in modern generations, at least in this one respect, that the quality was not always in the inverse ratio of the quantity. The Act of Indulgence in 1672 permitted him to return to London, where he divided his time between preaching and writing. At length, in 1685, he fell into the brutal clutches of Judge Jefferies, who condemned him, for alleged 'sedition' in his *Paraphrase of the New Testament*, to pay a fine of 500 marks, and in default, to lie in the King's Bench Prison till it was paid. The circumstances of the trial are graphically described by Macaulay in the second volume of his History. After a confinement of nearly eighteen months, B. was released and pardoned, on the mediation of Lord Powis. He lived after this to see better times, and died on the 8th December 1691, in the seventy fifth year of his age.

B. is said to have preached more sermons, engaged in more controversies, and written more books than any other Nonconformist of his age; and Dr Isaac Barrow has said of him, that 'his practical writings were never mended, and his controversial seldom confuted.' The total number of his publications exceeded 160. Of these, by far the most popular and celebrated are his *Saints' Rest*, *Call to the Unconverted*, and *Dying Thoughts*. 20,000 copies of which were sold in a twelvemonth, and it was translated into all European languages. More important, however, in a theological point of view, are his *Methodus Theologiæ* and *Catholic Theology*, in which his peculiar system—a compromise between Arminianism and Calvinism—is embodied. His autobiographical narrative is historically valuable; the review of his religious opinions is spoken of by Coleridge as one of the most remarkable pieces of writing in religious literature. A complete edition of his works, in 23 vols., with a life by Orme, was published in 1830. His Practical Works, in 4 vols., were published in 1847.

BAXTERIANS is the term that was formerly applied to those who adhered to Baxter's theological system, the peculiar doctrines of which were: 1st, That though Christ died in a special sense for the elect, yet he also died in a general sense for all; 2d, The rejection of the dogma of reprobation; 3d, That it is possible even for saints to fall away from saving grace. The tendency of Baxter's views was towards a more liberal theology, but they are deficient in logical consistency. Nevertheless, they have been, and still are, embraced by many pious people—especially among the dissenters—who shrink from accepting what they consider the hard conclusions of Calvinism, or the latitudinarian views of Arminianism. The two most eminent B. are Dr Isaac Watts and Dr Philip Doddridge.

BAY (from a Saxon root, 'to bend') is properly applied to an indentation of the sea into the land, with an opening wider than the depth. A gulf is understood to be deeper than a bay, and has often a narrow opening. These terms are often loosely applied; Baffin's Bay, e.g., is really a gulf. When the body of water is large, and the entrance narrow, it becomes a shut sea, as the Baltic, the Red Sea, &c. Hudson's Bay, the Persian Gulf, and the Gulf of Mexico, might with propriety be termed seas.

BAY, a name given to a number of trees and shrubs more or less resembling the Laurel or Victor's Laurel (*Laurus nobilis*), which is also called SWEET BAY (see LAUREL); the name *Bays*, which was once exclusively applied to the fruit, having been extended to the whole plant. The Common Laurel or Cherry Laurel (*Prunus Lauroceraus*) is sometimes called BAY LAUREL. See LAUREL.—The RED BAY of the southern states of America is *Laurus Carolinensis*. See LAUREL. The WHITE BAY of America is *Magnolia glauca* (see MAGNOLIA), and the LORDLY BAY of the same country is *Gordonia Lasianthus*. See GORDONIA.

From early times, bay-leaves have been associated with popular superstitions and usages. Along with other evergreens, they have adorned houses and churches at Christmas; and in token of rejoicing or of some meritorious deed, sprigs of bay, as well as of laurel, have been worn in the hat, or wreathed around the head. There appears to have been a notion that the B. was an antidote against the effects of thunder. In an old play, *The White Devil*, Cornelia says:

> 'Reach the bays:
> I'll tie a garland here about his head,
> 'Twill keep my boy from lightning.'

According to Shakespeare, the withering of bay-trees was reckoned an omen of death. Thus Richard says:

> 'Tis thought the king is dead; we'll not stay.
> The bay-trees in our country are withered.'

The following passage occurs in *Parkinson's Garden of Flowers*, 1629, p. 598: 'The bay-leaves are necessary both for evil uses and for physic, both for the sick and for the sound, both for the living and the dead. It serveth to adorn the house of God, as well as man; to crowne or enriche, as with a garland, the heads of the living; and to strike and decke forth the bodies of the dead; so that from the cradle to the grave, we have still use of it, we have still need of it.' For other notices of this kind respecting the B., we refer to *Brand's Popular Antiquities*, also to *Hone's Year Book*. Bay-leaves are sometimes used in cookery for the sake of flavouring.

BAY ISLANDS, a small group in the Bay of Honduras, about 150 miles to the south-east of Balize, embracing only 25 of lat., and 1° 15′ of long. The cluster was proclaimed a British colony in 1852. The chief island is Ruatan (q. v.); and the others of any consequence are Bonacca, Utila, Barburet, Helena, and Morat.

BAY OF ISLANDS, near the northern extremity of New Ulster, the more northerly of the New Zealand Isles. Lat. 35° 14′ S., long. 174° 11′ E. On its coasts, which are pretty nearly the antipodes of the Straits of Gibraltar, are the British settlements of Russell and Kororarika.

BAYA (*Ploceus Philippinus*), a small East Indian bird, of the great family of the *Fringillidæ* (q. v.), and of a genus to some of which, from their remarkable manner of constructing their nests, the name

Weaver Bird (q. v.) is often given. It is described by the older ornithologists under the name of the Philippine Grossbeak, or *Loxia Philippina*. It is yellow, spotted with brown, the throat black, the beak conical and large. Its nest is very curious. Suspended from a slender twig of a lofty branch, so that monkeys, squirrels, and serpents may not reach it, it is rendered still more secure by its form, which is very like that of a common Florence flask, the entrance, however, being from beneath, and not from above, with lateral openings to separate chambers, in one of which the female sits upon the eggs, whilst another is occupied by the male, who there pours forth his song. It is composed of fine fibres of leaves and grass. The B. is very easily tamed, will perch on the hand, and can be trained to fetch and carry at command.

BAYADE'RES (from the Portuguese *bailadeira*, that is, dancing-girl) is the name given by Europeans to the dancing-girls and singers in India, who are divided into two great classes, each comprising many subdivisions. The first of these classes, who are called Devadasi—that is, slaves to the gods—are divided into two distinct grades, according to the rank of the families whence they have sprung, the dignity of the idol to which they are devoted, and the authority and riches of the temple to which they belong. Those of the first rank are chosen from the most influential families of the Vaisya caste, to which the rich landed proprietors and merchants belong. Those of the second class are chosen from the chief Sudra families, who correspond to our mechanics. No girls can be admitted among the Devadasis but such as are still in childhood, and free from any bodily defect. The parents of the girl must renounce by a solemn agreement all right to their child, who then receives the necessary instruction. The employment of the Devadasis is to sing the praises of their god at festivals and solemn processions, to celebrate his victories and great deeds, and to dance before him, to weave the wreaths with which the images are adorned, and in general to perform subordinate offices in the temple and for the priests. On the other hand, they are excluded from the celebration of such rites and ceremonies as are accounted peculiarly sacred, as, for example, at sacrifices for the dead, suttis, &c. The Devadasis of the first rank live within the enclosure of the temple, which they are not permitted to leave without the special permission of the high priest. They must remain unmarried for life, but are, notwithstanding, permitted to choose a lover, either in or out of the temple, provided he belongs to one of the high castes. A connection with a man of low rank would be punished with the utmost severity. If they have children, the girls are brought up to their mother's profession, and the boys are educated for musicians. The Devadasis of the second rank differ but little from those of the first, but they have more freedom, as they live without the temple. A certain number of them must attend daily at the temple service, but at public processions they are all obliged to appear. They not only dance and sing before the images—for which they receive a fixed allowance of rice-money—but when summoned by the nobles, they perform at marriages, banquets, &c. All the Devadasis reverence, as their special patroness and protectress, the goddess Rambha, one of the most beautiful dancers in the paradise of Indra. They bring a yearly offering in spring to her and to the god of love. The singing-girls who travel about the country are of an essentially different class from the Devadasis. They perform only at private feasts, entertain strangers in the *tchultris*, or public inns, and get different names according to the special arts in which they excel. Some of them live indepen in bands, consisting of from 10 to 12 persons. travel about the country, and divide their with the musicians who accompany them. are under the authority of *dayas*, or old women, who receive all the money they give the girls only enough for food an Some are really the slaves of such old wo have procured them in their infancy either — pu chase or by capture, and have instructed t their art. To one of these classes belong B. who visited several of the European cou 1839. The costume of the B. is not with tain alluring charm. Their dances do not what we are accustomed to call dan rather a species of pantomime, w h by the songs recited by the acc cians. The themes of these son happy or despairing love, jealousy, have spoken with much enthusiasm of of these pantomimes; but to judge by the perfo ances of the above-mentioned B. during their v to Europe, these descriptions must be looked very much exaggerated; for altho possessed great physical agility, were wanting in dignity and grace.

BAYARD, PIERRE DU TERRAIL, CHEVA knight *sans peur et sans reproche*, born 14 Bayard, near Grenoble, was perhaps of the middle ages who deserved praise and admiration bestowed upon h modest, a sterling friend, and tender humane, and magnanimous, he held together in a symmetrical union the whole circle of the virtu After acting as page to the Duke of Savoy, entered the service of Charles VIII., whom accompanied to Italy, and gained renown a battle of Verona, where he took a fr the enemy. At the beginning of Louis XII., B. was engaged in a batt where he followed the defeated and retreat with such impetuosity that he entered the them, and was made a prisoner, but the Duc vico Sforza released him without ransom. At letta, in 1502, B., with ten other French cav fought a tournament with an equal number Spaniards, in order to decide their respective cla to superiority; and although seven French were overthrown in the first charge, the ren chiefly through B.'s bravery, after a six hou combat, was declared equal. Next, we find h fighting bravely in Spain, and against the Gen and Venetians. When Pope Julius II. declar war against France, B. hastened to support th Duke of Ferrara; but failed in his scheme b making the pope a prisoner. Subsequ won fresh laurels in Spain. In the war a VIII. of England—who had threatened Picardy, besieged Terouane, in 1513—when French, one occasion, were about to lay down a made a sudden attack on an E pointing his sword at his breast, or I take your life.' The Eng sword to B., who returned his own, say Bayard, your prisoner; and you are a emperor and the king of England exch prisoners without any demand of ransom f When Francis I. had ascended the sent into Dauphiné to make a over the Alps and through expedition, he made Prosper (Next, B. gained, at Marignano, king, who, in consequence, submitted honour of knighthood from Bayard. When V. broke into Champagne, at the head of army, B. defended Mezieres against

on his entry into Paris, he was hailed as the saviour of his country, was made knight of the order of St Michael, and appointed over a company of 100 men, led in his own name, an honour which until then had been confined to princes of the blood-royal. He was slain by an arrow from an arquebuss, while crossing the Sesia, April 30, 1524. So highly was he esteemed for all noble qualities, that his death was lamented not only by the French king and nation, but also by his enemies. His love of virtue, especially of that kingliest of virtues, *justice*, was so passionate, that he was wont to declare that all empires, kingdoms, and provinces where justice did not rule, were mere forests filled with brigands. His body was taken by the enemy, but was restored to France, and interred in the church of the Minorites' monastery, near Grenoble.

BAYAZID, or **BAYEZEED**, a town of Turkish Armenia, in the pashalic of Erzeroum, from which place it is distant east-south-east about 150 miles. It is situated about 15 miles to the south-west of the foot of Mount Ararat; is fortified; and has a population of about 5000, mostly Kurds. Prior to 1830, its population was estimated at upwards of 15,000, and it had a brisk trade; but since that time, on account of Russian interference, its commerce and inhabitants have gradually decreased. Being near the Russian frontier, it has been the scene of several conflicts; during the Crimean campaign, the Russians gained a victory over the Turks here.

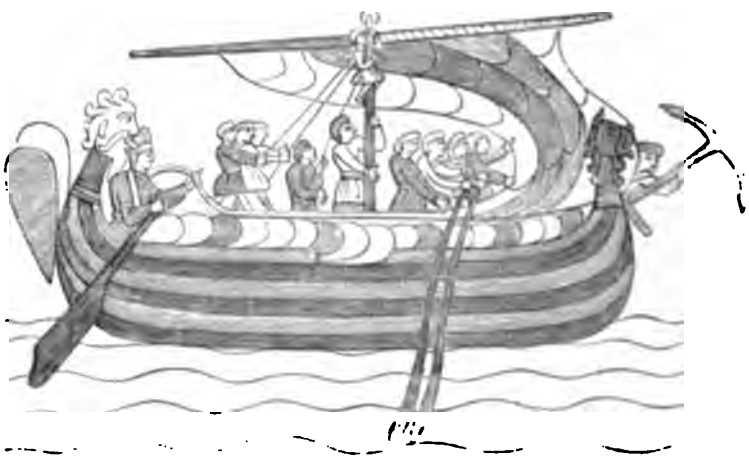
BAYAZID I. See BAJAZET.

BAYBERRY. See CANDLEBERRY.

BAYER, JOHANN, a German constructor of charts of the stars, was born, either at Augsburg or at Rhain, in Bavaria, in the latter part of the 16th c., and fulfilled the duties of a Protestant pastor in several places. His zeal for the Protestant Church was so conspicuous that he obtained the cognomen, *Os Protestantium* (the Mouth of Protestants); other accounts state that he was an advocate at Augsburg. It matters little which, as he is now remembered only on account of his *Uranometria* (1603, and 2d ed. 1639), in which he gave 51 maps of the heavens, constructed from the observations of his predecessors, and followed by explanations in his *Explicatio Characterum Encis Tabulis Inculptorum* (Stras. 1624). Although his maps are not remarkable for accuracy, even for his time, he has the merit of introducing the simple plan of distinguishing the stars of a constellation by means of letters. The largest star of the constellation he named by the first letter of the Greek alphabet (α), and the rest in the order of their apparent brilliancy, by the following letters. This convenient plan is still followed.

BAYEUX, a city of Normandy, in France, dep. Calvados, situated on the Aure, not far from its mouth. Pop. (1872) 7716. It is chiefly built of wood and plaster, is famous for its porcelain, and has also manufactories of lace, linen, calicoes, leather, and hats. It is a town of great antiquity its cathedral being said to be the oldest in Normandy. In it was preserved for centuries the famous Bayeux Tapestry (q. v.), now in the Hôtel de Ville of the place. It is the seat of a bishop, and has a college.

BAYEUX TAPESTRY, a web of canvas or linen cloth, 214 feet long by 20 inches wide, preserved in the public library, Bayeux, upon which is embroidered, in woollen thread of various colours,



Bayeux Tapestry.
Harold coming to anchor on the coast of Normandy.

a representation of the invasion and conquest of England by the Normans. Tradition asserts it to be the work of Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror, and it is believed that if she did not actually stitch the whole of it with her own hand, she at least took part in, and directed the execution of it by her maids, and afterwards presented it to the cathedral of Bayeux, as a token of her appreciation of the effective assistance which Odo, bishop, rendered to her husband at the battle of Hastings. Some antiquaries contend that it was the work not of Queen Matilda (the wife of the Conqueror), who died in 1083, but of the Empress Matilda (the daughter of King Henry I.), who died in 1167. According to Mr Bruce, the latest authority on the subject, the tapestry contains, besides the figures of 505 quadrupeds, birds, sphinxes, &c., 'the figures of 623 men, 202 horses, 55 dogs, 37 buildings, 41 ships and boats, and 49 trees—in all, 1512 figures.' The tapestry is divided into 72 distinct compartments, each representing one particular historical occurrence, and bearing an explanatory Latin inscription. A tree is usually chosen to divide the principal events from each other. This pictorial history (for so it may be called, and indeed, in several particulars, it is more minute than any written history we

have—opens with Harold, prior to his departure for Normandy, taking leave of Edward the

Bayeux Tapestry.
The crown offered to Harold by the people.

Confessor. Harold is next observed, accompanied by his attendants, riding to Bosham with his hawk and hounds; and he is afterwards seen, [illegible] embarking from the Sussex coast; [illegible] France and being made prisoner by [illegible] Ponthieu; redeemed by Willi[illegible] Duke [illegible] and meeting with him at [illegible]; against Conan, Earl of Br[illegible] sacred relics never to [illegible] succession to the Saxon th[illegible] re-embarking for England. The tap[illegible] represents Harold narrating [illegible] journey to Edward the Confessor, whose death [illegible] funeral obsequies we next see. Harold then [illegible] the crown from the Saxon people, and ascends [illegible] throne; and next we have the news brought [illegible] William, who takes counsel with his half-brother [illegible] Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, as to the [illegible] England. Then follow representations of the active war-preparations of the Normans; embarkation; disembarkation; march [illegible] and formation of a camp there; [illegible] death of Harold, with which the tapestry [illegible]

The B. T. gives an exact and minute picture of the manners and customs of the times; [illegible] been remarked that the arms and habits of the Normans are identical with those of the Danes, [illegible]

Bayeux Tapestry.—Battle of Hastings.

they appear in the miniature paintings of a manuscript of the time of King Cnut, preserved in the British Museum.

M. Lancelot appears to have been the first to direct attention to the existence of this curious monument, by a description of an illuminated drawing of a portion of it he had discovered, in a paper presented to the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres, in 1724. This led to the discovery of the tapestry itself, in the Bayeux Cathedral, by Père Montfaucon, who published an engraving of it in 1730, with a commentary on the Latin inscriptions. In 1767, Dr Ducarel gave an account of it in his *Anglo-Norman Antiquities*. From that time until 1803, when Napoleon had it conveyed to Paris, the B. T. excited little attention. Its exhibition, however, in the National Museum there awakened public curiosity concerning it, and gave rise to various speculations as to its age, intention, &c. The discussion satisfactorily established it to be what tradition asserted it – a contemporary pictorial record of the events of the Norman Conquest. The Society of Antiquaries (London) published an engraving of the whole in the sixth volume of the *Vetusta Monumenta*. The B. T. would have been destroyed at the Revolution, had not a priest fortunately succeeded in concealing it from the mob, who demanded it to cover the guns. It was formerly preserved in the cathedral of Bayeux, where it was wont to be exhibited, on certain days every year, in the nave of the church, round which it exactly went. Bruce's *Bayeux Tapestry Elucidated* (London, 1856); *Archæologia*, vols. xvii., xviii., xix.; *Vetusta Monumenta*, vol. vi.; *Pictorial History of England*.

BAYLE, Pierre, one of the most independent thinkers in the 17th c., was born in 1647 at Carlat in the old county of Foix, France, and s[illegible] sophy under the Jesuits at Toulouse. The [illegible] of his tutors, but especially his fr[illegible]lv[illegible] and quiet disputation with a Cathol[illegible] lived in his neighbourhood, led h[illegible] orthodoxy of Protestantism, and [illegible] so far that he openly renounced his father's and adopted the Catholic one. In the course of a 17 months, however, the conversation of his tives brought him back to the Protestant profes To escape ecclesiastical censure, he now went Geneva, and thence to Coppet, where he s[illegible] philosophy of Descartes. After a few [illegible] returned to France, and in 1675 was [illegible] chair of philosophy in the unive[illegible] of this office he remained until 168[illegible], [illegible] sity was disfranchised. His next appoint[illegible] that of professor of philosophy at Rotter[illegible] appearance of a comet in 1680 having given sion to a widely spread alarm, B., in 1682, publ[illegible] his *Pensées Diverses sur la Comète*, a work learning, and treating, in discursive sty topics of metaphysics, ethics, theology, his politics. This was followed by his *Critique de l'Histoire du Calvinisme de Maimb* 1684, he commenced a periodical, *N[illegible] République des Lettres*. The rel[illegible] in France gave B. occasion to wri[illegible] *Philosophique sur ces Paroles de l[illegible] trains les d'entrer*,' which pro[illegible] a translation from the E[illegible] and a strong defence of the [illegible] tole[illegible]

consequence of the accusations brought forward by the theologian, Jurieu, who regarded B. as an agent of France, and the enemy of Protestants. B., though he skilfully defended himself, was deprived of his licence to teach (in 1693). He now assiduously devoted his leisure to the *Dictionnaire Historique et Critique* (1st edition, 2 vols. Rotterd., 1696 - last edition, 16 vols., Paris, 1820). This was the first work published under his own name. Again Jurieu came forward as B.'s adversary, and induced the consistory of Rotterdam to censure the Dictionary, chiefly on account of the supposed irreligious tendency of the article on 'David,' and the commendation bestowed on the moral character of certain atheists. B. promised to expunge all the objectionable matter; but afterwards, when he found that the public entertained a different and more favourable opinion of the peculiar passages than the Rotterdam Consistory, he judged it best to allow them to remain as they were, or made only slight alterations. New opponents were called into the arena by his *Réponse aux Questions d'un Provincial*, and the continuation of his *Pensées sur la Comète*. Jacquelot and Leclerc now attacked his religious opinions, while others persecuted him as the enemy of Protestantism and of his adopted country, Holland. These literary and theological controversies had a bad effect on his failing health, and a disease, for which he refused to employ medical aid, proved fatal. He died, December 28, 1706.

B. stands at the head of modern sceptics and logicians. Accustomed to view every question scrupulously on all sides, he was apparently led to doubt on religious matters generally; at least, it is not to be denied that his scepticism carried him the length of doubting the worth or the wisdom of the religious dogmatism that ruled both Catholics and Protestants in his day. B. was thus the antithesis of a bigot, but his hostility to bigotry rather originated in his indifference to the doctrines about which theologians quarrelled, than in any clear or high perception of the iniquity of religious persecution. With great eloquence and persistency, he vindicated the doctrine that moral characteristics and convictions may exist and flourish independently of particular religious opinions; and considering the barbarous manner in which the rival churches in B.'s time sought to enforce conformity of sentiment, and crush the liberty of private judgment, it is not to be wondered at that this doctrine, however objectionable abstractly, should have found a wide acceptance in Europe. Voltaire calls him 'a more admirable logician than a profound philosopher;' and adds that 'he knew almost nothing of physics.' This probably means no more than that he was ignorant of the then recent discoveries of Newton; for the scientific articles in the Dictionary presuppose a knowledge of the theories of Descartes (q. v.), with which he was conversant enough. The style of B. is clear and natural, but diffuse, and often impure. The articles in the Dictionary seem to have been chosen merely as vehicles to introduce numerous digressions in notes, many of which are prolix and uninteresting; but the greater number of the articles are characterised by good sense, logic, critical acumen, and great learning. Though it is impossible to detect the presence of a religious or a philosophical system in the work, it everywhere gives indications of the high intelligence, honest principle, and universal knowledge of the author. It was proscribed both in France and Holland, and was consequently very widely diffused in both countries, and has exercised an immense influence over the literature and philosophy of the continent. It was the dawn of scepticism in the 18th c., and may be historically regarded as the protest of the enlightened human intellect against the irrational dogmatism of the churches. In his personal character, B. was amiable, obliging, disinterested, and modest, but at the same time morally courageous and independent. His *Œuvres Diverses* were published in four volumes at the Hague, 1725 - 1731. See life of B. by Des Maizeaux (Amsterdam, 1712).

BAYLEN, a town in the province of Andalusia, Spain, situated 22 miles north-north-east of Jaen. It has manufactures of linen, glass, bricks, tiles, soap, &c. Pop. 4976. B. is celebrated as the place where the Spaniards won their first and only victory over the French in July 1808, and that more by accident, and the errors of the French commander, Dupont, than by good generalship on their part. About 18,000 French soldiers laid down their arms at B., the only condition being, that they should be sent to France; and other detachments of French troops afterwards offered their submission. The Spaniards, however, basely broke faith with them, and sent them to the hulks at Cadiz. The capitulation had the worst effect on the French arms. Joseph Bonaparte at once fled from Madrid, and Napoleon could find no words strong enough to express his indignation at the folly and pusillanimity of the surrender.

BAYONET, supposed to be named from Bayonne, as the place of its invention, is a dagger or small spear fixed at the end of a musket or similar weapon. The first bayonets, used in France in 1671, called *bayonets-à-manche*, had handles which fitted into the muzzle of the guns; but at a later date were introduced the *bayonets-à-douille*, or socket-bayonets, having a socket which enabled the B. so to be used as not to interrupt the firing. The use of pikes went out when that of bayonets came in. It seems very probable that the first B. was a dagger, which the musket carried by means of its handle into the muzzle of his weapon, to shield him from a cavalry charge; and that the usefulness of the contrivance suggested a permanent arrangement. Bayonets are now made with great rapidity at the government rifle factory at Enfield. Two pieces of metal are first selected viz., a piece of the very best cast steel, 7 inches long by ¾ inch square; and a piece of the best wrought-iron rod, 4 inches long by about 1 inch in thickness. The steel is to form the blade, and the iron, the socket handle. The steel being properly shaped at one end, is joined to the iron by welding. A forging machine is next employed to give a rough outline of the required shape. Then comes the action of a swaging-machine, with dies which come down upon the metal in great force, and counter dies beneath the metal. The metal is then annealed; turned in a cutting machine, to remove a wire edge thrown up in the act of stamping; cut to a proper length, and the socket end made square; drilled and bored, to make the socket hollow; shaped and furrowed along the blade; bent at the neck, hardened and tempered; and finished by a numerous train of minor operations. The Bayonet-charge is now one of the most terrible manœuvres of trained infantry, in which combination fences itself to excel all others.

BAYONNE, one of the most strongly fortified towns of France, in the department of the Basses-Pyrénées, situated at the confluence of the Adour and Nive, about 3 miles from the mouth of their united waters in the Bay of Biscay. These rivers divide the town into three parts—Great and Little B., and the suburb of St Esprit. Population in 1872, 17,977. B. is beautifully situated at the foot of the Pyrenees, and is itself a handsome place. It has extensive shipyards, rope-walks, glass-

manufactories, sugar-refineries, and distilleries, and a brisk export trade in hams, for which it is famous, chocolate, liqueurs, timber, tar, and cork. Its chief imports are wool, olive-oil, and liquorice. It is the see of a bishop, has a cathedral, a mint, and schools of commerce and navigation. B. is also historically interesting. It is said that here Catharine de' Medici and the Duke of Alba planned the massacre of the Huguenots, which took place on St Bartholomew's Day, 1572. Here the great Napoleon cozened Charles IV. out of the crown of Spain, after he had ineffectually endeavoured to get Ferdinand VII., to whom Charles had previously resigned it, to give it up. The forcing of the passage of the Nive, immediately in this vicinity, by the British, in December 1813, occasioned some of the most bloody conflicts of the Peninsular campaign. The place was invested by the British early in the following year, and a sally from it by the French, in April 14, was only repulsed after great loss on the side of the British. B. is also famous as the place where the bayonet was invented about the year 1670.

BAY'-SALT is a name applied to common salt which is obtained from sea-water by solar evaporation. It is extensively obtained from *salt-marshes* which exist along the coasts of France and on the shores of the Mediterranean. See SALT.

BAY-WI'NDOW, or (corruptly) **BOW-WI'NDOW**, a window peculiar to Gothic architecture, so called because it forms a *bay* or projecting space outwards from a room. The external walls of bay-windows are, for the most part, either rectangular or polygonal, the semicircular form from which the term *bow* was probably derived having been unknown previously to the introduction of the debased Gothic.

Bay-Window, at Compton, Wingate, Warwickshire.

Though mentioned by Chaucer, bay-windows are not found in any of the styles before the perpendicular, during the prevalence of which they were frequently introduced, particularly in halls. Bay-windows generally reach to the floor, and are frequently supplied with a seat, which is called the *bay-stall*. There are many very beautiful examples of bay windows in the colleges and halls of Oxford and Cambridge. When used in upper stories, such windows are supported on corbels, or large projecting mouldings. S. ORIEL.

BAZA (the *Basti* of the Romans), a town of Spain, in the province of Granada, and about 50 miles east-north-east of the city of that name. It is on a rich plain, is generally ill-built and irregular, with no feature of architectural interest. Population about 11,000, who are chiefly engaged in agricultural pursuits, but who also manufacture to some extent hats, linens, and earthenware. B. is famous for its red wines; and its women, according to Fa are among the prettiest in Spain. In early was a place of considerable note, and many of antiquity are still found in its vicinity. Isabella captured it from the Moors, after a two months' siege, and some of the rough iron cann used by her army still ornament the town. November 1810, the Spaniards, under Blake a Freire, were beaten in front of B. by the Fren under Soult.

BAZA'R, or **BAZAA'R**, an oriental place, either open or covered, where various including slaves, are exposed for sale, and eastern merchants meet for transaction of bu as on 'Change or at the Bourse in England a France. The B. of Ispahan is one of the mo splendid, and that of Tauris is the largest. London, Paris, and other European cities, seve places opened for the sale of various artic (chiefly fancy goods) are now styled bazars.

BAZARD, AMAND, the founder of Fren Carbonarism (q. v.), and subsequently an earnest d ciple of St Simon, was born at Paris on the of September 1791. After the Restorati with several other 'patriots,' he establ the disguise of freemasonry, the ... society of the 'Friends of Virtue;' and in concert with his friends Dugied and Joub had brought from Naples the statutes of the ... tion of Italian Carbonari, he founded a se association in France, which in the course of a ye had extended over the departments, and contain 200,000 members. He was the leading conspirat in the 'plot of Befort,' which, however, proved failure, and nearly cost him his life. A time, a change passed over Bazard. E seems to have taught him the worthlessness ... political agitation and reform. Impressed w narrow and one-sided character of common racy, and the necessity of a total reconstruc the conditions of society, before any radical impr ments could become possible, he attached himse the school of St Simon, and along with Enfantin undertook to elaborate the theoretical and speculative portion of the system. In 1825, he became on of the editors of a St Simonian journal, termed *L Producteur*. In 1828, he delivered at Paris a series of prelections on his politico-religious creed, wh met with extraordinary success. His soci views were afterwards published in the *d'œuvre* of the sect, *Exposition of the Doctrine ... Simon* (1828—1830), of which only the first was by B., the second, containing the prin of the new social religion, being the composition Enfantin. After the July revolution, a larger s was afforded to the St Simonians. The masses wer attracted by the flattering doctrine, that 'all soci institutions ought to have for their ... intellectual, and physical amelior... in a short time, B. and his ... 'created a new society, living in the old,' with peculiar laws, manners, ... But B.'s connection with it was of sh tion. He differed from Enfantin on the d a 'community of wives,' and in Novembe seceded in disgust. His efforts to found a ... his own proved unsuccessful, and duri ... discussion with his former friend ... struck with apoplexy, from the ... never recovered. He died at C ... fermeil, on the 29th July 1832.

BAZOCHE, or BASOCHE, a l ... of translation into French of the L ... i. e., royal palace. When the

ceased to be the grand council of the king, and confined itself exclusively to administering justice, a distinction of name necessarily sprang up between those noblemen who formed the royal train and the *habitués* of the court of justice. The former were called *courtiers;* the latter, *basochians*, or parliamentary clerks. But inasmuch as the word *basilica* necessarily presupposed a king, the *basochians*, to keep up their dignity, gathered round a mock one of their own making, who resided at the Château des Tournelles or the Hôtel St Pol, just as the courtiers did round the reality at the Louvre. Such was the origin of the Basochian king and kingdom. Their historical existence can be traced to the beginning of the 14th c., when Philip the Fair conferred on the brotherhood certain privileges. The principal authorities in this harmless monarchy, after the sovereign himself, were, the chancellor, the masters of requests, the referendary, and the attorney-general. Henry III. suppressed the title of king, and conferred all the privileges and rights attached to that office on the chancellor. Still the B. continued to exist as a kingdom, minus its head, and affected on all occasions the language of royalty. Its jurisdiction included the consideration and decision of all processes and debates that arose among the clerks. It administered justice twice a week, and also caused a species of coin to be struck which had currency among its members; but if we are to judge from the proverb about *la monnaie de basoche*, it did not enjoy an immense credit in the outer world of hard cash. The mock-monarch also possessed the extensive privilege of selecting at his pleasure, yearly, from the French royal forests, a tall tree, which his subjects, the clerks, were in the habit of planting, on the 1st of May, before the grand court of the palace, to the sound of tambourines and trumpets. But this was not all. In the public sports, this fantastical little kingdom was worthily honoured; its chancellor had rooms at the Hôtel de Bourgogne; at the carnival, the *basochians* joined themselves to the corps of the Prince of Fools, and to the performers of low farces and 'mysteries.' They acted in their turn a species of satirical 'morality' (q. v.), in which they made extensive use of the liberty granted to them, in ridiculing vices and the favourites of fortune. Of course, they could not fail to provoke enmity and occasion serious scandal. Louis XII. patronised these amusements. In 1500, he gave the brotherhood of the B. permission to perform plays in the grand saloon of the royal palace. Francis I. witnessed them in 1538; but in 1540, they were interdicted as incorrigible. This interdict only applied to those of Paris, for several years after, we read of the Basochian farces of Bordeaux. In their later development, they seem to have resembled the *Fastnachtspiele* (Shrove-Tuesday Spectacles), so popular in Germany both before and after the Reformation. They were the beginning of French comedy.

BDELLIUM, a gum-resin, resembling myrrh (q. v.) in appearance and qualities, but weaker, and at the same time more acrid. High medicinal virtues were ascribed to it by the ancients, but it is now little used. It is supposed to be the produce of *Balsamodendron Roxburghii* in India, and of *B. Africanum* (also called *Hedelotia Africana*) in Senegal trees or shrubs belonging to the natural order *Amyridaceæ* (q. v.), so remarkable for the number of similar substances which it produces.—EGYPTIAN B., however, is obtained from the Doom (q. v.) palm, *Hyphæne Thebaica*. A substance is yielded also by *Cerachis* . — ous plant of the natural or —siting the most sterile regions of Africa;

whilst the SICILIAN B., formerly used in medicine, is produced by *Daucus gummifer*, a species of the same genus to which the carrot belongs, growing on the coasts of the Mediterranean. The B. mentioned in Gen. ii. 12 is probably not a gum-resin at all; but what it is, is uncertain.

BEACHES, RAISED. Modern geology teaches that the frame of the land is liable to risings and depressions, even in the present age. Several districts in different parts of the world have been raised, in consequence of earthquakes, within the remembrance of the present generation. There is good proof that certain parts of Eastern Sweden, bordering on the Gulf of Bothnia, have been elevated about three feet within the last hundred years. These facts prepare us to learn that, around the British Islands, and in other parts of the earth, there are tracts of ground at various elevations above the present sea-level, which have evidently been sea-B. at a former time. The evidences consist of, first, the levelness of the ground in the general direction of the present shores over considerable spaces; second, the alternating beds of sand and gravel, such as we see composing the present B.; and, third, the presence of marine shells, which, in our country, are generally of species now living in the boreal seas. There are also what may be called terraces of erosion-indentations made in a rocky coast by the lip of the sea in ancient times usually consisting of a flat platform presenting patches of gravel, and of a backing wall or sea-cliff, the latter sometimes penetrated with deep caves. In Scotland, there is a very decided terrace of erosion all round the bold coasts of the West Highlands and Western Islands, at an elevation of about 25 feet above the level of the similar, but scarcely so well-marked indentation which the sea is now making. In Lapland, there is a similar terrace, but stooping from 220 to 85 feet in the course of thirty miles. There is also a clear and well-marked terrace of the same kind, at about 520 feet above the present sea-level, behind Trondhjem in Norway. The whole subject is treated elaborately in *Ancient Sea-margins*, by R. Chambers, 1848, where a series of gravelly terraces are described as existing in Scotland at various heights above the sea, telling of an uprise of the frame of the land in stages, and indicating by their uniformity of level that this movement was equable.

BEACHY HEAD, the loftiest headland on the south coast of England, projecting into the English Channel, 2¼ miles south-south-west of Eastbourne, Sussex. It consists of perpendicular chalk-cliffs, 564 feet high, forming the east end of the South Downs. Several caverns have been cut out in the rock, for shipwrecked seamen to take refuge in; but shipwrecks have been far fewer since 1828, when the Bell Tout Light-house was built here. This light-house is 285 feet above the sea, in lat. 50° 44′ 24″ N., long. 0° 12′ 42″ E., and is seen above 20 miles off. The view from B. H., in clear weather, extends to Hastings, the Isle of Wight, and France. The cliffs are the resort of myriads of sea-fowl. Off this point, the French fleet beat the combined English and Dutch fleets in 1690.

BEACON (allied to *beck* or *beckon*, to give a signal) denotes any signal set upon a height, but especially the alarm-fires at one time used to spread the intelligence of foreign invasion or other great event. These fire-signals were in use in the earliest times, and notices of them are found in the literary remains of ancient Persia, Palestine, and Greece. They were made by kindling a pile or bale of wood on the tops of lofty mountains, and keeping the flame bright by night, or having the fire so covered

persons in estimating the distance at which the blaze could be seen from distant mountains.

BEA'CON, in maritime affairs, is a signal for warning against dangers, or for indicating the proper entrance into a channel, harbour, or river. Generally speaking, a B. is fixed; whereas a *buoy* floats. The power of constructing these beacons rested at one time in the sovereign; but in 1565 an act of parliament empowered the Trinity House corporation to erect them on such parts of the sea-coast and forelands as appeared to be most in want of those safeguards; and tolls were levied on the maritime counties for their maintenance. In recent times, the construction of *floating* beacons has occupied a good deal of attention, as it is conceived that they might in many cases supply the place of much more costly light-houses. Messrs Brown and Lenox have constructed for the Trinity Board a B. for the Goodwin Sands—comprising a hollow wrought-iron floating vessel, with 6 water-tight compartments; a tower 28 feet high, tapering in diameter from 7 to 3½ feet; and a ball at the top of 3½ feet diameter. This B. was visible from a

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Law, c.
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parishioners assembled in vestry.'

BEADS, a variety of pers
various materials, as glass
ivory, wood, jet, amber. co and
so that they can be str
necklaces, bracelets.
cloth as a kind of
antiquity, for they
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are still found in consi
highly valued by the
'Aggry' beads. Ever
manufacture of glass beads ha
by the Venetians, and the gla
Murano still produce fully nine-

number of these shorter rods are placed on a sharp cutting edge, after being annealed, and are chopped into lengths. The roughly cut beads are next mixed very thoroughly with fine sand and ashes, then put into a metal cylinder over a brisk fire, and turned round rapidly as they begin to soften with the heat. They are then agitated in water, which cleans away the sand and ashes, and leaves the holes free, after which they are strung.

BEADS, St Cuthbert's, a title popularly given to the single joints of the articulated stems of Encrinites (q. v.). The central perforation permitted them to be strung as beads; and from the fancied resemblance, in some species, of this perforation to a cross, they were formerly used as rosaries, and associated with the name of St Cuthbert:

> On a rock by Lindisfarn
> St Cuthbert sits, and toils to frame
> The sea-born beads that bear his name.

They are also known as Entrochites, or wheel-stones.

BEA'GLE, a small variety of hound, formerly much used in England for hare-hunting. It has now been almost wholly superseded by the Harrier (q. v.), to which its name is also sometimes given. The true B. is smaller than the harrier, not above ten or eleven inches in height at the shoulder, sometimes considerably smaller, stout and compact in make, with long pendulous ears, smooth-haired, sometimes dark-brown, with a streak or spot of white about

Beagle.

the neck, sometimes white with black or reddish spots. There appears to have been also a rough-haired variety. The B. is remarkable for its exquisite scent and perseverance; and although much distanced by the hare at first, is almost sure to kill it. It was customary in England, in former times, when beagles were used, to follow the chase on foot, a hunting-pole being employed to assist in leaping. During the chase, the B. gives utterance to a cry which has been regarded as particularly musical; and Queen Elizabeth had little 'singing-beagles,' one of which could be placed in a man's glove. The smaller breeds were preferred, perhaps, at first, for the prolongation of the chase; and the diminutive size of a pack or 'cry' of beagles became a boast. The smallest are sometimes called *lap-dog beagles*. The origin of the name B. is uncertain.

BEAK. See Bill.

BEA'KED, BECQUE. When the beak of a fowl is of a different tincture from the body, it is then said, in heraldry, to be beaked of such a tincture. If its legs are of the same tincture, it is then beaked, and membered so and so. In place of B., Guillim commonly says 'armed.'

BEA'KER, a term formerly in use, signifying a kind of drinking-bowl or cup, derived from the same root as the German *becher*, the Italian *bicchiere*, or the barbarous Latin *baccarium*. The Scotch call a hooped wooden dish a 'bicker.'

BEAM (Ger. *baum*, Dut. *boom*, Ang.-Sax. *beam*, signify 'a tree'), any piece of wood, long like a tree. In the arts, the word has many special technical applications. It is the name, for instance, for three parts of a weaving-loom (q. v.), for a part of the balance (q. v.), and for a part of the steam-engine (q. v.). In ship-building (q. v.), it is applied to any of the transverse pieces of framing extending across the hull. In ship measurement, it means breadth at the wales. See Tonnage. B., in engineering, is a strong stay of wood or of iron, for supporting lateral pressure. See Strength of Materials.

BEAM, of a ship, is one of the main timbers which aid in supporting the decks. Beams stretch across from side to side, aiding to strengthen and uphold the sides of the hull as well as the decks; and they are themselves supported at the ends by massive pieces, called knees, standards, and clamps. Each is made of one fine piece of timber, if possible; but if the length be too great for this, two or more timbers are scarfed together. Wherever it is practicable, the beams are upheld at or near the middle by pillars. In the *Great Eastern* steam-ship, the beams are of iron, and, like most other parts of the vessel, are cellular in construction. In the old timber-built sailing ships-of-war, now rapidly becoming obsolete, the *lock-head* B. was the broadest in the ship; the *midship* was the longest; the *orlop* was that which supported the orlop deck, and strengthened the hold. The old 74-gun ships had each 24 beams under the lower deck. Many of these characteristics still prevail; but others have given way to change, owing to the increased length of war-steamers, and to the necessity of making room for the machinery. The beams of all ships are generally made deeper in the middle than at the ends, in order that the decks supported by them may have a slight convexity on the upper surface, to carry off the rain-water readily, and to lessen the recoil of the guns.

The position of the beams, stretching across a ship at right angles to the direction of the keel, has given origin to many technical phrases used on shipboard. 'On the starboard B.' is applied to any distant point out at sea, at right angles to the keel, and on the starboard or right hand as viewed from the stern—side of the ship. 'On the larboard B.' similarly applies to the left hand. 'On the weather B.' is that side of the ship which receives or is towards the wind. 'Before the B.' is the bearing of any object when seen more in advance than *on* the beam. 'Abaft the B.' is the reverse of the expression just noted. 'On her Beam-ends' is applied to the position of a ship when so much inclined to one side that the beams become nearly vertical.

BEA'MING is a handicraft process in the cloth-manufacture preliminary to weaving, and was formerly done by the weaver himself; but it has long since become a special employment, followed by workmen trained to the business as beamers, and, like hand weaving, is tending to extinction by machinery warping and beaming, in weaving by power, being conjoined into one operation. See Weaving. B. is simply the art of winding the web on the weaver's beam in a manner suitable for weaving the two essential requirements being firmness in the winding on of the web sufficient to withstand the reaction of weaving, and evenness in the spreading of the yarn at the required width. This is effected by what is called a beaming machine, which is simply a kind of roller-mill, extending from end to end of the beamer's shop. The weaver's beam, on which the web is to be wound, is set horizontally on two upright standards

at the one end of the shop, and at the other end there is a friction-roller, set likewise level in a heavy frame, fixed to the floor, on which the web is wound like a rope, with the thrum-end out.

The number of pins or strands in the web being known, the beamer has merely to take a ravel (a comb-like utensil) with the corresponding number of teeth in the breadth required for the web, and filling each tooth successively with its respective pin, the spreading is completed; and the web being attached to the beam, the winding on of the web is a common crane operation, in which the tension on the yarn is regulated by the friction on the friction-roller. The beamer may thus beam for 400 weavers. The price of beaming a web varies from 3*d*., to perhaps 8*d*. or 10*d*.

BEAM-TREE, White (*Pyrus Aria*, see Pyrus), a tree of 20—40 feet in height, a native of almost all parts of Europe and of corresponding climates in Asia, not uncommon in the mountainous districts of Britain, and frequently planted. It has been variously referred by botanists to several allied genera, *Sorbus*, *Crataegus*, and *Mespilus*. It has a straight erect trunk, and a round or oval head; the leaves are ovate, cut and serrated (in some varieties, deeply loped), white and downy beneath; the flowers in large terminal corymbs; the fruit scarlet, of the size of small peas. The fruit is acid and astringent, but becomes agreeable by incipient decay; it is sometimes called Sorb or Service-berry, and resembles the true Service (q. v.) in quality, although much smaller. Beer is made of it by fermentation. The wood is very hard and fine-grained; it is used for cogs for the wheels of machinery. The whiteness of the foliage makes the tree—sparingly introduced—ornamental in plantations.

BEAN (*Faba*), a genus of plants of the natural order Leguminosæ, sub-order *Papilionaceæ*, included by Linnæus and many other botanists in the genus *Vicia* (see Vetch), from which it is distinguished chiefly by the leathery tumid pods, spongy within, and by the large scar on the end of the seed.—The Common B. (*F. vulgaris*, *Vicia Faba* of Linnæus) is

Bean leaves and flower.

somewhat doubtfully supposed to be a native of the borders of the Caspian Sea; it has been in cultivation from remote antiquity in Europe as well as in Asia. It is an annual plant, generally [illegible] two to four feet high, with thick angular [illegible] leaves with 2—5 oval leaflets, and dest[illegible] tendrils. The pods are thick, long, and [illegible] within; the seeds more or less ovate. The flowers, which are almost wi[illegible] ordinarily white, with a black spot [illegible] the wing: but there is a variety [illegible] entirely white, and another in which [illegible] scarlet. The flowers are deliciously fragrant. [illegible] alludes to this in the lines—

> The zephyr wantoned round the bean,
> And bore its fragrant sweets along.

A field of beans perfumes the summer [illegible] considerable distance. The varieties an[illegible] in cultivation are very numerous. d[illegible] size and form of the seed, the colo[illegible] the period which they require [illegible] height, the stem in some unbranche[illegible] divided at the base into a number of st[illegible] pods in some mostly solitary, in others [illegible] &c. The B. is cultivated both in fields [illegible] and the seeds (beans) are used for foo[illegible] also for making a sort of meal for huma[illegible] in a green state are put into broths or boiled [illegible] table. They are very nutritious, con[illegible] ripe about 36 per cent. of starch, and [illegible] legumine, a nitrogenous substance analog[illegible] caseine of milk. Whether for man or for [illegible] however, they particularly require to be mixed [illegible] other food. The straw is used for fodder, an[illegible] very nutritious when cut before it is fully ripe. B. succeeds best on a dry and moderately rich [illegible] A well-drained clay is very suitable for it. [illegible] ing and deeply penetrating root unfits it [illegible] soils. The varieties of B. preferred for [illegible] are generally much larger, both plant [illegible] than those cultivated in the field. The Winds[illegible] has seeds of a flattened, almost circular shape, [illegible] an inch in diameter; whilst those of the [illegible] or Tick B., cultivated as a field-crop, [illegible] more than half an inch in length, [illegible] three-eighths of an inch in bread[illegible] in Britain, are usually sown in [illegible] feet or more apart; and sowi[illegible] ent dates, that there may be [illegible] beans for culinary use. The [illegible]dson, Le[illegible] and Early Mazagan, are [illegible] most [illegible] garden varieties.

The roots of the B. are diuretic, and a decoction of them has been used with advantage in cases of dropsy.

B. crops are very liable to be inju[illegible] by a [illegible] of Aphis (q. v.), *A. Fabæ*, somet[illegible] [illegible] colour the Collier Aphis, and s[illegible] Dolphin Fly, which destroys [illegible] renders the plants incapable of [illegible] amount of seeds to perfect[illegible]. [illegible] remedy known is to cut [illegible] [illegible] of which are always first [illegible]d. [illegible] Aphis appears, and so to [illegible] The *topping* of beans is re[illegible]ed by, as a good practice, even [illegible] of the Aphis.

The Kidney B. (q. v.), [illegible] *vulgaris*), is an entirely [illegible] Common Bean.

BEAN, in Agricultu[illegible] to a small extent at lea[illegible] Palestine and Egypt. [illegible] Fabii are said to have [illegible]d plant. It requires a [illegible] the bean in perfecti[illegible]and [illegible] entering into a [illegible] soils of the [illegible]

maize into the south of Europe, the land under this plant has been considerably restricted. The maize thrives better, and is far more productive than the B., in warm climates. In the north of Europe, too, the potato, flax, beet, and other fallow crops are more productive and certain. Indeed, the high summer temperature of the continents of Europe and America is by no means favourable to the growth of the bean. In the west of England, the summers are rather too moist for its yielding its seeds in abundance. The straw and haulm are apt to be developed too much, and the blossoms do not set well. Beans are largely cultivated on all the better descriptions of clay soils in the eastern counties, such as Kent and Suffolk. The variety most generally grown there is the *Common Tick or Field B.*, having much resemblance to the *Scotch or Horse Bean*.

The modes of cultivation are very various, and a large breadth is still sown broad-cast. The great objection to this mode is the liability of weeds to spring up and check the growth of the crop. Beans are considered one of the fallow crops; but the soil, after it has borne a crop of beans, is little fitted for a cereal crop, unless it has been hoed and kept clean in summer. To effect this end, beans are usually sown in rows, and hoed during their early growth either by the hand or horse hoe. In preparing the land for a bean crop in England, the stubble, after being liberally dressed with farm-yard manure in autumn, receives a deep furrow, so as to expose the soil to the winter frosts. The surface is then scarified, and after being harrowed, the beans are sown in drills of 18 inches in width, at the rate of 3 to 3½ bushels per acre. The sowing begins as soon after the month of January as the soil admits of the necessary operations, and may be practised up to the middle of March. The earlier the crop is put in, the better in general is the chance of its being productive. The greater liability of the eastern counties to drought, renders the crop more subject to the attacks of insects, such as the 'black dolphin,' or *B. Aphis*, which usually makes its appearance as soon as the plant suffers from the want of moisture. For this reason, the B. crop is rather an uncertain one in the climate of the eastern counties, and other crops are gradually encroaching on the breadth which it used to occupy. The Russian or winter beans are sown in these counties to some extent in autumn, and from ripening earlier, often escape the attacks of vermin, and suffer less from the drought.

Perhaps East Lothian is as favourable, in respect both of soil and climate, to the cultivation of the field bean, as any part of Europe. The summers are comparatively cool, and the rains generally moderate, and pretty well diffused over the growing season. The crops are less liable to depredations of the 'black dolphin,' and the long period over which the growth of the plant is extended, is favourable to large crops. Sometimes the crop is sown broad-cast, when the land is clean and well manured; and it is said that as large crops have been raised in this way as by sowing in rows. The produce by this mode of cultivation, however, is much more irregular, and the land is often left in a foul condition. Drilling is therefore the general practice in cultivating this crop in the Lothians. The stubble is usually manured and ploughed in autumn, and when the weather admits, in spring it is ploughed again, and the beans are sown by a small machine in every third furrow; or the land is merely ploughed in autumn, and formed into drills or ridges by the double mould-board plough in spring. Into these the farm-yard manure is put and spread, and the beans are sown above it either broad-cast or by a three-barrelled machine. The seed is then covered by the double-moulded plough, as in the planting of potatoes. By this mode, the plants receive a plentiful supply of nutriment in their early stages of growth. When land is out of condition, or when the crop is sown upon lighter and inferior descriptions of soil, this is perhaps the most advisable method to follow. Mr Hope, during his tenancy of Fentonbarns, introduced the English method of cultivation into East Lothian. The stubble is dunged and ploughed in autumn, and as soon as the land is dry in spring, about 3 bushels of beans are drilled, 18 inches apart, by means of Garrett's machine. As soon as the crop appears above ground, Garrett's lever horse-hoe is put over the ground, to stir the surface, and keep it free from weeds. During the spring and early summer, the horse and hand hoeing are repeated as often as it is deemed advisable, until the crop covers in the land by its abundant foliage, and keeps down all weeds. Mr Hope's experiments indicated that the yield of grain is greater by the narrow than by wide drilling.

In England, the crops of beans vary from 20 to 40 bushels per acre; but in dry and warm seasons, the produce often falls below the first-named quantity. The weight per bushel is from 60 to 64 lbs. On some of the best soils in Fife, and in the Lothians, as many as 60 bushels per acre are obtained in favourable seasons, and the weight of the bushel is sometimes as much as 66 lbs. In Scotland, the straw is more abundant than in England. It forms good fodder both for cattle and horses, as well as supplying material for the dung-heap. Beans are usually cut by the sickle, allowed to lie a few days unbound to winnow, and when bound, put up into *stacks*. In late seasons, when there has been a considerable growth of leaves, they are often long before they are ready for carrying to the stack. Notwithstanding the relatively high price of beans, the breadth under this crop has been diminishing also in Scotland. It is said that the draining of the soil has not been so beneficial to the B. as to other crops. The greater returns which the land gives under potatoes in the B. soils of Fife and the Lothians since the opening of the railways, has encroached upon the extent formerly assigned to it in the six-course rotation. In the Carse of Stirling and Falkirk, it retains its hold much better, and forms the chief preparation for the wheat-crop. The field B. is now little used as an article of human food. It is considered to be specially adapted for the feeding of horses which are subjected to hard work. For this purpose, it is usually roughly ground, and mixed with a little bran. In the winter season, a portion is often boiled, and given to them at night. When the price is moderate, a mixture of ground beans and oilcake, or husked, is much esteemed for milch cows, as well as for fattening cattle and sheep. Special or light manures are less applied to the B. crop than to any other. In many instances, nitrate of soda and sulphate of lime have been used with advantage, but farm-yard manure is almost essential to its free growth.

BEAN-CAPER. See ZYGOPHYLLACEÆ.

BEAN GOOSE. See GOOSE.

BEAN-KING'S FESTIVAL, a social rite principally observed in France, from which country it would seem to have been transplanted to Germany. On the evening of Twelfth Day (q. v.), or, as the Germans call it (in allusion to the legend, that the wise men of the East who came to worship Christ were three kings), Three Kings' Day (*Dreikonigstag*), companies assemble to spend a few hours in mirthful relaxation. A large cake is baked, with a bean hidden somewhere in it. The cake is then divided

into pieces, each person present receiving one, and whoever obtains the piece with the bean is king for the year. In this capacity, he holds a mock-court, and receives the homage of the company, who also amuse themselves with other diversions. The Bean King, however, is compelled to pay for his dignity, for he has to give an entertainment on the next Twelfth Night, that an opportunity may be afforded to choose another king. In France, this custom was at an earlier period so common, that even the court indulged in it, although the church, in the 17th c., exerted itself zealously for its suppression. The opinion that the B. K. F. owes its origin to the Roman saturnalia, when even the children, partaking in the universal glee, were wont to elect a king, is not destitute of probability.

BEAN, St Ignatius's. See Strychnos.

BEAR (*Ursus*), a genus of quadrupeds, the type of a family called *Ursidæ*, belonging to the order *Feræ*, sub-order *Carnivora*, and tribe *Plantigrada*. In the Ursidæ or B. family, are included not only the true bears, but also badgers, gluttons and wolverines, racoons, coatimondis, binturongs, the kinkajou, the panda, &c. (See these articles.) Walking on the whole sole of the foot (plantigrade), the animals of this family are not, in general, capable of running very swiftly; and the nearly equal length of their fore and hind legs unfits them for leaping; most of them are also heavy both in form and gait. But whilst thus deficient in the powers which other carnivorous animals possess for obtaining prey, they really exhibit the same beautiful mutual adaptation of endowments and wants; they are, in fact, by no means strictly carnivorous; no animals are more thoroughly omnivorous than some of them; whilst others, even of the true bears, always give a decided preference to vegetable food when it can be obtained, and their teeth and digestive organs are in exact accordance with such tastes. Their jaws are much more elongated than those of feline animals, and their bite proportionally less powerful, although some of the bears are still very formidable from their great general strength and the size of their canine teeth. Their claws are not retractile, and are adapted for digging in the earth, or for climbing trees, rather than for seizing prey. All animals of the family have five toes to each both of the fore and hind feet.

Bears have six cutting teeth above, and six below, one canine tooth on each side in each jaw, with four false molars and two molars (or grinders) on each side above, and four false molars and three molars below. The false molars are, in general, soon lost by the more carnivorous species. The true molars are very large and tuberculous, the false molars comparatively small. The tuberculous crowns of the molars exhibit the adaptation to vegetable food.—The tail in all species of B. is very short, so that some of them almost appear tailless. Most of them may be described as nocturnal in their habits.

Bears are found in Europe, Asia, and North and South America, and both in warm and cold climates, the species belonging to cold climates being in general the most fierce and carnivorous. The ancients mention them as occurring in Africa; it must, therefore, be regarded as a curious circumstance that no recent accounts make certain the existence of any species in that continent. Nor is any known to belong to Australia.

The common B. of Europe, or Brown B. (*Ursus Arctos*), was at one time a native of the British islands. Bears were carried from Britain to Rome, for the cruel sports in which the Romans delighted, and they certainly were not exterminated in Scotland before the latter part of the 11th c. The Brown B. is usually about four feet long, and two and a half feet high. Its claws are about two inches long, and much curved. It has a convex forehead, and generally a brown fur, which is somewhat woolly in the younger animals, but becomes smoother with age.

Brown Bear.

It produces from one to three young ones at a birth, which remain blind for about four weeks. It is generally believed to be the only European species, although different varieties occur; and one, the Black B., has been regarded by some naturalists as specifically distinct. The common B. is very widely distributed over the whole of Europe and of the north of Asia, Japan, and North America. In America, it is known as the Barren Ground Bear. It is a solitary animal, and generally inhabits mountainous regions or thick forests. It sometimes preys on lambs, kids, &c., is fond of fish, which in some countries, as in Kamtchatka, constitute a great part of its food; climbs trees in quest of honey, eats also fruits and vegetables, and in confinement, exhibits a strong appetite for bread. It usually prefers vegetable to animal food. The skin is valued for making fur-cloaks, &c.; the flesh is used as food, often in the shape of hams, as is that of the American Black B.; the paws are esteemed a delicacy. The fat (bear's grease) is in great request as an unguent for the hair. The intestines are used in Kamtchatka, instead of glass, for windows. To the people of Kamtchatka, indeed, bears, which are there very abundant, afford many of the necessaries and comforts of life.—The common B., like others of the genus, in cold climates, usually spends the winter in a torpid state. It selects a cavern or the hollow of a tree for its hybernation, or makes a hole for itself by digging; it is also said, but this needs confirmation, sometimes to construct a sort of hut with branches of trees, lined with moss. The winter being spent without food, it is said to be very lean on the return of spring. This and other species of B. are very often killed in their winter dens.

The American Black B. (*Ursus Americanus*) is found in all parts of North America. Its total length seldom exceeds 5 feet. The fur is soft and smooth, and generally of a glossy black; but there are varieties of other colours, as the Cinnamon B., the Yellow B., &c. The American Black B. usually exhibits a timid disposition; seldom attacks man; feeds chiefly on berries, when they can be obtained; occasionally visits gardens for the sake of cabbages and other vegetables; and strongly prefers vegetable to animal food, but has recourse to the latter when pressed by hunger, and in such circumstances occasionally approaches human habitations and orchards

pigs, which it endeavours to carry off. In such cases the B. walks on its hind-legs, the pig being firmly squeezed between its fore-paws and breast, making a noise which frequently leads to a rescue. This and other species of B., when assailed, not unfrequently hug their adversaries in the manner here described, when their strength renders them very dangerous. The skin of the American Black B. is used for caps, rugs, &c., and great numbers are annually killed upon this account, chiefly by the Indians in the employment of the Hudson's Bay Company. Almost 10,000 skins are annually imported into Britain, of which, however, the greater part are again exported. In the beginning of the 19th c., the number imported was more than twice as great as now; the skins were also of much higher price. A B.'s skin is still worth from £1 to £3.—The Grisly B. (*U. ferox*) of North America, found chiefly on the Rocky Mountains and the plains to the eastward of them, from Mexico to lat. 61° N., is much larger than either of the species already noticed, and much more fierce and carnivorous. It sometimes measures more than 9 feet from nose to tail, and the claws of the fore-feet more than 6 inches in length. It has a lengthened and narrowed muzzle, a very short tail, and long grisled hair. No animal of the New World is more formidable than the Grisly B. It is capable of overpowering the bison, and dragging away the huge carcass. It feeds, however, also on fruits and roots.—The Arctic B., or Polar B., also called the White B. (*U. maritimus*), resembles this species in size and

Polar Bear.

fierceness, but is very distinctly characterised by its flat head and comparatively long neck. It has a smooth white fur. It is the only known species of B. which is strictly marine in its habits, never being found far from the sea. It inhabits the most northerly shores of Asia and America, Spitzbergen, &c., where it pursues seals, both in the water and upon the ice, and preys upon fishes, birds, &c. Amongst the articles of its food are eggs and berries in their season, and in confinement it will subsist long on bread and other vegetable food. Like other species of the genus, it displays great affection for its young, and will brave all dangers in their defence.—Of other species of B., the Syrian B. (*U. Syriacus*) may be mentioned, as perhaps the species particularly intended by the name B. in the Old Testament. It is generally of a dingy-white or brown colour, and has a stiff mane of erect hairs between the shoulders. Flocks are not safe from it, yet it more frequently commits ravages on crops of pulse. In its habits generally, it much resembles the common B.; as do also the Tibet B. (*U. Tibetanus*), and the Spectacled B. (*U. ornatus*), so called from semicircular yellow marks above its eyes, a native of the Andes of Chili.—The Long-lipped B., or Sloth B. (*U. labiatus*), of the East Indies, is the kind commonly led about by Indian jugglers. Its

Syrian Bear.

long hair, short limbs, high back, peculiarly uncouth appearance, and gentleness of disposition, recommend it for this purpose. In a wild state, it is said to feed chiefly on fruits, honey, and ants. It possesses in a remarkable degree the power, common in some measure to all the bears, of protruding the lips in order to lay hold of food.—Some other East Indian species, which feed chiefly on fruits and honey, are known as Sun-bears, as the Malayan B. (*U. Malayanus*) and the Bornean B. (*U. Eurysplius*). They are characterised by an extremely long extensile tongue. They are of gentle disposition, and become very affectionate when tamed. Sir Stamford Raffles had a Malayan B., which was very playful and quite harmless, although a powerful animal, and which shewed refinement of taste in refusing to eat any fruit but the mangosteen, or to drink any wine but champagne. This species in a wild state does much damage to cocoa-nut plantations, by climbing the trees, and eating off the terminal bud, when it is said also to drink the sap (toddy) which flows out in abundance.

Remains of several extinct species of B. have been discovered in caves in Germany, England, and other countries, some of which appear to have been larger than the present bears of Europe, and of more decided carnivorous propensities. Of these, the *U. spelæus*, or Great Cavern B., has the skull of considerable vertical elevation from the upper end of the muzzle, and larger than that of the biggest Brown B. The *U. Arctoidens* has a skull nearly of the configuration of that of the *U. Americanus*, and of the size of that of *U. spelæus*. The *U. priscus*, or Ancient B., has the skull of a smaller size, and differing less from that of living bears.

ANT B. is a name of the Great Ant-eater (q. v.).

BEAR, BERE, or BEER. See BARLEY.

BEAR, GREAT AND LITTLE. See URSA MAJOR AND MINOR.

BEAR-BAITING. In different countries, bears were formerly made objects of cruel sport, by being baited with dogs. In England, B. was one of the established amusements, not only among the common people, but among nobles, and even royalty itself; it is related that Queen Elizabeth did not consider it unbefitting her sex or rank to attend these rude entertainments. Pennant, in his *Zoology*, quoting from *The Household Book of the Earls of Northumberland*, says: 'Our nobility also kept their bearward; twenty shillings was the annual reward of that officer from his lord, the fifth Earl of Northumberland (who died 1527),

"when he comyth to my lorde in Christmas, with his lordshippe's beests for making his lordschip pastyme the said twelve days."' The places where bears were kept and publicly baited were called bear-gardens. There is a spot in the neighbourhood of the court at Westminster, which, until lately, was known as the Bear-garden. B., like bull and badger baiting, has long been unknown in England.

BEARBERRY. See ARBUTUS.

BEAR LAKE, GREAT, in British America, in N. lat. 65°—67°, and W. long. 117°—123°. It is the most northerly of that chain of fresh-water seas—Huron, Superior, Winnipeg, Athabasca, Great Slave, Great Bear—which mark a continuous hollow in the middle of the continent. Great Bear Lake is irregular in shape, with a surface estimated at 14,000 square miles, equal to about half the area of Scotland. It sends forth a river of its own name to the Mackenzie. Its height above the ocean is computed at 230 feet. The climate is, of course, severe. The rigour of the winter may be inferred from the fact, that boats are sometimes blocked up by solid ice, after the crews have begun to suffer from the heat and the mosquitoes.

BEAR-LEADER. In former times, bears were led about with a chain, muzzled, and made to dance or stand on their hind-legs for popular entertainment; small dancing-dogs being usually added, for the sake of attractiveness. As a measure of police, these somewhat dangerous and painful exhibitions are now stopped. From this old practice has been taken the phrase, B., now used jocularly to signify a discreet person who takes charge of a youth of rank on his travels to see the world.

BEAR-PIT, a pit prepared for the keeping of bears, usually seen in zoological gardens. A pit of this kind is circular, measuring about 25 feet in diameter, and 20 feet deep. The sides are built with brick; the bottom is level, and paved with stone; and around are vaults with doors for the residence of the bears. From the centre of the pit rises a stout and tall pole, on which are cross-spars at proper distances, to enable the bears to climb to the top. As is well known, the animals are fond of climbing up these poles, and catching morsels of bun from the visitors. The poles are sufficiently distant from the sides to prevent the bears from leaping out. The vaulted receptacles require to be cool and dry.

BEAR'S GREASE. Under this name there are sold by perfumers and others, large quantities of pomades, tastefully done up for the toilet, and which are represented to be of great efficacy in nourishing and promoting the growth of hair. These so-called preparations of B. G. are for the most part composed of purified beef-marrow, hog's-lard, or fat of veal, and spermaceti, along with almond oil, and some scenting ingredients. The genuine bear's fat or B. G. would appear to possess the virtue of encouraging the growth of, and strengthening the hair, in an eminent degree; but the scarcity of the commodity is such that substitute fats are employed to supply the demand. See HAIR.

BEARD, the hair which grows on the upper lip, and on the chin and cheeks of the male sex. It is usually, though not always, of the same colour as the hair of the head, but somewhat shorter, stronger, and more wiry; it is invariably the colour of the hair on the eyebrows. The B. is the distinctive sign of manhood. In women, an incipient B. sometimes appears in the later years of life. Instances also occur of women with a B. almost equal to that of the male sex, but these are recorded as prodigies. The B. is generally luxuriant in persons of the Slavic and Celtic races. The aborigines of Am who are naturally almost beardless, make selves entirely so by plucking out the hairs beard. In early times, the B. was almost all nations a sign of ment of manhood, was careful regarded as sacred. Among the sians, and many other nations, B. was, and is yet to a very great as a severe punishment and an extreme The case of David's ambassadors, rec Samuel, chap. x., illustrates the sam prevalent among the ancient Jews carry combs constantly about w purpose of dressing the beard. It immediately after prayers, the his knees during the operation. out are then carefully picked up entombment with their owner when he quently he himself deposits them beforehand destined tomb. The ancient Jews did not dy beards, and the Turks rarely, but the practice common among the Arabs and Pers Arabs dyed the B. red, not only bec that colour (being merely a paste of was easily obtainable, but because it was mation to golden yellow, the colour re by their prophet Mohammed, who hated colour the Persians preferred. The Pers are said to have interwoven their beards thread. It is customary among the Turks the B. with perfume, and to smoke it with The Jews also anointed their beards. The Mus commonly clipped their whiskers, the Jews did The Egyptians shaved their beards except in time

Egyptian Beard-case.
From the Memnon's head in the British

mourning, when they let them gr of the ancient Egyptian statues, h appear that beard-cases were worn, seem to indicate that the practice of sh not universal. The fashions of b very different at different times countries.

A neglected B. was a sign the Jews. According to Lev *of the Rites and Ceremonies of present Time*, they are iden their nails, or bathe for of a father, mother, br wife, or husband. In versally worn till the time of who ordered shaving, that the might not be laid hold battle. Shaving was i

about 300 B.C. Pliny says Scipio Africanus was the first Roman who shaved every day. Subsequently, the first day of shaving was regarded by the Romans as the entrance upon manhood, and celebrated with great festivities. Under Hadrian, the B. was allowed to grow again; and this fashion prevailed till the time of Constantine the Great, when it was discontinued. Peter the Great compelled shaving in Russia by imposing a heavy tax upon the B., and further, by having the beards of all whom he found wearing them plucked out by the roots, or shaved with a blunt razor. The B. was commonly worn in France till the time of Louis XIII., when, because the monarch was young and beardless, the fashion changed at the court and throughout the kingdom. A similar change took place in Spain on the accession of Philip V. With regard to our own country, the Anglo-Saxons wore beards for a considerable time after their invasion of Britain; and the B. appears to have been general among the people at the time of the Norman Conquest. But the Normans not only shaved themselves, but compelled the conquered to do so likewise; and many of the English preferred to leave the country rather than submit to have their whiskers shaved. It would appear, however, from the sculptured representations on the tombs of kings and nobles, that not very long after the Conquest some of the Normans adopted the custom they had prohibited among the vanquished. Edward III. is represented on his tomb in Westminster Abbey with a very long beard. In the time of Elizabeth, beards were of the most varied and fantastic cut. Taylor, the 'Water-poet,' thus satirises the extravagance of beards prevailing in that and the succeeding reign:

> Some seem as they were starched stiff and fine,
> Like to the bristles of some angry swine;
> Some cut and pruned like to a quick set hedge,
> Some like a spade, some like a fork, some square,
> Some round, some mowed like stubble, some stark bare;
> Some sharp stiletto-fashion, dagger-like,
> That may with whispering, a man's eyes out pike,
> Some with the hammer-cut, or Roman T,
> * * * *
> That heights, depths, breadths, triform, square, oval, round,
> And rules geometrical in beards are found.

The B. gradually declined under Charles I.; in the reign of Charles II., whiskers and moustaches only were worn; and the practice of shaving the whole face soon became general all over Europe; and it is only within the last 70 years that the B. has been in some measure restored, the soldiers of Bonaparte setting the example. But until within the last 20 years, it was regarded by some of the continental governments as a badge significant of democratic sentiments, and as such was interfered with by police regulations. Physicians recommend that the B. should be allowed to grow on the chin and throat in cases of liability to inflammation of the larynx or of the bronchiæ; and moustaches and whiskers are reckoned useful for prevention of toothaches and nervous diseases of the face. The British soldiers in the Crimea were allowed to wear their beards; and with some limitations, the British army generally are now permitted to do so. The wearing of the B. has, in short, been a matter of fashion in all ages and countries, an extreme in one way usually leading to an extreme in the other. At present, the tendency in England and elsewhere is to let the B. grow, though in a way suggested by the taste of the individual. The B. is itself liable to the same diseases with the hair of the head, and to a peculiar disease (*mentagra*) occasioned or kept up by shaving, consisting in a bark-like exudation from the inflamed sebaceous glands of the hair. For detailed information, see Kitto's *Pictorial Bible*; Bulwer's *Artificial Changeling* (Lond. 1653); Hotoman's *Poponias* (Leyden, 1586), reprinted in the *Lexicon* of Pitiscus; Taylor's *Whip of Satire*; &c.

BEARD MOSS. See USNEA.

BEARDIE. By this name is the little fish called the loach known in Scotland. See LOACH.

BEARING, of a ship at sea, is the direction in which she sails, in reference to the points of the compass. Or, in a more comprehensive sense, it is the direction in which each of two objects is situated in reference to the other. When the latitudes and longitudes of two places are known, their respective bearings from each other can be calculated by trigonometry. On shipboard, seamen often conveniently refer the B. of another ship, or of an object on shore, not to the points of the compass, but relatively to the line followed at the moment by the ship's keel. Thus, the B. of the distant object may be *ahead*, *astern*, on the *starboard bow*, on the *larboard quarter*, &c.; the bow being between the head and the midship, and the quarter between the midship and the stern.

Bearing, or rather the verb *to bear*, is much used as a technical direction on shipboard. Thus, to 'bear in with the land,' to 'bear off from the land,' to 'bear up,' to 'bear away,' &c., are nearly equivalent to sailing, or steaming, or steering, in such and such directions.

BEARING THE BELL, a phrase which signifies to take the lead or first place in anything, or to carry away the prize. This old colloquial phrase is said to have originated in a practice, at the early part of the seventeenth c., of giving a small golden or silver bell as a prize to the winner at horse-races. See BELL. In Dudley Lord North's *Forest of Varieties*, p. 175, we read:

> Jockey and his horse were by their masters sent
> To put in for the bell:
> Thus right, and each to other fitted well,
> They are to run, and cannot miss the bell.

BEARN, formerly one of the thirty-two provinces into which France was divided, and now forming the greatest portion of the Basses-Pyrénées. B. was a portion of Aquitania under the Romans, and after the downfall of that empire, under its ruling dukes, it was a country of considerable importance. From the intermarriage of the ruling family, the Counts of Foix, with that of Navarre, sprang the French monarch Henry IV., who, because he was born and brought up in B., was derisively called the Bearnois. When he ascended the throne of France, it, of course, virtually became a part of that country; but was only formally incorporated with it in 1620 by Louis XIII. In 1813, after the British had crossed the Nive, and established themselves in Urogne, St Jean de Luz, &c., the rich fields of B. furnished them ample supplies, the peasants taking their produce, for which they were well paid, as regularly to the British stations as to market.

BEAS, anciently *Hyphasis*, one of the five rivers which give name to the *Punjab*, or land of five waters—Jelum, Chenab, Ravee, Beas, and Sutlej. It rises on the verge of the Ritanka Pass of the Himalaya, in lat. 32° 34′ N., and long. 77° 17′ E., its source being 13,200 feet above the sea-level. After a course of about 220 miles, it joins the Sutlej, 35 miles to the south-south-east of Amritsar. It is subject to periodical rises and falls, being in the dry season generally fordable; but after the rainy months, it is sometimes nearly half a mile in

breadth about 20 miles above the point of confluence.

BEAT, in Music, a species of embellishment, written thus: , and played as follows, . Beat also means a signal given by the hand or foot in music to insure simultaneous performance—the hand or foot being raised on the unaccented, and lowered on the accented part of the bar.

BEAT OF DRUM, in military matters, is a signal or instruction conveyed by a particular mode of drum-beating. It is an audible semaphore, a telegraph that speaks to the ear instead of the eye. There are many varieties, known by the names of the general, the reveillé, the assembly, the foot-march, the grenadiers' march, the retreat, the taptoo or tattoo, the call to arms, the call to church, the pioneers' call, the sergeants' call, the drummers' call, the chamade, the rogue's march, the long roll, &c. Some of the same instructions or commands are also given by the bugle, and some by the trumpet.

BEATIFICATION is a solemn act in the Catholic Church, by which the pope, after scrutinising the life and services of a deceased person, pronounces him blessed. After this he may be worshipped in a specified portion of the church, and the act holds out the prospect of future canonisation, which entitles him to general worship in the church universal. B. was introduced in the 12th c. It may be regarded as an inferior degree of canonisation (q. v.).

BEATING AND WOUNDING, or simply *wounding*, is the name sometimes found in law-books for the offence of inflicting on another some dangerous hurt or wound; and it has been otherwise described as an aggravated species of Battery (q. v.). A still more aggravated and atrocious offence of this kind used to appear in the list of offences against the criminal law of England under the term MAYHEM, which was a violently depriving another of the use of a member proper for his defence, such as an arm, a leg, a finger, an eye, a fore-tooth, and some others; but it was laid down quaintly enough, that the loss of one of the jaw-teeth, the ear, or the nose, was no mayhem in common law, because these members can be of no use in fighting.

The offences to which we have referred—viz., *battery*, *beating and wounding*, and *mayhem*—can, however, be best considered under the important and well-known term ASSAULT, which is indeed often used to express the above injuries, and which is implied in them all. The above offences, it will have been observed, all involve an actual attack on and injury to the person of the party assaulted. But there may be an assault without such actual hurt. This is a *common assault*, and hence, in criminal law, assaults are distinguished by their being *common* or *aggravated*. A common assault has been defined as an attempt or offer to do a corporal hurt to another, as by striking at another with a stick or weapon, or without a weapon, though the party striking misses his aim. The principle is, that it is sufficient, in order to constitute such an offence, that there has been such an exhibition of a violent and offensive *animus* as to shew at once the intention, and the power, to commit it. So, drawing a sword or bayonet, or even holding up a fist in a menacing manner, throwing a bottle or glass with intent to wound or strike, presenting a gun at a person who is within the distance to which the gun will carry, pointing a pitchfork at a person who is within reach, or any other similar act, accompanied with such circumstances as denote at the time an intention, coupled with a present ability, of using actual violence against the person of another, will amount to an assault.—Russell on *Crimes and Misdemeanours*, vol. i. p. 750. It has even been laid down, that to present a pistol, purporting to be loaded, so near as to produce danger to life if the pistol had gone off, is an assault in point of law, although, in fact, the pistol was not loaded.

But no *words*, however provoking or irritating, can amount to an assault. On the other hand, the injury need not be effected directly with the hand of the person making the assault. Thus, there may be an assault by encouraging a dog to bite, by riding over a person with a horse, or by wilfully and violently driving a cart, &c., against the carriage of another person. Nor is it necessary that the assault should be immediate, as where a defendant threw a lighted squib into a market-place, which, being tossed from hand to hand by different persons, at last hit the plaintiff in the face, and put out his eye, it was adjudged that this was actionable. And the same has been held where a person wantonly pushed a drunken man against another, and thereby hurt him. A defendant put some cantharides into coffee, in order that a female might take it; and she did take it, and was made ill by it; and this was held to be an assault. It is also an assault, wilfully and of malice, to expose another to the inclemency of the weather; so is the taking indecent liberties with females without their consent, although they did not actually resist; and to such indecent liberties a very wide application has been given, even to the extent of holding a medical practitioner guilty of assault, who stripped a young girl of her clothes, on the pretence that he could not otherwise judge of her illness. Philanthropists and benevolent people will likewise be glad to be told, that not only does the striking that takes place at a *prize-fight* constitute an assault as between the combatants themselves, but all persons present in concert and co-operation may be punished as aiders and abettors. Again, an assault may be committed by unlawfully imprisoning or detaining the person of another; and by such detention is meant every confinement of the person, whether it be in a common prison or in a private house, or by a forcible detaining in the public streets. Numerous other cases could be stated, shewing how nicely and protectively the law on this subject has been elucidated; but the explanation we have given is sufficient for its popular illustration.

Generally, it may be laid down, that the essential thing is the *intention* with which the alleged act is done, so that no matter how violent or menacing the conduct of the accused may have appeared to be, nor even how serious the injury, if it can be shewn that the whole was unintentional or accidental and undesigned, there is no assault. It remains to be added on the subject of common assaults, that the party injured may proceed against the defendant summarily or by action or indictment for the same assault; but the court in which the action is brought will not compel him to make his election to pursue either the one or the other. Yet if the party has obtained a conviction before justices of the peace, this will be a bar to any other remedy, civil or criminal; and if the justices grant a certificate that it was not proved, or was trifling, this also, as must be quite apparent, will be a bar.

With respect to *aggravated* assaults, their special character arises from the great criminality of the

object intended to be effected. Thus, attempts to murder, or to do great bodily harm, to ravish, and to obstruct officers of the law in the execution of legal process, are all of the nature of aggravated assaults; as are also attempts to commit robbery, or any other felony. The remedy for an aggravated assault is usually by indictment, but justices of the peace may also, at least in the first instance, decide some cases. In certain cases, the punishment is regulated by recent statutes: thus, by the 24 and 25 Vict. cc. 96, 100, it is enacted that persons unlawfully and maliciously starving an apprentice or servant, whereby the life of such person shall be endangered, or the health injured, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and on conviction may be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years; and where the offence shall be against a young person under the age of 16 years, and shall amount in point of law to a felony, or to an attempt to commit a felony, or to an assault with intent to commit a felony, the guardians of the union or parish, or, where there are no guardians, the overseers of the parish, are authorised and required to prosecute, the costs of the prosecution being paid out of the common fund of such union or parish. Again, by an act of 24 and 25 Vict. c. 100, it is declared expedient to make further provisions for the punishment of aggravated assaults, and it is therefore enacted, that if any person shall unlawfully and maliciously inflict upon any other person, either with or without any weapon or instrument, any grievous bodily harm, or unlawfully and maliciously cut, stab, or wound any other person, every such offender shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and being convicted thereof shall be liable to three years' penal servitude, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for a term of two years: provided, however, that nothing contained in the act shall be deemed or taken to repeal other enactments of the act, by which it is provided, that if any person shall unlawfully and maliciously, by any means, wound any person, so as thereby to endanger the life of such person, or so as thereby to inflict upon such person any grievous bodily harm, every such offender, being convicted thereof, shall be liable to be sentenced to penal servitude for life, or for the term of three years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, in the common jail or house of correction, for any term not exceeding two years; and, if a male, to be once, twice, or thrice publicly or privately whipped, in addition to such imprisonment, if the court shall think fit. The only other enactment that it may be necessary to notice is one in the same statute of 24 and 25 Vict. c. 96, which provides that any person convicted of any indecent assault, or of any assault occasioning actual bodily harm, shall be liable to be imprisoned for any term now warranted by law, with hard labour during the whole or part of such imprisonment.

In Scotland, the principle of the law of assault, and of its aggravations, is very much the same as that above stated. In the Scotch system, it is laid down that it is of the utmost importance in all cases of actual assault to ascertain who struck the first blow, and the party who receives it will be excused for retaliating, if he do not exceed the just and fair measure of resentment. There, too, the highest of all aggravations is the assault with intent to murder. It is also an aggravation that the assault has been committed in pursuance of an old grudge, and on a principle of revenge; where, also, the offence has been accompanied with an intent to compel a rise of wages, or to deter from working at a certain rate, or in pursuance of a combination entered into for these illegal purposes. Another aggravation of the offence in Scotland is its being committed by a child on its parent, by a husband on his wife, or by any person upon another within his own house, although the latter crime falls more strictly under the antiquated term of *Hamesucken* (q. v.). The remedy in Scotland is, as in England, by civil action of damages, and by a criminal prosecution, both being maintainable, and the latter usually at the suit of the Lord Advocate, as public prosecutor; but the private injured party may prosecute criminally should the Lord Advocate decline to do so. See, on the subject of this article generally, Russell *On Crimes and Misdemeanours*, in England, and Alison's *Principles of the Scotch Criminal Law*.

BEATING JUDGES, in the Scotch law, is the strange title of a strange offence, according to the enlightenment of the present age—namely, that of committing a personal assault on a judge. By the provisions of an old statute now in desuetude, an assault on a judge sitting in court is a capital offence.

BEATING THE BOUNDS is the popular expression in England for those periodical surveys or perambulations by which the ancient boundaries of parishes are preserved. The procedure, according to common custom, is in this wise: On Holy Thursday or Ascension Day, the clergyman of the parish, with the parochial officers and other parishioners, followed by the boys of the parish school, headed by their master, go in procession to the different parish boundaries, which boundaries the boys strike with peeled willow-wands that they bear in their hands, and hence the expression beating the bounds. The correct legal term is *Perambulation* (q. v.). See Brand's *Popular Antiquities*, vol. i. pp. 174, 175; Lyson's *Environs of London*, vol. ii. p. 146; Hone's *Every-day Book*, vol. i. p. 651; Steer's *Parish Law*, by Hodgson; and Toulmin Smith's *Parish Law*.

According to these and other old authorities, the beating was not confined to the above performance of the boys with their willow-wands; but where it was desired to preserve evidence of particular boundaries, the singular expedient was used of whipping the boys themselves on the spot, or one of them, who received a stated fee for the permitted castigation out of the parish funds—it being thought that the impression made on the memory of the whipped boy was calculated to have a beneficial effect on the preservation of his evidence. A similar ceremony appears anciently to have prevailed in Scotland, and for the same purpose. See Lord Stair's *Institutes of the Scotch Law*, book iv., title 43, s. 7, where it is stated that the boys were 'sharply whipped.'

BEATON, or BETHUNE, DAVID, Cardinal and Primate of Scotland, a zealous opponent of the Reformation in that country, descended from a celebrated French family, was a younger son of John Beaton of Balfour, Fifeshire. Born in 1494, he became, in October 1511, a student at the university of St Andrews, and afterwards studied theology and the canon and civil laws at Paris. Early entering the church, he was preferred by his uncle, James Beaton, Archbishop of Glasgow, to the rectory of Campsie, Stirlingshire. His tact and general abilities recommended him to the Duke of Albany, regent during the minority of James V., who, in 1519, appointed him resident for Scotland at the French court. In 1525, he took his seat in the Scots parliament as Abbot of Arbroath; his uncle, on being translated two years before to the archbishopric of St Andrews, having resigned to him that abbey, with the half of the rents. In 1528, B. was appointed Lord Privy Seal, and is said to have been the adviser of James V. in instituting the College of Justice or Court of Session in Scotland,

the idea of which was suggested by the constitution of the parliament of Paris. B. subsequently became Prothonotary Public, and was twice sent ambassador to France, to negotiate James's two marriages—first, with the French king's daughter, Princess Magdalene, who died six months after her nuptials; and secondly, with Mary, Duchess of Longueville, daughter of the Duke of Guise. The king's union with the latter he solemnised, in 1537, in the cathedral church of St Andrews. During his residence at the French court, he was admitted to all the privileges of a French citizen, and appointed by Francis I. Bishop of Mirepoix in Languedoc. After his return, he became coadjutor to his uncle in the see of St Andrews, and on 28th December 1538, on the recommendation of the king of France, was, by Pope Paul III., elevated to the dignity of a cardinal. On his uncle's death, in 1539, he succeeded him as Archbishop of St Andrews and Primate of Scotland, and soon commenced a furious persecution of the Reformers, already numerous and increasing. That he might be invested with supreme authority in all matters ecclesiastical, he obtained from the pope the appointment of *legatus a latere* in Scotland, and induced the king to institute a Court of Inquisition, to inquire after heretics in all parts of the kingdom. To maintain the French influence, and prevent all danger to the Roman Catholic Church in Scotland by a friendly connection with England, he contrived to frustrate a proposed meeting of King James with his uncle, Henry VIII., and even prevailed on the former to declare war against his royal relative. On the death of James, after the disastrous overthrow of the Scots at Solway Moss, December 14, 1542, B. produced a forged will of the late king, appointing himself, with three others, regents of the kingdom during the minority of the infant Queen Mary. The nobility, however, rejected the fictitious document, and elected the Earl of Arran regent, who then professed the reformed faith. The following month, B. was arrested and imprisoned, accused, among other charges, of a design to introduce French troops into Scotland, in order to stop the negotiations then in progress with Henry of England for a marriage between the young Prince of Wales, afterwards Edward VI., and the infant Queen of Scots. He was soon after liberated, and reconciled to the regent, whom he induced to abandon the English interest, and publicly to abjure the reformed religion. On the young queen's coronation in 1543, B. was again admitted of the council, and appointed Chancellor. He now renewed his persecution of the Reformers; and, in January 1546, accompanied by the regent, he made a diocesan visitation of the counties under his jurisdiction, and punished with the utmost severity all the Protestants he could find. At Perth, a number of persons, accused of heresy, were banished the city, others were imprisoned; three men were cruelly hanged, and one woman drowned, by his directions. During a Provincial Council of the clergy held at Edinburgh, at which he presided, he caused the celebrated evangelical preacher, George Wishart, to be apprehended, and conveyed to the castle of St Andrews, where he was burnt at the stake, B. and other prelates witnessing his sufferings from a window. A conspiracy having been formed against him, at the head of which were Norman Leslie and his brother, B. was assassinated in his own castle of St Andrews, 29th May 1546. Though endowed with great talents, B. possessed little learning. He is said, however, to have written *Memoirs of his Own Embassies;* a treatise on *St Peter's Supremacy;* and *Letters to Several Persons*, of which Dempster observes there are several copies extant in the Imperial Library at Paris. He cruel, and intolerant, he was also licentious extreme. He had six natural children, three and three daughters—the latter married into of distinction. One of his sons became a Prot His death was scarcely lamented by any pa the state.

BEATTIE, JAMES, poet and moral was born, 25th October 1735, at L Kincardineshire, Scotland. He studied College, Aberdeen, where he acquired tion as a classical scholar. In 1758, he wa one of the masters of the grammar-school city, and in 1760, Professor of Moral Philo Marischal College. Ten years afterwa B.'s famous *Essay on Truth*, which extravagant success. It was in to Hume, whose penetrating its way into all the enlightened and alarmed the friends of revealed Reid and Campbell had previously refute the scepticism of the great his the opinion of many, too deferentially. B. wh nature was poetically vehement, and wi was consequently very ardent, and more violently, if not more pow predecessors. The author hims the popularity of his essay. He George III., and solicited by d English Church to take orders; were also promised, which, howev he mously refused, shrinking with delicacy fro anything which might give his chance of saying that he had writt religion for hire. It was thought fo had demonstrated 'the immutability o exposed the 'sophistry of scepticism;' judge from the neglect which has treatise during the last fifty years, ments had been overestimated. B. was in logical acumen and in extent of erudition, but his poetical fancy, pure and pious intentions, recommended multitudes. In 1771, appeared the *The Minstrel*, and in 1774, the se is a delightful poem. Time it, for it still retains the fres overflows with a sweet poet in picturesque descriptions, has a quiet fulness of melody. yet fervent spirit beats in every line. describes 'the progress of a poetical a rude age, from the first dawn reason, till that period at which he capable of appearing in the work B. intended to have added a third stances hindered him. In 1776, he of essays on *Poetry, Music*, &c.; *tions Moral and Critical;* in 1786, *the Christian Religion briefly and pla* in 1790—1793, *The Elements of Moral* of which works are writt a clear style, and with a high a tion of beautiful and good. He A His life has been written by Forbes.

BEAUCAIRE, a well-built France, situated on the right b in the department of Gard, opp which it is connected by a bridge. Pop., exclusive of gar harbour is commodious for it by a canal communica rranean, and avoiding mouths of the Rhone.

its great fair, established, it is said, as early as the 12th c. It is held annually, beginning 22d July, and lasting six days. In former times, when this fair was free from duties, it was attended by merchants and manufacturers from almost all parts of Europe, from the Levant, and even from Persia and Armenia; and as the small town could not contain the vast concourse of traders, thousands of wooden huts and of tents were erected in the neighbouring valley. But the numerous imposts demanded since 1632, foreign wars, and the competition of Marseille, Lyon, and other large places, reduced the traffic of B., which sank still lower in the days of the Revolution. The fair, however, is still held in much repute, the number attending it being estimated at 50,000, and the amount of property changing hands at £180,000. The chief articles of commerce are silks, wines, oil, almonds, and other fruits, spices, drugs, leather, wool, and cotton. B. appears to have been known in ancient times as Ugernum, which, in the 7th c., was a place of importance in a military point of view.

BEAUCHAMP, Alphonse de, a French historian and publicist, born at Monaco, 1767; died in Paris, June 4, 1832. He received his education in Paris, and entered the Sardinian military service. At the outbreak of the war with France, he refused to bear arms against his country, and obtained his discharge; but being suspected of treasonable designs, he was imprisoned for some months. After his liberation, he returned to Paris, where he took part against Robespierre; and on the establishment of the Directory, obtained a situation in the office of the minister of police, and had the surveillance of the press. Here he commenced his *Histoire de la Vendée et des Chouans* (3 vols., Par. 1806; 4th ed., 1820), for which Fouché supplied the materials. As this work displeased the Emperor, B. was banished to Rheims, but was recalled in 1811, and again received a subordinate appointment (on condition that he should publish nothing concerning his political contemporaries), which he lost in 1814. Under the Restoration, he received a pension (1820), and wrote for the *Moniteur*, the *Gazette de France*, and the *Biographie des Hommes Vivants*, edited by Michaud. The numerous historical writings of B. are interesting, but bear the impress of party-spirit; but in his *Histoire du Brésil* (Par. 1815), and *Histoire de la Conquête du Pérou* (Par. 1807), he found no opportunity of expressing his political partialities. Among his other works may be mentioned the *Histoire de la Campagne de* 1814—1815 (2 vols., Par. 1818), the *Histoire de la Révolution du Piemont*, directed against De la Rosa (Par. 1823), and *Vie de Louis XVIII.* (Par. 1825). After the July revolution, he was employed on several legitimist journals; and the supposititious *Mémoires* of Fouché (4 vols., Par. 1828–1829) have, with good reason, been ascribed to Beauchamp.

BEAUFORT, an inland district of the west division of the Cape Colony, divided into 9 field-cornetcies. It is chiefly used for pasturage, its oxen being, in seasons of abundant rain, decidedly the fattest in the colony. Its area is about 13,050 square miles; and its population is nearly 6000. Its capital, of the same name, is on the Gamka, being 363 miles to the east of Cape Town, and 144 to the west of Graaffreinet.

BEAUFORT, Cardinal, and Bishop of Winchester (born about 1370), was a natural son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and was half-brother to King Henry IV. He was educated in England and Germany, and in 1404 became Bishop of Winchester. He repeatedly filled the office of Lord Chancellor, and was involved in all the most important political movements of his times. He was present at the Council of Constance, and voted for the election of Pope Martin V., by whom he was subsequently made a cardinal. When the cardinal's nephew, Henry V. of England, proposed to levy a new impost on the clergy, in order to raise money for carrying on the war against France, B. was the chief opponent of the measure; but nevertheless he lent the monarch, out of his own private purse, £28,000– an almost incredibly large sum in those days, and one which justifies the belief that he was the wealthiest subject of his time in all England. His service in this affair was soon recognised by the pope, who sent him as legate into Germany, there to organise a crusade against the followers of John Huss. This undertaking failed; and the cardinal, having expended, in levying an English army against France, the moneys granted from Rome for other purposes, now fell under papal displeasure. In 1431, B. conducted the young king, Henry VI., to France, to be crowned in Paris as king of France and England. Here he also endeavoured, but vainly, to reconcile the Duke of Bedford, Regent of France, with the offended Duke of Burgundy. Cardinal B. died at Winchester in 1447. His memory is stained by his suspected participation in the murder of his great political rival, the Duke of Gloucester, who headed the lay opposition to the despotism of ecclesiastical statesmen; and by the fact, that he presided over the tribunal which sentenced the Maid of Orleans to perish at the stake.

BEAUGENCY, an ancient town of France, in the department Loiret, and situated on the right bank of the Loire, 15 miles south-west of Orleans. It was at one time surrounded by walls, flanked with towers and bastions, and defended by a strong castle, now ruined. In the history of the wars of France, B. occupies a conspicuous place. It was successively in the hands of the Huns, Saxons, Normans, and English, but it sustained most damage during the religious wars of the 16th c. B. manufactures woollens, leather, &c., and has a trade in wine, wool, and corn. Pop. (1872) 3882.

BEAUHARNAIS, Alexandre Vicomte de, born 1760, in the island of Martinique, served, under Marshal Rochambeau, in the American War of Independence. Afterwards, he went to France, but though well received by the French court, he embraced the popular cause. Elected deputy to the States-general by the nobility and the justiciary authorities of Blois, he was among the first of his order to fraternise with the *Tiers Etat*, or democratic party. On the night of August 4, 1789, he voted for the abolition of all privileges, and the political equality of all citizens. As a reward for his constancy to the cause of liberty, he was named Secretary of the National Assembly, and subsequently member of the military committee, but lost his popularity considerably by venturing to praise and defend the conduct of General Bouillé in the sanguinary suppression of the insurrection at Nancy. The manner in which he received the news of the flight of Louis XVI. exhibits a curious mixture of contempt and dignity. 'Gentlemen,' said he to the Assembly over which he presided, 'the king has just gone off; let us pass to the order of the day.' In 1793, he declined the office of Minister at War, and tendered his resignation as general of the Army of the Rhine, because it had been determined to exclude the nobility from the service. During the Reign of Terror, his enemies revived the report that he had participated in the surrender of Mentz, because he had remained idle with his troops for 15 days. In consequence of this accusation, he was called from his country residence

at Fertè-Imbault to Paris, where he was tried and sentenced to death by the revolutionary tribunal. He submitted to his fate with firmness, and died on the scaffold, July 23, 1794, aged 34 years. His widow, Josephine, married Napoleon Bonaparte, who adopted Eugène and Hortensia, son and daughter of Beauharnais. Hortensia was married to Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland, and became the mother of Napoleon III., Emperor of the French.

BEAUHARNAIS, EUGÈNE DE, Viceroy of Italy during the reign of Napoleon I., and afterwards Duke of Leuchtenberg, and Prince of Eichstadt, was born September 3, 1781, and was the son of the Viscount Beauharnais. After his mother's marriage with Bonaparte, he accompanied him in his campaigns in Italy, and in the expedition to Egypt. He rapidly rose to the highest military rank; and in 1805, after the erection of the imperial throne, he was made a Prince of France and Viceroy of Italy. In 1806, he married the Princess Amalie Augusta of Bavaria, and not long afterwards was created Prince of Venice, and declared by Napoleon his adoptive son, and heir of the kingdom of Italy. Although his political power was much limited, he conducted himself in Italy with much prudence, energy, and moderation, and in all the various scenes of his life maintained an honourable and virtuous character. It is to be regretted, however, that he considered himself so entirely a vassal of Napoleon, and bound to carry out the often harsh decrees of the latter in regard to Italy. His military talents were great, and were displayed particularly in the Italian campaigns, in the wars against Austria, and in the retreat from Moscow, in which the preservation of the French army from total destruction was very much to be ascribed to the skill and resolution of the viceroy and of Ney. The victory of Lützen was decided by his conduct in that battle. Napoleon sent him from Dresden to Italy, which he ably defended, even after Austria had joined the coalition, and Murat had deserted the cause of the French Empire. After the fall of Napoleon, he entered into a convention with Count Bellegarde. In the affairs of the Hundred Days, he took no part; and in the treaty of Fontainebleau and Congress of Vienna, he was allowed to retain his possessions in the March of Ancona; and large sums were granted to him in compensation for his other Italian possessions, with which he purchased from his father-in-law the landgraviate of Leuchtenberg and principality of Eichstadt, and took his place as Duke of Leuchtenberg among the nobles of Bavaria. He died at Munich on the 21st February 1824.—His eldest son, Charles Augustus Napoleon, Duke of Leuchtenberg, married the Queen Donna Maria of Portugal on the 25th January 1835, but died on the 25th of March in the same year.—Another son, Max Eugène Joseph Napoleon, who succeeded his brother as Duke of Leuchtenberg, married the Grand Duchess Maria Nikolajewna, a daughter of the Emperor Nicholas of Russia; and his children bear the name of Romanowski, and are ranked among the members of the Russian imperial family. He died 1st November 1852, of disease of the lungs, consequent upon a scientific tour in the Ural. He was a zealous mineralogist, and left large collections, which are preserved at St Petersburg.

BEAUMARCHAIS, PIERRE AUGUSTIN CARON DE, a French poet, born in Paris, January 24, 1732; died May 17, 1799, was the son of a watchmaker, and was brought up to his father's trade. He soon displayed a remarkable taste for music, attained proficiency as a player on the harp and the guitar, and was appointed music-master to the daughters of Louis XV. This was the beginning of his course of good-fortune. He acquired considerable property by marriage, and to dignify the somewhat ambiguous position in which his calling placed him, he devoted his talents to literature. His first play, *Eugenie* (1767), was successful, and was followed by *Les Deux Amis* (1770). Having become involved in lawsuits with Lablache and Gützman, he revenged himself on the latter—who was a member of the so-called *Parlament Maupeou*—by publishing his famous *Mémoires* (Paris, 1774), which united the bitterest satire with the sharpest logic, and gained for him a reputation that made even Voltaire uneasy, who could not bear a rival in his own department. Despite his wit, however, he lost his suit. His fame now rests on his two operas, *Le Barbier de Seville* (1775), and *Le Mariage de Figaro*. Of his later works, we may mention *Mes Six Epoques*, in which he describes the perils through which he had passed in the first period of the Revolution. During the American War of Independence, he entered into a speculation for supplying arms, &c., by which he realised a considerable profit, but was a great loser by his expensive edition of Voltaire's works, and other speculations. The desire of gain and love of distinction were the leading motives which actuated Beaumarchais. His literary merits have been differently estimated. The most judicious critic of his writings and character is M. de Loménie, whose *B. and his Times* is full of interesting literary anecdote. An edition of B. was published at Paris in 1809.

BEAUMARIS, a seaport and chief town of Anglesea, North Wales, is situated on the west side of the picturesque Bay of B., near the north entrance to the Menai Strait, 3 miles north of Bangor, and 239 miles north-west of London. B. has the ivy-covered remains of a castle, erected by Edward I., and a free grammar-school, and is a favourite sea-bathing resort. The bay is a safe anchorage in stormy weather. B. unites with Amlwch, Holyhead, and Llangefin in sending one member to parliament. It exports copper and other ores, slates, marble, &c. Pop. (1871) 2291. The vessels which entered this port in 1872 numbered 1507, of tonnage 261,590; which cleared it, 901, of 287,443 tons.

BEAUMONT, [illegible] most FLETCHER, J[illegible], poets writers were so closely asso[illegible] labours, that their names [illegible] united.—Francis Be[illegible] Francis Beaumont, [illegible] mon Pleas, was born [illegible] in 1586, ten [illegible]; ten years b[illegible] became a g[illegible] (now Pembroke [illegible]) a member of the Inner Temple. [illegible] after, he published certain t[illegible] When about nineteen years [illegible] friend of Ben Jonson, and w[illegible] verses to some of his dr[illegible] attracted to its service[illegible] wit of the time, he [illegible] Fletcher, and drawn [illegible] same house till B.'s [illegible] Ursula, daughter [illegible] Sundridge, in K[illegible] He died at the [illegible] in Westminster [illegible] in the blood of the [illegible] of B.'s immediate fa[illegible] brother of the d[illegible] said by the c[illegible] rhyme couplet.

John Fletcher was [illegible]

clergyman, and appears to have inherited many of the honours of the church. He was for some time incumbent of Rye, in Sussex; thereafter, he was appointed Dean of Peterborough, and is said to have attended Queen Mary on the scaffold, and to have embittered her last hours with irrelevant exhortation. On his elevation to the see of London, he married a second time, and thereby procured the disfavour of the Virgin Queen. He died shortly after, some maintaining, of a queen's frown, others, of the immoderate use of tobacco. John F. entered Bennet College, Cambridge, on the 15th October 1591, where he acquired some reputation for classical erudition. It is uncertain how long he remained at the university, or whether he took a degree. The *Woman-hater*, produced in 1606—1607, is the earliest play of his which is known to exist. It is not known precisely in what circumstances F. passed his life. He asserts his independence in some verses introductory to *The Faithful Shepherdess*, published about 1610, yet he wrote more rapidly than most men then writing for bread. The last four years of his life produced eleven new plays—a swiftness surpassing that of Shakspeare himself. Tarrying in London, it is said, for a suit of new clothes, he caught the plague, and died. His death occurred in 1625, and he was buried in the church of St Saviour's. F. also could boast of poetic descent and connection. Dr Giles Fletcher, the bishop's younger brother, has been called 'an excellent poet;' and two sons of his, Giles and Phineas, distinguished themselves by their verses. The one wrote *Christ's Victory and Triumph;* the other, *The Purple Island.*

The works of B. and F. comprise in all fifty-two plays, a masque, and several minor poems; but it is difficult to allocate, in any satisfactory manner, the authorship of these. F., being the longer lived and more prolific writer, of course contributed the largest share. Rowley assisted F. in *The Maid of the Mill.* Some critics think that the hand of Shakspeare may be detected in *The Two Noble Kinsmen*, and not without some show of reason. There is a tone of music and a step of thunder in some of the passages to which no parallel could be found in any of the companion-dramas. Two plays left unfinished at F.'s death were completed by Shirley. Out of the fifty-two plays, B. is supposed to have had a share in the composition of seventeen, and only three out of that small number were, during F.'s lifetime, published as joint productions. Two of these—*Philaster*, and *The Maid's Tragedy*—are, with the exception of the great passages in *The Two Noble Kinsmen*, the glory of the collection. The question has been often discussed, why these plays are called by the name of B. and F., thus giving precedence to the younger and less voluminous writer. Mr Dyce thinks, that of the three plays published as joint productions during F.'s life, B. had either the greater share, or that, through feelings of natural courtesy, F. placed the name of his deceased associate before his own, and that future editors naturally followed the arrangement which they found to their hand. Mr Darling is inclined to give no reason at all, and ascribes the whole thing to accident. From all that can be gathered, it would appear that B. possessed the deeper and more thoughtful genius; F., the gayer and more idyllic. There is a strength as of granite rock in *The Maid's Tragedy;* there is a glad exuberant music, and a May-morning light and freshness, in *The Faithful Shepherdess*, which Milton did not disdain to accept as a model in the lyrical portions of *Comus*, and of which the *Endymion* of Keats is but an echo. In these plays, B. and F. are the cleverest, gayest gentlemen. They never sound the deep sea of passion; they disport themselves, dolphin-like, on its surface. They have no power of serious characterisation, and their numerous creations are seldom consistent; but they say the most clever, pleasant, and glancing things. Morally, little can be said in their praise. No audience of the present day could sit out the representation of their purest plays. Some of the impurest are almost beyond conception, yet there is always an air of good-breeding about them, and the filth is handled in the most gentlemanly manner. It was a great intellectual period in which B. and F. lived; but Shakspeare stands above them and the rest of that dramatic brotherhood like Mont Blanc above the summits of the Lower Alps—conspicuous not only from his altitude, but from his purity.

BEAUMONT, Gustave de, a distinguished French publicist, born February 6, 1802, at Beaumont-la-Chartre, in the department of Sarthe. He studied law, and was made procurator-substitute in the superior tribunal of the Seine, but lost this office after the July Revolution. In 1831, B. and Tocqueville were commissioned by the French government to study the prison-discipline of America. When B. returned to Paris, he received a place under government, but was soon deposed, as he refused to conduct the prosecution in the scandalous process against the Baroness de Feuchères. In 1840, he was elected deputy for the department Sarthe, and distinguished himself, as a member of the Opposition, by his information and readiness on all political questions. After the February Revolution, 1848, he was returned as member of the Legislative Assembly, and here maintained the character of a sincere but moderate republican. After the 2d December 1851, he was arrested and imprisoned for some time in the fortress of Mont Valérien. On regaining his liberty, he retired to his patrimonial estate. He died in 1866. B. was the grandson of Lafayette, and in 1836, married his cousin, the daughter of Georges Lafayette. The writings on which B's reputation is founded are—*Note sur le Système Pénitentiare* (1831), *Du Système Pénitentiare aux Etats-unis et de son Application en France* (2 vols., 1832; partly by Tocqueville), *Marie ou l'Esclavage aux Etats-Unis* (2 vols., 1835), and *L'Irlande, Sociale, Politique, et Religieuse* (2 vols., 1839).—Beaumont-Vassy, Edouard Vicomte de, a relation of the former, has acquired a reputation as the writer of a romance, *Une Marquise d'autrefois* (1838), and some historical works, especially a *History of the European States since the Congress of Vienna* (vols. 1–6, Par. 1843—1853).

BEAUMONT (Elie de), Jean Baptiste, late Chief Engineer and Professor of Geology in the School of Mines at Paris, and in the *Collège de France*, was born at Canon in 1798. He was distinguished not merely as a practical geological investigator, but also as a clear and acute speculator. The prevailing theory regarding the elevation of mountain systems was elaborated chiefly by him. His views as to the separate periods of elevation were published in several treatises. He was occupied for 23 years, in conjunction with Dufrénoy, in the preparation of a geological map of France, and its accompanying text. Among his writings are: *Coup d'Œil sur les Mines*, 1824; *Observations Géologiques sur les Différentes Formations dans le Système des Vosges*, 1829; *Recherches sur quelques-unes des Révolutions de la Surface du Globe*, 1835; and *Voyage Métallurgique en Angleterre* (2d ed., 1837—1839). He died in 1874.

BEAUNE, capital of an arrondissement in the French department Côte d'Or, formerly included in the Duchy of Burgundy, is situated in a pleasant district on the river Bouzoise, about 23 miles

south-south-west of Dijon. The town is well built; has a fine parish church, Notre Dame, founded in 976 by Duke Henri of Burgundy; and a splendid hospital, founded in 1443 by Nicholas Rollin, Chancellor of Philip, Duke of Burgundy. There are several manufactories of serges, woollen cloth, and cutlery. A considerable trade is carried on in Burgundy and Champagne wines. B. gives its name to one of the best of the Burgundy wines. Pop. (1872) 10,100.

BEAUNE, FLORIMOND, a distinguished mathematician, and friend of Descartes, was born in 1601, at Blois, in France, where he died in 1652. His labours and discoveries contributed greatly to the improvement of the modern analytical geometry first introduced by Descartes. Algebra was also enriched by B.'s shewing that, in equations to the fourth degree, the limits of positive roots might be found from the coefficients. B. may be regarded as the proper founder of the Integral Calculus, as he first endeavoured to deduce the nature of curved lines from the properties of their tangents. The so-called 'B.'s Problem' (which has been completely solved only by Jean Bernouilli), still given in the Integral Calculus, was for his time new and remarkable, it turns also on the determination of the nature of a curved line from a property of its tangent. The only work of his we possess is *De Æquationum Limitibus Opuscula duo, et Notæ Brevs.*

BEAUTY. See ÆSTHETICS, ART.

BEAUVAIS, an important manufacturing French town, capital of the department Oise. It is situated in the valley of the Thérain (a tributary to the Oise), about 41 miles north-north-west of Paris, and surrounded by rising woodlands. Formerly, B. was included in the old province, Ile de France. It is now the seat of government for the department, and the residence of a bishop, and contains a literary and economical society, a public library, a museum, &c. Among its several fine buildings, the most noteworthy is its uncompleted cathedral, the choir of which is the loftiest as well as one of the finest specimens of Gothic in France. The manufactures of B. include woollen cloths, shawls, carpets, Gobelin tapestry, &c. Pop. (1872) 13,532. B. is an ancient town. It was included in the country of the powerful *Bellovaci*, in *Gallia Belgica*, and was known by the Romans as *Cæsaromagus*, afterwards as *Bellovacum*. In the middle ages, it was styled *Belvacum*. In 850, and at other times, B. was desolated by the Normans. The *Jacquerie*, or Peasants' War, broke out in the neighbourhood of B., March 21, 1358. In 1443, B. was besieged by the English, who were repulsed by the heroic self-sacrifice of Jean Lignière. Again, in 1472, it was besieged by Charles the Bold of Burgundy, with an army of 80,000 men, when the women of B., under the leadership of the heroine Jeanne Lainé, surnamed La Hachette for her daring, displayed remarkable valour. The standard which the Burgundians had planted on the wall was torn down by Jeanne Lainé, and borne off by her in triumph. The banner is preserved in the town hall, and a procession, in which it is carried by young girls, annually commemorates the heroic deed. B. is the birthplace of the learned Dominican Vincent de Beauvais (Vincentius Bellovacensis).

BEAVER (*Castor Fiber*), a quadruped of the order *Glires*, or *Rodentia* (q. v.), valued for its fur, and for the peculiar substance called *Castoreum* (q. v.), which it yields, and also much noted for its instincts. Some naturalists regard the American B. as distinct from that of Europe and Asia; but the differences observable either in external or anatomical characters are very inconsiderable; and the opinion that a great difference exists in instincts and habits, appears to have been too hastily adopted. If there is only one species of B., it is very widely distributed in the northern regions of the world, reaching in America almost as far south as the Gulf of Mexico. It once existed in the British islands, where, however, it has long been extinct; and it has become rare in Europe, in many parts of which it was once common. It has become rare also in the United States, disappearing before man; but is nowhere so abundant as in that wide region of lakes and rivers which lies to the north and west of the settled parts of North America. Considerable numbers of beavers are found on the banks of the Obi and other rivers of Siberia, and in Kamtchatka.

The incisors or cutting teeth of the B. are remarkably strong, and exhibit in the highest degree the distinctive character of the order to which it belongs —the front of hard enamel, which in the B. is of a bright orange colour; the back of the tooth formed of a softer substance, more easily worn down, so

Beaver.

that a sharp, chisel-like edge is always preserved; the bulbs being also persistent, so that the teeth are continually growing, as by their employment in gnawing wood, they are continually being worn away. There are four flat molar teeth (or grinders) on each side in each jaw. Each foot has five toes: those of the fore-feet are short, and not connected by a web; those of the hind-feet are long, spreading out like the toes of a goose, and webbed to the nails. In accordance with this remarkable peculiarity, the B., in swimming, makes use of the hind-feet alone, the fore-feet remaining motionless and close to the body. Another character, to which nothing similar appears in any other rodent, is the large, horizontally flattened tail, which, except at the root, is not covered with hair, like the rest of the body, but with scales. The caudal vertebræ, however, do not exhibit a flattened form.

The B. is usually at least two feet
the nose to the root of the tail: the
form, about ten inches in l
in greatest breadth, and
ness. These dimensions are
The general form of the
thickest at the hips, and
so that it seems to taper
thick and broad, the nose o
ears short and rounded.
kinds of hair; the longer hair comparati
smooth, and glossy; the under coat den
silky. The colour is generally o
black, spotted, or nearly white.

The B. is very aquatic in its
seldom wanders far from
consequence of its habits, it is
districts, and the northern
everywhere terminated by
upon the river-banks.

The food of the B. consists of the bark of trees and shrubs (birch, poplar, willow, &c.), and of the roots of water-lilies (*Nuphar luteum*) and other aquatic plants. In summer, it eats also berries, leaves, and various kinds of herbage. There is reason to think that it never, as has been supposed, kills or eats fish. Like some other rodents, it lays up stores of provisions for winter; but these, in the case of the B., consist chiefly of bark, or of branches, and even trunks of trees. Its extraordinary powers of gnawing are exerted to cut down trees of several inches in diameter, both for food, and for the construction of those houses and dams which have rendered it so much an object of admiration to mankind. A tree of 18 inches in diameter has been found thus cut down by beavers, although smaller ones are usually preferred; and when a tree of this size is cut, the branches only, and not the trunk, are employed in the architectural operations of the animals. These operations are very wonderful, although the statement, at one time commonly made, that beavers drive stakes into the ground, has no foundation in fact; and some of the other particulars which passed current along with it, were equally fabulous. The houses or lodges of beavers are grouped together near the edge of the water, the mud being scraped away from the front, so that there may be a sufficient depth of water there to allow free egress, even during the most severe frost. The winter stores of the animals, consisting of piles or heaps of wood, are also always under water, at such a depth that they cannot be locked up in ice. When the depth of water is not sufficient, the beavers construct a dam across the stream, by the side of which the lodge is placed; the dam is sometimes as much as 300 yards in length, convex towards the current, and most convex in the strongest currents, sometimes extending on both sides beyond the natural channel of the stream. The materials of which it is composed are sticks, roots, and branches, with stones, moss, grasses, and mud, strangely commingled, but in such a manner that the structure becomes absolutely water-tight. Branches of which the bark has been used for food, or taken off for winter provender, are very generally employed for building purposes. In their building, beavers interlace small branches with each other and with the larger; and a B. kept in confinement has been known to manifest this instinct, by interlacing branches with the bars of its cage, whilst it also filled the interstices with carrots, and other vegetables, given it for food, nicely bitten to the proper size, and packed in snow, to protect itself from the cold. B. dams are built with the sides inclining towards one another, so that although ten or twelve feet wide at bottom, they have a narrow top. The dams and houses are annually repaired, before winter comes on, the work being performed by night. 'In places,' says Hearne, 'which have been long frequented by beavers undisturbed, their dams, by frequent repairing, become a solid bank, capable of resisting a great force, both of water and ice; and as the willow, poplar, and birch generally take root and shoot up, they by degrees form a kind of regular planted hedge, which I have seen in some places so tall that birds have built their nests among the branches.' A broad ditch is often dug all around the lodge, so deep that it cannot freeze to the bottom, and into it the beavers make the holes by which they go out and bring their food. The larger lodges are in the interior, about seven feet in diameter, and between two and three feet high. The top is formed of branches of trees, matted with mud, grass, moss, &c. The walls are very thick, and the whole structure not only secures much warmth, but is a sufficient protection from wolves, wolverines, and other beasts of prey. Different apartments have often one common roof, but they have usually no internal communication. The sleeping-places of the animals are around the wall of their lodge, the centre being left free; they are formed merely of a little grass or tender bark of trees. A single house seldom contains more than ten or twelve beavers, but many such families are often congregated in one place. Beavers, both in a wild state and in confinement, are scrupulously cleanly in their habits.

Beavers often sit on the hind-feet and tail, and eat in this posture, holding up the food in their fore-paws. They also walk on the hind-feet, with support of the tail, when they carry materials to their buildings, except branches, which are dragged. They have considerable power in the tail, and not unfrequently flap it, which has given rise to an opinion, perhaps not altogether erroneous, that they use their tails for plastering their buildings, or beating and adjusting the mud which is employed in them.

Beavers do not usually eat in their lodges, but in holes or burrows in the bank of the river, the entrance to which is from beneath the water, and which thence proceed obliquely upwards, often to a distance of many feet. To these holes the beavers also flee when their lodge is broken up; and it is therefore a common practice of the B. hunters to break up the B. lodges, that they may take the animals in their holes or vaults. Beavers are also taken by nets and traps.

It is chiefly in winter that beavers congregate together. During summer, they wander about a little. The young are generally produced in April or May, from two to seven at a birth. Their eyes are open when they are born.

Single beavers are frequently met with, which live apart from all others of their species. All of these are males, which, it is supposed, have been conquered and driven away by others of their sex.

In the parts of North America where beavers have now become rare, they live mostly in burrows in the river-banks, like those which are still found in Europe. Circumstances prevent them from following out their gregarious tendencies. That the beavers of Europe and Asia construct lodges and dams, when they have opportunity of congregating in sufficient numbers, appears to be no less certain than that those of America do so.

Large glandular pouches, two in number, closely connected with the organs of reproduction, contain the substance called *Castoreum* (q. v.). Its uses in the animal economy are by no means well known; they are probably analogous to those of musk, civet, &c.; but its peculiar pungent odour is so attractive to beavers, that use is made of it as a bait for B. traps.

The B. is very easily tamed; but no wooden cage will keep one confined. Except in the extraordinary building instincts already noticed, the animal exhibits no remarkable sagacity.— The use of the B.'s fur for making hats is well known. See HAT. An act of the English parliament, in 1638, prohibiting the use of any other material for hat-making, contributed to the rapid diminution of the number of beavers in the parts of North America from which their skins were then obtained. During great part of the 18th, and the earlier part of the 19th c., the number of B. skins annually exported from America appears to have been not less than 200,000. It is now greatly diminished, but is still large. The flesh of the B. is much esteemed as an article of food by trappers and others who frequent the fur-countries, but it is very oily.

Fossil remains of beavers, apparently of the same species with that now existing, are found in the

deposits referred by geologists to the pliocene and pleistocene periods. Other remains are also found of a much larger animal of the B. kind, which must have existed in Europe and Asia along with the present species, but which seems to have become extinct before the historic period. They were different, however, not merely in size, but in other particulars so important, that Owen has constituted for the 'great B.' a distinct genus, *Trogontherium* (Gr., a chewing or gnawing beast).

Of existing animals, the most closely allied to the B. is the *Coypu* (q. v.), sometimes called the Chilian B. (*Myopotamus Coypus*), which yields the fur called *Racoonda* (q. v.).

BEA'VER. See HELMET.

BEA'VER WOOD. See MAGNOLIA.

BEBEE'RINE is one of the alkaloids, and is obtained from the greenheart bark or *bebeeru* of Demerara. It is used in medicine in place of quinine, which it resembles in properties, though it is not so powerful in its action as a tonic and febrifuge. The condition in which it is generally sent into market is as the sulphate of B., occurring in shining scales of a pretty brown colour, and soluble in water.

BEBEE'RU, BEEBEE'RU, or BIBI'RI. See GREENHEART.

BECCAFI'CO (*Sylvia hortensis*, or *Curruca hortensis*), a little bird of the family of the *Sylviadæ*, or Warblers (q. v.), sometimes called the Pettychaps, and sometimes the Garden Warbler, rather rare in Britain, but abundant in some of the more southern parts of Europe, and in great demand for the table in Italy, its flesh being regarded as of peculiar delicacy. It is a mere summer bird of passage, however, not only in Britain, but even in the south of Europe. The upper parts are mostly of a brown colour, the lower parts whitish. It is a bird of very pleasing song. B. is an Italian name, and is sometimes extended to other birds of the same family used for the table.

BECCAMOSCHI'NO (*Sylvia cisti'cola*), a little bird of the family of the Warblers, found in Italy, and remarkable for its nest, which resembles that of the tailor-birds, being usually placed in a bush of lengthened herbage, the leaves and stalks drawn together over it, and a flooring formed for it by leaves curved across below, and sewed together generally with some kind of vegetable fibres.

BECCARI'A, CESARE BONESANA, a political and philanthropic writer, was born at Milan 1735 or 1738. The opinions of the French encyclopædists, especially those of Montesquieu, had the greatest influence in the formation of his principles and sentiments. The work which most favourably exhibits the character and genius of B. is his *Trattato dei Delitti e delle Pene* (Treatise on Crimes and Punishments), first published in 1764, in which he argues against the severities and abuses of criminal law, especially capital punishment and torture. The work was extremely popular, and was translated into several European languages. It is marked by eloquence, sensibility, and lively power of imagination. Kant unfairly accuses the author of an affected humanity, though it must be admitted that the German philosopher has exposed the invalidity of some of the arguments brought forward. On the whole, however, the work of B. is acknowledged to have done great good, and the subsequent reforms in the penal code of European nations have generally taken the direction he has pointed out. He was among the first to advocate the beneficial influence of education in lessening crime. This naturally brought upon him the hatred of the priesthood, who, according to their usual formula of persecution, accused him of impiety; but their malice was frustrated by the efforts of Count Firmian, the Austrian governor of Lombardy, a man of liberal and enlightened sentiments. In 1768, B. was appointed Professor of Political Philosophy at Milan, and achieved great success as a lecturer. He died of apoplexy in November 1793. In the course of his life he published several works.

BEC-FIN, the common French name for different species of birds of the family of *Sylviadæ*, or Warblers (q. v.). It is sometimes to be met with in English books.

BÊCHE-DE-MER, or TREPANG, an article of luxury among the Chinese, consisting of the dried bodies of several species of *Holothuria* (q. v.), or Sea-cucumber, which are found in great abundance in the shallow waters of lagoons, and on reefs, from the south-eastern coasts of Asia to New Holland. The traffic in B. is very extensive, and the Malays catch the animals, and prepare them in large quantities for the Chinese market. They are usually about 8 or 9 inches long, but some are 2 feet in length, and 7 or 8 inches in girth. They are often found nearly buried in the coral sand, their feathered tentacula alone floating above it. The larger ones are sometimes speared in shallow water; but most of them are taken by divers in depths of from 3 to 5 fathoms. An expert diver will bring up eight or ten at a time. They are split down one side, boiled, pressed flat with stones, dried in the sun, and afterwards in smoke, and packed in bags, in which state they are bought by the Chinese, and conveyed in junks to China. Fleets of Malay prahus are employed in the search for this curious production of the sea. Macassar is the great staple-place of the trade, and from it above 8000 cwt. of B. are annually sent to China, the price varying, according to the kind and quality, from thirty shillings to twenty guineas per cwt. There is also a considerable export of B. from Manilla. B. is extremely gelatinous, and is very much used by the Chinese as an ingredient in rich soups.

BECHER, JOHANN JOACHIM, author of the first theory of chemistry, was born at Speier in 1635. In his youth, he had many difficulties to contend with, but his zeal and perseverance overcame them all. He acquired an extensive knowledge of medicine, physics, chemistry, and even politics, and in 1660, was made a member of the Imperial Council at Vienna. While residing in this city, he assisted in establishing several manufactures, and drew up the plan of an East Indian commercial society, but unfortunately he fell into disgrace, and had to leave the city. He next went to Mainz, and subsequently lived in Munich, Würzburg, Haarlem, and finally London, where he died in 1682. He had many enemies, and was accused—not altogether unjustly—of charlatanry. Nevertheless, he rendered important services to chemistry. His *Physica Subterranea* was the first attempt made to bring physics and chemistry into close relation; in these two he sought the causes of all the inorganic phenomena in the world. He at the same time began to construct a theory of chemistry, and also investigated the process of combustion. B. taught that every metal was composed of an earthy substance common to all metals; of a combustible principle also identical in all; and was differentiated from other metals only by the possession of a peculiar mercurial element; when a metal was heated, until it had changed its form, the mercurial substance was discharged, and nothing remained except metallic calx. Herein lies the first germ of Stahl's phlogistic theory, which obtained universal currency until the time of Lavoisier.

BECHUANS. See Betjuans.

BECKER, Gottfried Wilhelm, a German author, born at Leipsic in 1778, entered the university of that city with the view of studying medicine, and having taken his doctor's degree in 1801, settled there as a practising physician and a writer of medical works, several of which reached many editions. The wars of the period led him, however, to turn his attention to history and modern languages, and he became well known by his contributions to periodicals, his series of popular histories, and his translations from the English, French, and Italian. In 1833, B. entirely relinquished practising medicine, and devoting himself to literature, became a fertile and admired contributor to many of its more popular branches. He died at Leipsic, 17th January 1854. He published several attractive volumes of travels in his own country, peculiarly adapted to the young, among which we may instance his *Tour to the Harz, Sketches of Southern Germany*, &c. His historical writings, which are not less numerous, chiefly narrate the events of his own time. Amongst them we may particularise *Andreas Hofer, Egypt as it Now is, The Fate of Spain in Modern Times*, &c. In light literature, also, he was very successful as a translator. All his works have been published at Leipsic.

BECKER, John Philip, one of the most active Radical politicians of late years, was born, March 1809, at Frankenthal, in the Palatinate on the Rhine, and brought up as a brushmaker. The French revolution of July 1830 gave a political bias to his tendencies, and he took part in the political agitations of the day, in consequence of which he was imprisoned; but in 1833 he was released, and exerted himself warmly on behalf of his brothers in opinion. In 1837, he settled in Switzerland, taking a part in several Radical publications, and organising, in 1838 and 1845, volunteer corps. In the autumn of 1847, he was summoned to the military bureau at Berne, and being chosen adjutant of Ochsenbein's division, fought against the Sonderbund with acknowledged bravery. Upon the failure of Hecker's attempt to revolutionise Baden in 1848, B., who had organised troops for his support, returned to Switzerland, to plan an expedition of German and Swiss auxiliaries, to support the cause of freedom in Rome and Sicily. Their movements being frustrated, he led his troops in the summer of 1849 into the Palatinate and the Duchy of Baden, where a rising had taken place, and acted a prominent part in many engagements. Subsequently, he settled in Geneva, and engaged successfully in commerce. A history of the revolution of 1849, in Southern Germany, has been published by him and Esselen. B. is a man of strong and hardy frame, and for prudence and decision, ranks high among the leaders of the revolutionary party.

BECKER, Karl Ferdinand, born at Leipsic in 1804, may be named with Kiesewetter and Winterfeld as one of the best German writers on the history of music, and also as an excellent composer for the organ, as is proved by his trios and other compositions well adapted to the genius of the instrument. Among his works may be mentioned: a *Choral-book*, or collection of psalm and hymn tunes (Leipsic, 1844); *Choral Melodies* for Spitta's Psalter and Harp, 1841; a *Catalogue* of his musical library, one of the most ex ve in Germany; *On the Choral Collections o Christian Churches*, 1841; *The Choral C of the 16th and 17th Centuries*, 1847; *Composers of the 19th Century*, 1849.

BECKER, Karl Ferdinand, one distinguished German philologists, Liser, in the old electorate of Treves, in 1775. At first a teacher, he afterwards studied medicine, and ultimately settled as a practitioner at Offenbach. Here he educated his own children with such success that several families induced him to take charge of theirs, and thus his house was converted into an academy (1823), which he conducted till his death in 1849. This gave scope to his early predilection for linguistic studies, to which his scientific training led him to give a quite new direction. B. contemplates language as an *organism*, pervaded by strict logical laws. From this point of view, he wrote his *Deutsche Grammatik* (2d ed., 1842). He neglects too much the historical development of language, and thus, as might be expected, comes at times into conflict with the results of comparative philology; yet his work is valuable for its logical consequence, and for its leading idea of organism in language. Besides a *Schulgrammatik* (8th ed., 1862), which is an outline of his larger work, he published several other treatises on the German language.

BECKER, Wilhelm Adolf, a distinguished German author, was born at Dresden in 1796. Originally intended for commercial life, he soon abandoned a pursuit which he found uncongenial to his tastes, and devoted his time to the acquisition of learning. In 1816, he came to Leipsic, where he studied theology, and more particularly philology. In 1840, he travelled through Italy; and in 1842, was appointed Professor of Archæology at the university of Leipsic, where his prelections on the Latin authors were numerously attended. He died at Meissen, 30th September 1846. His lively fancy, aided by a thorough knowledge of the classic languages, enabled him to make quite a novel use of antiquity. In his *Charicles* (Leip. 1840), he ventured to reproduce the social life of old Greece; and in his *Gallus* (Leip. 1838), to give sketches of the Augustan age at Rome. The learning which he has contrived to stuff into his picturesque sentences is marvellous, not to speak of the quantity buried in his *excursus*, or disquisitions, which, in the English translation of the works by Metcalfe, are transferred from the text to the end of the volumes. Lockhart's *Valerius* is the only thing in English literature which corresponds to these compositions of the German author. B.'s treatise, *De Comicis Romanorum Fabulis* (Leip. 1837), is a valuable contribution to the history of Roman dramatic poetry. His most important work, in a scholastic point of view, is his *Handbook of Roman Antiquities* (1843–1846), which, after his death, was continued by Marquardt.

BECKERATH, Hermann von, one of the most remarkable public characters of Germany, was born at Krefeld (in Prussia), December 1801. He sprang from a commercial family, and made a considerable fortune as a banker. But he gave himself also to pursuits of a more intellectual character, and especially to the studies of jurisprudence and politics. The accession of Frederick-William IV. to the throne roused B. to a sense of the political condition of his country, and he devoted himself to work out its constitutional freedom. In 1843, he was elected representative of his native town in the provincial diet, and continued for several years to take a prominent part in Prussian politics. He was a deputy in the National Assembly which sprang up in the eventful year 1848, and held its sittings at Frankfort. His eloquence exercised considerable influence on bly. He was appointed minister of finance, after called to Berlin, to construct a this he failed. His strictly consti- not apparently agreeable to the ed to Frankfort. An advocate

for German unity, it was he who made use of the expression: 'This waiting for Austria is death to the union of Germany.' But he refused his assent to any revolutionary measure. When the retrograde movement set in, he resigned the posts he held under government, but continued, as a member of the second Prussian chamber, a vigorous opposition to the Manteuffel ministry, which had deserted the cause of German unity. He withdrew from the arena of political strife in 1852. After the return of Manteuffel to power, in 1858, B. was again elected a member of the Prussian second chamber; but he was obliged to decline the honour, on account of failing health. He devoted his later years to the affairs of Krefeld, his native town, where he died in May 1870.

BECKET, THOMAS A', Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of a merchant, and was born in London in 1119. The story which makes his mother a Saracen is charmingly romantic, but there are doubts if it has any historical basis. He studied theology at Oxford and Paris, and afterwards law at Bologna, and at Auxerre, in Burgundy. Having been recommended to Henry II. by Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, who had had experience of his abilities, B. was promoted to the office of high chancellor, and thus (according to Thierry) resuscitated the hopes of the English as the first native Englishman, since the Conquest, who had filled any high office. His duties as high chancellor were numerous and burdensome, but he discharged them vigorously. He was magnificently liberal in his hospitality. Henry himself did not live in a more sumptuous manner. As yet, B. seems to have regarded himself as a mere layman, though, in point of fact, he was a deacon; but in 1162, when he was created Archbishop of Canterbury (an office which, as it then involved the abbacy of the cathedral monastery, had never but twice before been held by any but a monk or canon-regular), a remarkable change became manifest in his whole deportment. He resigned the chancellorship, threw aside suddenly his luxurious and courtly habits, assumed an austere religious character, exhibited his liberality only in his 'charities,' and soon appeared as a zealous champion of the church against all aggressions by the king and the nobility. Several noblemen and laymen were excommunicated for their alienation of church property. Henry II., who, like all the Norman kings, endeavoured to keep the clergy in subordination to the state, convoked the nobility with the clergy to a council in 1164, at Clarendon (near Salisbury), where the so-called 'constitutions' (or laws relative to the respective powers of church and state) were adopted. To these, the primate, at first, declared he would never consent; but afterwards, through the efforts of the nobles, some of the bishops, and, finally, of the pope himself, he was induced to give his unwilling approbation. Henry now began to perceive that B.'s notions and his were utterly antagonistic, and clearly exhibited his hostility to the prelate, whereupon B. tried to leave the country. For this offence the king charged B. with breach of allegiance, in a parliament summoned at Northampton in 1164, confiscated his goods, and sequestered the revenues of his see. A claim was also made on him for not less than 44,000 marks, as the balance due by him to the crown when he ceased to be chancellor. B. appealed to the pope, and next day leaving Northampton in disguise, fled to France, where he spent two years in retirement at Pontigny, in Burgundy. The French monarch and the pope, however, now took up his cause. B. went to Rome, pleaded personally before his holiness, who reinstated him in the see of Canterbury. B. now returned to France, whence he wrote angry letters to the English bishops, threatening them with excommunication. Several efforts were made to reconcile Henry and B., which, however, proved futile; but at length, in 1170, a formal agreement was come to at Fretville, on the borders of Touraine. The result was, that B. returned to England, entering Canterbury amid the rejoicings of the people, who were unquestionably proud of B., and regarded him—whether wisely or not is another question—as a shield from the oppressions of the nobility; but he soon manifested all his former boldness of opposition to royal authority. At last, it is said, the king, while in Normandy, expressed impatience that none of his followers would rid him of an insolent priest. The fatal suggestion was immediately understood, and carried into effect by four barons, who departed by separate ways for England. On the evening of the 29th December 1170, they entered the cathedral, and having failed in an attempt to drag him out of the church, there slew B. before the altar of St Benedict, in the north transept. Henry was compelled to make heavy concessions to avoid the ban of excommunication. The murderers, having repaired to Rome as penitents, were sent on a pilgrimage to Palestine; and, two years after his death, B. was canonised by Pope Alexander III., and the anniversary of his death was set apart as the yearly festival of St Thomas of Canterbury. In 1220, his bones were raised from the grave in the crypt where they had been hastily buried two days after his murder, and were by order of King Henry III. deposited in a splendid shrine, which for three centuries continued to be the object of one of the great pilgrimages of Christendom, and still lives in English literature in connection with Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. At the Reformation, Henry VIII. despoiled the shrine, erased B.'s name from the calendar, and caused his bones to be burnt and scattered to the winds. It is extremely difficult to estimate properly the character of Becket. We do not know what his ultimate aims were, whether, as some suppose, they were patriotic, i. e., *Saxon*, as opposed to *Norman*, or, as others believe, purely sacerdotal. At all events, the means he used for the attainment of them was a despotic and irresponsible ecclesiasticism. He admitted nothing done by churchmen to be secular, or within the jurisdiction of civil courts, not even murder or larceny. Fortunately, the Plantagenets were as dogged believers in their own powers and privileges as B. in those of the church; and by their obstinate good sense, England was ever kept in a state of wholesome jealousy of the pretensions of the Roman see. See Dr Giles's *Vita et Epistolæ S. Thomæ Cantuariensis* (6 vols. 8vo); Canon Morris's *Life of St Thomas Becket;* Canon Robertson's *Life of Becket;* Canon Stanley's *Historical Memorials of Canterbury;* J. G. Nichols's *Pilgrimages of Walsingham and Canterbury.*

BECKETS, on shipboard, a general name for any large hooks, short pieces of rope, or wooden brackets, used for confining ropes, tackles, oars, or spars, in a convenient place.

BECKFORD, WILLIAM, the [illegible] of Alderman Beckford, was bor[illegible] he was about nine years of [illegible] and he inherited the larger [illegible] property, consisting for [illegible] Jamaica, and of the esta[illegible] in His annual revenue is said to have [illegible] Young B. evinced unusual intellect[illegible] for in 1780 he printed a satirical *Biographical Memoirs of Extraordi[illegible]* which he does not spare li[illegible] the cant of criticism wi[illegible]

his wit. In 1778 he visited the continent, and met Voltaire at Paris. Two years thereafter, he started on his first great continental tour, and spent twelve months in rambling through Flanders, Germany, and Italy. In 1782 he made a second visit to Italy, and in 1787 he wandered through Portugal and Spain. In 1783 he married the Lady Margaret Gordon, daughter of Charles, fourth Earl of Aboyne; and in the following year he entered parliament as one of the members for Wells. In the same year he published *Vathek* in French. B. informs us that he wrote this tale, as it now stands, at twenty-two years of age, and that it was composed at one sitting. 'It took me,' he says, 'three days and two nights of hard labour. I never took off my clothes the whole time. This severe application made me very ill.' Immediately on its publication, *Vathek* was translated into English; B. professes never to have known the translator, but thought his work well done. In 1790 he sat for Hindon; in 1794 he accepted the Chiltern Hundreds, and again left England. He fixed his residence in Portugal, purchased an estate, and busied himself in the erection of the 'paradise' which Byron commemorated in *Childe Harold*. Tormented by unrest, he returned to England; and in 1801 the splendid furniture of Fonthill was sold by auction, and the next year his valuable collection of pictures was disposed of in London. These dispersions were no sooner made than he began a new collection of books, pictures, furniture, curiosities, and proceeded to erect a new building at Fonthill, the most prominent feature of which was a tower above 260 feet high. B. resided at Fonthill till 1822, when in one of those strange vagaries of feeling, of which his life was so full, he sold the estate and house, with all its rare and far-gathered contents, to Colonel Farquhar for £350,000. Soon after, the great tower, which had been raised on an insecure foundation, came to the ground. On the sale of Fonthill, B. removed to Bath, and immediately proceeded to erect another lofty building, the plan of which also included a tower, but this time not more than 100 feet high. While residing there, he did not mingle in Bath society, and the most improbable stories concerning the rich and morose genius in their neighbourhood were circulated among the citizens, and were believed by them. During all his life, B. was a hard-working student, and was devoured by a passion for books. Some of his purchases were perfectly imperial in their way. He bought Gibbon's library at Lausanne, to amuse himself when he happened to be in that neighbourhood. He went there; read in the fierce way that he wrote, three days and two nights at a sitting; grew weary of his purchase; and handed it over to his physician, Dr Scholl. Up till 1834 he had published nothing since *Vathek*, but in that year the literary silence of half a century was broken by the appearance of a series of letters, entitled *Italy, with Sketches of Spain and Portugal*, in two volumes. In the same year he republished his *Memoirs of Extraordinary Painters*; and in 1835 he issued another volume, entitled *Recollections of an Excursion to the Monasteries of Alcobaca and Batalha*, made in June 1794. From the period of this last publication till his death, which took place on the 2d of May 1844, he lived in the deepest retirement.

B., since the publication of his Arabian tale, has been a power in English literature. His wit, his sarcasm, his power of graphic description, may be seen in his journal and letters; and his higher faculties of imaginative conception and delineation reign in the unmatched passages that shadow forth in gloom and glory the 'Hall of Eblis.'

BECKMANN, Johann, a German author, known by his works on natural history and agriculture, was born at Hoya, in Hanover, June 4, 1739. After holding, for about two years, a professorship of physics and natural history in St Petersburg, he made a tour through Sweden, where he gained an acquaintance with the working of mines, and received for some time instructions from Linnæus. In 1766 he was appointed professor of philosophy, and in 1770 ordinary professor of political economy at Göttingen, where he died, February 4, 1811. He was the first German author who wrote on agriculture in a scientific style. Among his works may be mentioned: *Principles of German Agriculture* (6th ed. 1806), *Introduction to Technology* (5th ed. 1809), *Introduction to the Science of Commerce* (1789), *and Contributions to the History of Inventions* (1780–1805).

BECQUEREL, Antoine César, a distinguished French physicist, was born 7th March 1788, at Chatillon-sur-Loing, in the department of Loiret. In 1808, he entered the French army as an officer of engineers, and served with distinction in Spain under Marshal Suchet. He took part in the sieges of Tortosa, Tarragona, Valencia, and other places. On his return to France, he was appointed inspector of the *Ecole Polytechnique*; in 1814, he went through the campaign of France; and at the peace of 1815, retired from the service, that he might pursue his scientific studies with greater advantage. In 1819, he published a volume of geological and mineralogical researches, after which, his attention was principally devoted to electricity and magnetism. While studying the physical properties of yellow amber, B. had occasion to make experiments on the liberation of electricity by pressure. This led him to investigate the laws by which the phenomena of liberation are governed in chemical action. The result of his inquiries was the overthrow of Volta's theory of contact, and the construction, by him, of the first constant pile. He next discovered a method of determining the internal temperature of human and animal bodies, and by physiological applications demonstrated that, when a muscle contracts, there is a development of heat. B. is besides one of the creators of electro-chemistry. His labours in this branch of science opened for him, in 1829, the door of the *Académie de Sciences*. Since 1828, he had begun to apply electro-chemistry in the reproduction of mineral substances, and in the treatment by the humid way of silver, lead, and copper ores. In 1837 he was elected a member of the Royal Society of London. Among his earlier works were the *Traité de l'Electricité et du Magnetisme* (1834–1840); *Traité d'Electrochimie*; and the *Traité de Physique considérée dans ses Rapports avec la Chimie et les Sciences Naturelles*.—**Becquerel, Alexandre Edmond**, son of Antoine César B., an eminent physicist, was born at Paris, 24th March 1820. He was decorated with the Legion of Honour in 1851; and was appointed Professor of Physics in the *Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers*, 1853. He is a member of the *Académie des Sciences*. To his conjoint labours with his father are due interesting researches concerning the solar spectrum, and the elements of electric light (*Comptes Rendues de l'Académie*, 1839–1840); *Elémenta de Physique Terrestre et de Météorologie* (1847); *Memoires sur les Lois qui président à la Decomposition électro-chimique des Corps* (1849); and a *Note sur le tracé des Lignes Isothermes en France; des Recherches sur les Effets Electriques produits au contact des Corps Solides et Liquides en Mouvement* (1852 and 1853).

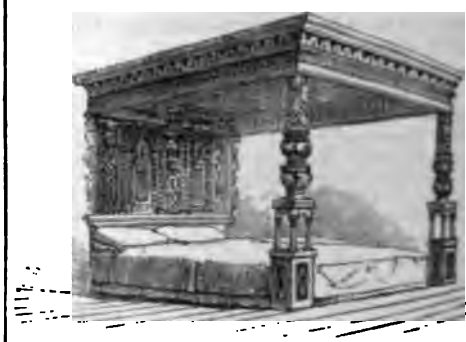
BECSKEREK NAGY, or **GREAT BECSKEREK**, a town of Hungary, in the county of Torontal, situated on the left bank of the Bega, about 45

miles south-west of Temesvar, with which place it is connected by canal. B. N. is an important market-town, and has a population (1869) of 19,666.

BED (with some variations in spelling, the word is common to all Germanic languages), an article of household furniture on which to sleep. Beds have been, and are of various forms, almost every country having its own kind of bed. In ancient times in Palestine, the B. seems to have been a simple kind of couch for reclining on during the day, and sleeping on at night, and readily removable from place to place, as is referred to in different parts of Scripture. About the heat of the day, Ishbosheth lay on his B. at noon (2 Sam. iv. 5). In receiving visitors, the king bowed himself upon the bed (1 Kings i. 47). Jesus saith, 'Take up thy B., and go unto thine house' (Mat. ix. 6). Yet, in these early times, beds or couches must, in some instances, have been highly ornamented: thus, 'I have decked my B. with coverings of tapestry, with carved works, with fine linen of Egypt' (Prov. vii. 16). The ancient Greeks had an elegant kind of beds in the form of open couches; they rested on a frame-work with posts; their mattresses were stuffed with wool or feathers; and they had coverings of a costly nature. The Romans had latterly beds of great richness and magnificence. They were of two kinds—the *lectus tricliniaris*, or couch for reclining upon at meals; and the *lectus cubicularis*, or B. placed in bed-chambers for sleeping in during the night. In eastern countries, at the present day, beds are for the most part simple couches or mattresses, which can be easily rolled up and carried away. In India, these couches are called *charpoys*. It will be understood that, in hot climates, few bed-clothes are used—in general, there being only a single sheet employed; care is taken, however, to use mosquito-curtains, without which rest would be impracticable. See MOSQUITO.

Throughout the continent of Europe, beds are of the open couch form, suitable in width for one person. They consist of a frame or bedstead, less or more ornamental, bearing one or two hair or wool mattresses; they are often provided with curtains, which depend from the ceiling of the room. In French hotels, such beds, neatly done up, are seen in sitting-rooms. In Germany, there is a common practice of placing large flat bags of down above the other coverings of beds, for the sake of warmth; and sometimes a bed of down altogether supplies the place of blankets. Throughout America, the beds are usually of the French, or open couch, form. The simplest kind of B. yet invented—except, indeed, the Oriental rug spread on the floor—is one frequently to be seen in America. The bedstead consists of a folding tressel, constructed with canvas on the principle of a camp-stool, with a movable head-board at one end to retain the pillow. With a hair-mattress, a pillow, and the necessary coverings laid on it, this makes one of the most comfortable beds imaginable. Its great advantage consists in its being easily folded up and put away in small space. In some of the hotels in the United States, when the arrival of guests exceeds the ordinary accommodation, a number of tressel-beds can be improvised in a few minutes in one of the large halls.

To prevent the falling of dust on the face, the Romans, in some instances, used canopies (*aulæa*) over their beds; in no country but England, however, has the canopied bedstead been thoroughly perfected and naturalised. The English four-posted B., or B. proper, is a gigantic piece of furniture, to which all persons aspire; and when tastefully fitted up, it offers that degree of comfort and seclusion which is characteristic of the domestic habits of the people. Like most English beds, it is made of sufficient size to accommodate two persons—the husband and wife—and is hence known as the family-bed. The dimensions of a good family B. are as follow: lying part, 6 feet 6 inches in length, by 5 feet 2 inches in breadth; height from the floor, 2 feet 9 inches; height of the posts from the floor to the top of the cornice, 9 feet. The roof or canopy is supported by the four posts, which are of mahogany, finely turned and carved. On rods along the cornice, hang curtains, which can be drawn around the sides and foot. The top stands towards the wall, so that the B. can be approached on the two sides. The curtains are composed of silk or worsted damask; in old times, they were of tapestry. With a spring-mattress below, and a wool-mattress above, the B. is complete, all but the blankets, sheets, bolster, and pillows. Ticks with feathers, laid on a hair-mattress, are also common. Fully equipped, a B., as just described, costs from £50 to £90. The great B. at Ware, in Hertfordshire, is one of the curiosities



Bed of Ware.

of England, and is referred to in the *Twelfth Night* of Shakspeare: 'Although the sheet were big enough for the Bed of Ware in England.' This famous B., which is still seen in one of the inns at Ware, measures twelve feet square, and is said to be capable of holding a dozen persons.

Latterly, a species of B. has been introduced into England, called the Elizabethan Bed. In point of size, it resembles the four-poster, but it has only two tall posts, with a canopy and curtains at the head, leaving more than half of the B. exposed. The tent-B. is an inferior kind of four-poster; it has a semi-circular light frame roof, and light calico curtains. A more novel variety of bedsteads are those made of iron or brass, formed like open couches, and adapted for cottages in summer, but not likely to come generally into use. The cold and humid climate of the British islands, independently of the habits of the people, has greatly influenced the form of the B.; for although it may be more wholesome to sleep without than with curtains, it will be difficult to introduce the practice of doing so, particularly during the winter and spring months. In the humbler class of rural cottages in Scotland, there still lingers the old custom of sleeping in wooden bedsteads with sliding doors. This box variety of B. is considered as unfavourable to ventilation, but it is the only kind of sleeping-place which is endurable where there are damp earthen floors and imperfect ceilings. Its use is disappearing in the progress of cottage improvement.

In old times in England, beds were formed with straw instead of wool, hair, or feathers, as at present; hence the phrase of a 'lady in the straw,' signifying that she is being confined. By the

humbler classes in the rural districts, straw is still used for beds, and also ticks stuffed with chaff. According to an old superstition, no person could die calmly on a B. of feathers of game birds.

For invalids, there have been invented air-beds and water-beds, which are now in use, and justly appreciated. See AIR-BED, also WATER-BED.

BED, or **STRATUM**, is a layer of sedimentary rock of similar materials, and of some thickness, cohering together so as to be quarried and lifted in single blocks. Beds are often composed of many fine laminæ or plates. The laminæ are the results of intermissions in the supply of materials, produced by such causes as the ebb and flow of the tide, river-floods, or the more or less turbid state of the water under which they were deposited. When the intervals between the supply of materials were short, the numerous laminæ closely adhere, and form a bed cut off from the superior deposit, by the occurrence of a longer interval, during which the bed became consolidated more or less before the next was deposited. When the lamination is obscure, or not distinct from the stratification, it would seem to indicate that the materials had been supplied without any intermission.

BED OF JUSTICE (Fr. *lit de justice*), literally, the seat or throne occupied by the French monarch when he was present at the deliberations of parliament. Historically, a B. of J. signified a solemn session, in which the king was present, to overrule the decisions of parliament, and to enforce the acceptance of edicts or ordinances which it had previously rejected. The theory of the old French constitution was, that the authority of parliament was derived solely from the crown: consequently, when the king, the source of authority, was present, that which was delegated ceased. Acknowledging such a principle, the parliament was logically incapable of resisting any demand that the king in a B. of J. might make, and decrees promulgated during a sitting of this kind were held to be of more authority than ordinary decisions of parliament. Monarchs were not slow to take advantage of this power to overawe any parliament that exhibited signs of independence. The last B. of J. was held by Louis XVI. at Versailles in September 1787.

BEDA, or **BEDE** (surnamed, on account of his learning, piety, and talents, VENERABLE), the greatest name in the ancient literature of Britain, and probably the most distinguished scholar in the world of his age, was born about the year 673 A.D. The exact spot of his birth is a point in dispute among antiquaries, but is commonly believed to have been in what is now the parish of Monkton, near Wearmouth, in Durham. In his seventh year he entered the neighbouring monastery of St Peter, at Wearmouth, where he remained for 13 years, and was educated under the care of the Abbot Benedict Biscop, and his successor, Ceolfrid. His religious instructor was the monk Trumberct; his music-master, John, chief-singer (*archicantor*) in St Peter's Church, Rome, who had been called to England by the Abbot Benedict. After these studies at Wearmouth, B. removed to the twin monastery of St Paul at Gyrwum (now written Jarrow), founded in 682; here he took deacon's orders in his nineteenth year, and was ordained priest in his thirtieth, by John of Beverley, then bishop of Hexham. In the shelter of his quiet and sacred retreat, while the tempest of barbaric strife raged without, and the hearts of all men in England were torn by sanguinary passions, B. now began earnestly to consecrate his life to such literature as was possible in those days, including Latin and Greek, and at least some acquaintance with Hebrew, medicine, astronomy, and prosody. He wrote homilies, lives of saints, hymns, epigrams, works on chronology and grammar, and comments on the books of the Old and New Testament. His calm and gentle spirit, the humanising character of his pursuits, and the holiness of his life, present a striking contrast to the violence and slaughter which prevailed in the whole island. To none is the beautiful language of Scripture more applicable—'a light shining in a dark place.' When labouring under disease, and near the close of his life, he engaged in a translation of St John's Gospel into Anglo-Saxon, and dictated his version to his pupils. He died May 26, 735, and was buried in the monastery of Jarrow; long afterwards (in the middle of the 11th c.), his bones were removed to Durham. His most valuable work is the *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*, an ecclesiastical history of England, in five books, to which we are indebted for almost all our information on the ancient history of England down to 731 A.D. B. gained the materials for this work partly from Roman writers, but chiefly from native chronicles and biographies, records, and public documents, and oral and written communications from his contemporaries. King Alfred translated it into Anglo-Saxon. In chronology, the labours of B. were important, as he first introduced the Dionysian reckoning of dates in his work, *De Sex Ætatibus Mundi*, which served as a basis for most of the medieval chroniclers of leading events in the world's history. Among the editions of B.'s History may be noticed: the first, published at Strasburg about 1500; a much better edition, by Smith (Cambridge, 1722); one not less valuable, by Stevenson (Lond. 1838); another, by the late Dr Hussey (Oxf. 1846); a fourth in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica* (Lond. 1848); and that included by Dr Giles in his edition of the whole works of B., with an English translation of the historical parts (6 vols., Lond. 1843-1844). Entire editions of B.'s writings have been published in Paris (1544-1554), Basel (1563), and Cologne (1612 and 1688). English versions of his *Ecclesiastical History* were published by Stapleton, in 1565; by Stevens, in 1723; by Hurst, in 1814; by Wilcock, in 1818; and by Giles, in 1840. See Gehle's *De Bedæ Venerabilis Vita et Scriptis* (Leyden, 1838); Wright's *Biographia Britannica Literaria*, vol. i. (Lond. 1843); Surtees's *History of Durham*, vol. ii., pp. 2—6, 66—69.

BÉDARIEUX, a town of France, department of Herault, situated on the river Orb, well built, and second to none of its size in industry. Pop. (1872) 7374, who are engaged in the manufacture of fine and coarse cloths, stuffs, cotton and woollen stockings, hats, paper, oil, soap, leather, &c.

BEDCHAMBER, LORDS OF THE, officers in the British royal household, twelve in number, who, in the reign of a king, wait in turn upon the sovereign's person. They are under the groom of the stole, who attends his majesty only on state occasions. There are also thirteen grooms of the B., who take their turns of attendance. The salary of the groom of the stole is £2000; of the lords of the B., £1000; and of the grooms, £500 a year. These offices in the reign of a queen are performed by ladies. Corresponding to the groom of the stole is the mistress of the robes, and to the grooms of the B. are B. women. Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, has usually had from ten to twelve ladies, and extra ladies of the B., and eight B. women. These offices are objects of high ambition, from the access they give to the person of the sovereign, and are for the most part filled by 'the prime nobility of England.' They are not usually vacated on a

change of ministry, and Sir Robert Peel's departure from the usual etiquette on this point, in 1839, excited no small commotion.

BEDDOES, THOMAS, a physician of remarkable talents, and a popular writer on chemistry, physics, physiology, disease, &c., was born at Shiffnall, in Shropshire, 1760. In his studies at Oxford and Edinburgh, he distinguished himself by his knowledge of ancient and modern languages—the modern he acquired without the aid of a teacher—and by his varied attainments in botany, mineralogy, geology, chemistry, &c. In Edinburgh he attracted the notice of Dr Cullen, who employed him to add notes to Bergman's *Physical and Chemical Essays*. In 1785, he published a translation of Bergman's *Essays on Elective Attractions*, with valuable original notes. In 1787, he was appointed to the chemical lectureship in the university of Oxford. Here his lectures became exceedingly popular; but his unconcealed sympathies with the French revolutionary party in England, appear to have rendered his post so uncomfortable that he resigned it in 1792, and retired into the country. While in retirement, he wrote his work *On the Nature of Demonstrative Evidence, with an Explanation of Certain Difficulties occurring in the Elements of Geometry*, which was intended to shew that mathematical reasoning proceeds entirely on the evidence afforded by the senses, and that geometry is based on experiment. Several patriotic pamphlets followed, and the *History of Isaac Jenkins*, in which he laid down, in a popular style, rules of sobriety, health, &c., for the benefit of the working-classes. Of this work, 40,000 copies were sold in a short time. In 1798, after having spent considerable time in studying the use of artificial or medicated gases in the cure of diseases, especially consumption, aided by his father-in-law, Mr Edgeworth, and pecuniarily assisted by his friend, Thomas Wedgwood, he opened a pneumatic hospital at Bristol. This institution did not succeed in its main object, which was to shew that all diseases being, as B. maintained, referrible to an undue proportion or deficiency of some elementary principle in the human organism, could be cured by breathing a medicated atmosphere; and B., whose zeal had abated, retired from it about a year before his death, in 1808. The only results of the enterprise were several works by B. on the application of medicated air to diseases, and the introduction to the world of Davy (afterwards Sir Humphry), who was the superintendent of the institution. Sir Humphry Davy says of B.: 'He had talents which would have exalted him to the pinnacle of philosophical eminence, if they had been applied with discretion.' A life of B. was published in 1811 by Dr Stock.

BEDDOES, LOVELL THOMAS, eldest son of Dr Thomas B., and of Anna, third daughter of Richard Lovell Edgeworth, of Edgeworthstown, Ireland, sister of Maria Edgeworth, the distinguished novelist, was born at Rodney Place, Clifton, on the 20th July 1803. In 1809 Dr Beddoes died, leaving his son to the guardianship of Mr Davies Giddy, who, under his after-name of Sir Davies Gilbert, became the president of the Royal Society. By this gentleman, young B. was placed at the Bath grammar school; from thence, in 1817, he removed to the Charter House; and in May 1820, he entered as a commoner at Pembroke College, Oxford. In 1821 he published the *Improvisatore*. On this, his earliest poetic offspring, he looked with no favour at a later period, and was wont to hunt after stray copies in the libraries of his friends, and to disembowel them mercilessly when he effected a capture. In 1822 he published *The Bride's Tragedy*, which achieved for its author a great reputation. In 1824 he went to Göttingen to study medicine, and from this time forth continued to live in Germany and Switzerland, with occasional visits to England. While engaged at Frankfort (1847) in dissecting, he received a slight wound, which was the means of infusing a noxious virus into his system. His health now began to fail. In 1848 he went to Basel, where he fell from his horse, and injured his leg. An amputation following, he died on the 26th January 1849, and was buried in the cemetery of the hospital.

During his wanderings in Germany, B. was engaged at intervals in the composition of a drama entitled *Death's Jest-book*. This work, together with his other manuscripts, consisting chiefly of poetry, he, on his death-bed, confided to the care of a friend in England, desiring him to use his discretion as to their publication. In consequence, in 1851, his poetical works, with a memoir attached, appeared in two volumes. The merits of these dramatic fragments are quite peculiar. The author exhibits no power of characterisation, no ability in the conduct of a story; and, on the other hand, the crush of thought and image, the tone of music, and the depth of colour, are quite wonderful. Mr B. never could have become a dramatist, and of this, during his later years, he seems to have become aware. His works pall with splendour, and are monotonous by very richness. They are like a wilderness where nature has been allowed to pour herself forth in all her waste and tropical excess, unrestrained by a pruning hand, and unpierced by any path.

BEDEAU, MARIE ALPHONSE, a distinguished French general, was born at Verton, near Nantes, August 1804. In 1817 he entered the military school of La Flèche; in 1820, St Cyr; and in 1825 received a commission in the army. In the Belgian campaign of 1831—1832, he was aide-de-camp to General Gérard, and attracted notice at the siege of Antwerp. In 1836 he was sent to Algeria, as commandant of a battalion of the Foreign Legion. Here he acquired his great military reputation. He took part in most of the military operations by which the dominion of France was established over the natives, and rose to the rank of general of brigade. In 1847 he was for a short time governor of Algeria, but was superseded by the Duc d'Aumale.

When the revolution of February broke out, B., who was in Paris on leave of absence, was commissioned by Marshal Bugeaud to suppress the insurrection. This he found it impossible to do, but his conduct on the occasion has been severely blamed. By the Provisional Government he was appointed Minister of War, an office, however, which he immediately changed for the command of the city of Paris. On the formation of the Constituent Assembly, he was named vice-president, and always voted with the republican party. Along with Cavaignac, Lamoricière, and others, he was arrested on the 2d December 1851, and went into exile. B. was a Roman Catholic, and the fervour of his convictions gave rise to the groundless rumour that he had entered into holy orders. He died in 1863.

BEDEGU'AR, a remarkable gall (q.v.), often found on the branches of various species of rose, particularly of the sweet-brier, upon which account it is sometimes called Sweet-brier Sponge. It is produced sometimes by *Cynips rosæ*, sometimes by other species of gall insect. It is usually of a roundish shape, often an inch or more in diameter; its nucleus is spongy and fibrous, containing numerous cells, in each of which is a small larva; externally it is shaggy, being covered with moss-like branching

fibres, which are at first green, afterwards purple or red. It was formerly in some repute as a diuretic and as a remedy for stone; it has more recently been recommended as a vermifuge, and as a cure for toothache.

BEDELL, William, one of the best prelates that have adorned the English Church, was born at Black Notley, Essex, in 1570. He was educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and after his ordination, officiated as a clergyman for several years at Bury St Edmunds. In 1604, he accompanied Sir Henry Wotton as his chaplain to Venice. There he resided eight years, deeply engaged in study, and honoured by the friendship of many distinguished men, in particular of Father Paul Sarpi, then engaged in the composition of his celebrated *History of the Council of Trent*. While residing here, he translated the English *Common Prayer Book* into Italian, which was highly appreciated by many of the Venetian clergy. On his return home, he resumed his pastoral duties at Bury, where he lived for some time in such retirement, that when his friend Diodati came to England, he inquired in vain for the admirable B., whose merits were so well known at Venice. He had given up hopes of finding him, when one day he encountered him in the streets of London. In 1615, B. was presented to the living of Horingsheath, in Suffolk, where he remained twelve years. His retired life and his Calvinistic theology long hindered the recognition of his merits. At length, in 1627, he was unanimously elected provost of Trinity College, Dublin, to which the fame of his learning and piety had extended. He refused to undertake the charge till positively commanded by the king. At the end of two years, he was promoted to the united bishoprics of Kilmore and Ardagh, the latter of which he resigned in the following year, 1630. He immediately set himself to reform the crying abuses that prevailed in his diocese, and with so happy a combination of wisdom, firmness, and charity, that even his enemies were constrained to do homage to his virtues. Among his other remarkable acts, he removed his lay-chancellor, and took upon himself the ancient episcopal jurisdiction of hearing and deciding causes. The chancellor obtained a decree against him in Chancery, with costs, but was so impressed with the superiority of the bishop's services to his own, that he dropped his claim, and even appointed a surrogate, with orders to pay implicit obedience to the authority of the bishop. The translation of the Old Testament into Irish was accomplished under B.'s direction (the New had been already translated), as well as of some of the homilies of Chrysostom and Leo on the reading of the Scriptures. On the breaking out of the rebellion in 1641, his popularity for some time saved his family from violence, his being the only English house in the county of Cavan that was not plundered. At length, on his refusal to dismiss his clerk, he was seized, and imprisoned in the castle of Cloghboghter. Thence he was removed to the house of a Popish merchant, where he remained for some time, till his death, at the end of a few weeks, February 7, 1642, in the seventy-second year of his age. The rebels followed his body to the grave in the church yard of Kilmore. Besides many other works, B. translated the Book of Common Prayer, and Father Paul's History. His [illegible] was published, Boston.

BEDFORD (anciently *Bedanford*), a town of the county, the county town of Bedfordshire, is situated on the [illegible] bank of the river Ouse, a distance of 74 miles [illegible] north-north-west of London by road, and on the middle of a broad expanse of rich pasture, wheat, and barley lands. The town is clean and well paved, and the drainage has been recently greatly improved by the Board of Health. The charitable and educational institutions of B. are mostly due to Sir W. Harpur, alderman of London, in 1561, who founded a free school, and endowed it with 13 acres of land. The enormous increase in the value of the property (from £150 to £14,000 or upwards a year) enables the trustees to maintain grammar, modern, and preparatory schools for boys, the same class of schools for girls, and 45 alms-houses. Formerly, much of the charity was under the control of popularly elected trustees, but under the Endowed Schools Act the constitution has been changed. Now, the governing body consists of 27, instead of 52, members—6 *ex officio* (the mayor of B., the lord-lieutenant of the county, and the members of parliament for the town and county), 9 nominated, and 12 representative. The eleemosynary element shewn in the maintenance of alms-houses, the giving of marriage-portions and apprentice-fees, &c. used to be predominant in the distribution of the charity, but now the educational prevails, the funds being annually divided thus: One-eleventh to the maintenance of the alms-houses; two-elevenths to elementary education; four-elevenths to the grammar-school, and high-school for girls; and four-elevenths to the modern schools. The only important manufacture of B. is that of iron goods, especially agricultural implements. Lace-making and straw-plaiting employ many poor women and children. A considerable traffic in malt, timber, coals, and iron is maintained with Lynn Regis, by means of the Ouse. B. is of great antiquity, and is mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle under the name of Bedcanford, as the scene of a battle between the Britons and Saxons in 571. The Danes burnt it in 1010. Afterwards its old castle, said to be built by Edward the Elder, is frequently mentioned in history. B. has returned two members to parliament since 1295. Pop. (1871) 16,850. John Bunyan was born near Bedford. He dreamed his immortal dream in B. jail, and ministered to the Baptist congregation in Mill Lane from 1671 to his death in 1688. The inhabitants still hold his memory in deep veneration, and some relics of him are preserved. A handsome new building, Italian in style, for the Bunyan schools, was completed in 1867. A bronze statue of Bunyan was erected by the Duke of Bedford in 1874.

BEDFORD, Duke of. There have been two distinct dukedoms of B. That to be noticed here existed in the person of John Plantagenet, Regent of France, and third son of Henry IV. of England, who was born about 1389. During his father's lifetime, he was governor of Berwick upon Tweed, and warden of the Scottish marches. In 1414, the second year of his brother's reign, he was created Duke of B.; and he was made commander-in-chief of the forces in England while Henry V. was carrying on the war in France. After the death of Henry V. (1422), B., in accordance with the dying wish of the king, left the affairs of England in the hands of his brother Gloucester, and went to France to look after the interests of the infant prince, his nephew. The regency of France, in compliance with a request of his deceased brother, he offered to the Duke of Burgundy, who refused it, he then assumed it himself, but not without consulting Burgundy as to the best method of carrying out the treaty of Troyes, by which Charles VI. declared Henry V. next heir to the French crown. On the death of Charles VI., a few months after Henry V., B. had his nephew proclaimed king of France and England, as Henry VI. In the wars with the dauphin which follow[illegible] B. displayed great generalship, and defe[illegible]

south-south-west of Dijon. The town is well built; has a fine parish church, Notre Dame, founded in 976 by Duke Henri of Burgundy; and a splendid hospital, founded in 1443 by Nicholas Rollin, Chancellor of Philip, Duke of Burgundy. There are several manufactories of serges, woollen cloth, and cutlery. A considerable trade is carried on in Burgundy and Champagne wines. B. gives its name to one of the best of the Burgundy wines. Pop. (1872) 10,100.

BEAUNE, Florimond, a distinguished mathematician, and friend of Descartes, was born in 1601, at Blois, in France, where he died in 1652. His labours and discoveries contributed greatly to the improvement of the modern analytical geometry first introduced by Descartes. Algebra was also enriched by B.'s shewing that, in equations to the fourth degree, the limits of positive roots might be found from the coefficients. B. may be regarded as the proper founder of the Integral Calculus, as he first endeavoured to deduce the nature of curved lines from the properties of their tangents. The so-called 'B.'s Problem' (which has been completely solved only by Jean Bernouilli), still given in the Integral Calculus, was for his time new and remarkable, it turns also on the determination of the nature of a curved line from a property of its tangent. The only work of his we possess is *De Æquationum Limitibus Opuscula duo, et Notæ Breves.*

BEAUTY. See *Æsthetics*, Art.

BEAUVAIS, an important manufacturing French town, capital of the department Oise. It is situated in the valley of the Thérain (a tributary to the Oise), about 41 miles north-north-west of Paris, and surrounded by rising woodlands. Formerly, B. was included in the old province, Ile de France. It is now the seat of government for the department, and the residence of a bishop, and contains a literary and economical society, a public library, a museum, &c. Among its several fine buildings, the most noteworthy is its uncompleted cathedral, the choir of which is the loftiest as well as one of the finest specimens of Gothic in France. The manufactures of B. include woollen cloths, shawls, carpets, Gobelin tapestry, &c. Pop. (1872) 13,532. B. is an ancient town. It was included in the country of the powerful *Bellovaci*, in *Gallia Belgica*, and was known by the Romans as *Cæsaromagus*, afterwards as *Bellovacum*. In the middle ages, it was styled *Belvacum*. In 850, and at other times, B. was desolated by the Normans. The *Jacquerie*, or Peasants' War, broke out in the neighbourhood of B., March 21, 1358. In 1443, B. was besieged by the English, who were repulsed by the heroic self-sacrifice of Jean Lignière. Again, in 1472, it was besieged by Charles the Bold of Burgundy, with an army of 80,000 men, when the women of B., under the leadership of the heroine Jeanne Lainé, surnamed La Hachette for her daring, displayed remarkable valour. The standard which the Burgundians had planted on the wall was torn down by Jeanne Lainé, and borne off by her in triumph. The banner is preserved in the town hall, and a procession, in which it is carried by young girls, annually commemorates the heroic deed. B. is the birthplace of the learned Dominican Vincent de Beauvais (Vincentius Bellovacensis).

BEAVER (*Castor Fiber*), a quadruped of the order *Glires*, or *Rodentia* (q. v.), valued for its fur, and for the peculiar substance called *Castoreum* (q. v.), which it yields, and also much noted for its instincts. Some naturalists regard the American B. as distinct from that of Europe and Asia; but the differences observable either in external or anatomical characters are very inconsiderable; and the opinion that a great difference exists in instincts and habits, appears to have been too hastily adopted. If there is only one species of B., it is very widely distributed in the northern regions of the world, reaching in America almost as far south as the Gulf of Mexico. It once existed in the British islands, where, however, it has long been extinct; and it has become rare in Europe, in many parts of which it was once common. It has become rare also in the United States, disappearing before man; but is nowhere so abundant as in that wide region of lakes and rivers which lies to the north and west of the settled parts of North America. Considerable numbers of beavers are found on the banks of the Obi and other rivers of Siberia, and in Kamtchatka.

The incisors or cutting teeth of the B. are remarkably strong, and exhibit in the highest degree the distinctive character of the order to which it belongs —the front of hard enamel, which in the B. is of a bright orange colour; the back of the tooth formed of a softer substance, more easily worn down, so

Beaver.

that a sharp, chisel-like edge is always
the bulbs being also persistent, so that
continually growing, as by their
gnawing wood, they are continually
away. There are four flat molar te
on each side in each jaw. Each
those of the fore-feet are short, and
a web; those of the hind-feet are
out like the toes of a
In accordance w
B., in swimm
the fore-feet
body. Another
appears in any other
tally flattened tail, which, except at
covered with hair, like the rest of the
scales. The caudal vertebræ, however
exhibit a flattened form.

The B. is usually at least two feet
the nose to the root of the tail:
form, about ten inches in
in greatest breadth, and
ness. These dimens
The general form of
thickest at the
so that it seems
thick and broad
ears short and
kinds of hair; the
smooth, and glossy;
silky. The colour
black, spotted, or nearly

The B. is very aquatic
seldom wanders far
consequence of its
districts, and
everywhere
upon the ri

The food of the B. consists of the bark of trees and shrubs (birch, poplar, willow, &c.), and of the roots of water-lilies (*Nuphar luteum*) and other aquatic plants. In summer, it eats also berries, leaves, and various kinds of herbage. There is reason to think that it never, as has been supposed, kills or eats fish. Like some other rodents, it lays up stores of provisions for winter; but these, in the case of the B., consist chiefly of bark, or of branches, and even trunks of trees. Its extraordinary powers of gnawing are exerted to cut down trees of several inches in diameter, both for food, and for the construction of those houses and dams which have rendered it so much an object of admiration to mankind. A tree of 18 inches in diameter has been found thus cut down by beavers, although smaller ones are usually preferred; and when a tree of this size is cut, the branches only, and not the trunk, are employed in the architectural operations of the animals. These operations are very wonderful, although the statement, at one time commonly made, that beavers drive stakes into the ground, has no foundation in fact; and some of the other particulars which passed current along with it, were equally fabulous. The houses or lodges of beavers are grouped together near the edge of the water, the mud being scraped away from the front, so that there may be a sufficient depth of water there to allow free egress, even during the most severe frost. The winter stores of the animals, consisting of piles or heaps of wood, are also always under water, at such a depth that they cannot be locked up in ice. When the depth of water is not sufficient, the beavers construct a dam across the stream, by the side of which the lodge is placed; the dam is sometimes as much as 300 yards in length, convex towards the current, and most convex in the strongest currents, sometimes extending on both sides beyond the natural channel of the stream. The materials of which it is composed are sticks, roots, and branches, with stones, moss, grasses, and mud, strangely commingled, but in such a manner that the structure becomes absolutely water-tight. Branches of which the bark has been used for food, or taken off for winter provender, are very generally employed for building purposes. In their building, beavers interlace small branches with each other and with the larger; and a B. kept in confinement has been known to manifest this instinct, by interlacing branches with the bars of its cage, whilst it also filled the interstices with carrots, and other vegetables, given it for food, nicely bitten to the proper size, and packed in snow, to protect itself from the cold. B. dams are built with the sides inclining towards one another, so that although ten or twelve feet wide at bottom, they have a narrow top. The dams and houses are annually repaired, before winter comes on, the work being performed by night. 'In places,' says Hearne, 'which have been long frequented by beavers undisturbed, their dams, by frequent repairing, become a solid bank, capable of resisting a great force, both of water and ice; and as the willow, poplar, and birch generally take root and shoot up, they by degrees form a kind of regular planted hedge, which I have seen in some places so tall that birds have built their nests among the branches.' A broad ditch is often dug all around the lodge, so deep that it cannot freeze to the bottom, and into it the beavers make the holes by which they go out and bring their food. The larger lodges are in the interior, about seven feet in diameter, and between two and three feet high. The top is formed of branches of trees, mattod with mud, grass, moss, &c. The walls are very thick, and the whole structure not only secures much warmth, but is a sufficient protection from wolves, wolverines, and other beasts of prey. Different apartments have often one common roof, but they have usually no internal communication. The sleeping-places of the animals are around the wall of their lodge, the centre being left free; they are formed merely of a little grass or tender bark of trees. A single house seldom contains more than ten or twelve beavers, but many such families are often congregated in one place. Beavers, both in a wild state and in confinement, are scrupulously cleanly in their habits.

Beavers often sit on the hind-feet and tail, and eat in this posture, holding up the food in their fore-paws. They also walk on the hind-feet, with support of the tail, when they carry materials to their buildings, except branches, which are dragged. They have considerable power in the tail, and not unfrequently flap it, which has given rise to an opinion, perhaps not altogether erroneous, that they use their tails for plastering their buildings, or beating and adjusting the mud which is employed in them.

Beavers do not usually eat in their lodges, but in holes or burrows in the bank of the river, the entrance to which is from beneath the water, and which thence proceed obliquely upwards, often to a distance of many feet. To these holes the beavers also flee when their lodge is broken up; and it is therefore a common practice of the B. hunters to break up the B. lodges, that they may take the animals in their holes or vaults. Beavers are also taken by nets and traps.

It is chiefly in winter that beavers congregate together. During summer, they wander about a little. The young are generally produced in April or May, from two to seven at a birth. Their eyes are open when they are born.

Single beavers are frequently met with, which live apart from all others of their species. All of these are males, which, it is supposed, have been conquered and driven away by others of their sex.

In the parts of North America where beavers have now become rare, they live mostly in burrows in the river-banks, like those which are still found in Europe. Circumstances prevent them from following out their gregarious tendencies. That the beavers of Europe and Asia construct lodges and dams, when they have opportunity of congregating in sufficient numbers, appears to be no less certain than that those of America do so.

Large glandular pouches, two in number, closely connected with the organs of reproduction, contain the substance called *Castoreum* (q. v.). Its uses in the animal economy are by no means well known; they are probably analogous to those of musk, civet, &c.; but its peculiar pungent odour is so attractive to beavers, that use is made of it as a bait for B. traps.

The B. is very easily tamed; but no wooden cage will keep one confined. Except in the extraordinary building instincts already noticed, the animal exhibits no remarkable sagacity.—The use of the B.'s fur for making hats is well known. See HAT. An act of the English parliament, in 1638, prohibiting the use of any other material for hat-making, contributed to the rapid diminution of the number of beavers in the parts of North America from which their skins were then obtained. During great part of the 18th, and the earlier part of the 19th c., the number of B. skins annually exported from America appears to have been not less than 200,000. It is now greatly diminished, but is still large. The flesh of the B. is much esteemed as an article of food by trappers and others who frequent the fur-countries, but it is very oily.

Fossil remains of beavers, apparently of the same species with that now existing, are found in the

deposits referred by geologists to the pliocene and pleistocene periods. Other remains are also found of a much larger animal of the B. kind, which must have existed in Europe and Asia along with the present species, but which seems to have become extinct before the historic period. They were different, however, not merely in size, but in other particulars so important, that Owen has constituted for the 'great B.' a distinct genus, *Trogontherium* (Gr., a chewing or gnawing beast).

Of existing animals, the most closely allied to the B. is the *Coypu* (q. v.), sometimes called the Chilian B. (*Myopotamus Coypus*), which yields the fur called *Racoonda* (q. v.).

BEA'VER. See HELMET.

BEA'VER WOOD. See MAGNOLIA.

BEBEE'RINE is one of the alkaloids, and is obtained from the greenheart bark or *bebeeru* of Demerara. It is used in medicine in place of quinine, which it resembles in properties, though it is not so powerful in its action as a tonic and febrifuge. The condition in which it is generally sent into market is as the sulphate of B., occurring in shining scales of a pretty brown colour, and soluble in water.

BEBEE'RU, BEEBEE'RU, or BIBI'RI. See GREENHEART.

BECCAFI'CO (*Sylvia hortensis*, or *Curruca hortensis*), a little bird of the family of the *Sylviadæ*, or Warblers (q. v.), sometimes called the Pettychaps, and sometimes the Garden Warbler, rather rare in Britain, but abundant in some of the more southern parts of Europe, and in great demand for the table in Italy, its flesh being regarded as of peculiar delicacy. It is a mere summer bird of passage, however, not only in Britain, but even in the south of Europe. The upper parts are mostly of a brown colour, the lower parts whitish. It is a bird of very pleasing song. B. is an Italian name, and is sometimes extended to other birds of the same family used for the table.

BECCAMOSCHI'NO (*Sylvia cisticola*), a little bird of the family of the Warblers, found in Italy, and remarkable for its nest, which resembles that of the tailor-birds, being usually placed in a bush of lengthened herbage, the leaves and stalks drawn together over it, and a flooring formed for it by leaves curved across below, and sewed together generally with some kind of vegetable fibres.

BECCARI'A, CESARE BONESANA, a political and philanthropic writer, was born at Milan 1735 or 1738. The opinions of the French encyclopædists, especially those of Montesquieu, had the greatest influence in the formation of his principles and sentiments. The work which most favourably exhibits the character and genius of B. is his *Trattato dei Delitti e delle Pene* (Treatise on Crimes and Punishments), first published in 1764, in which he argues against the severities and abuses of criminal law, especially capital punishment and torture. The work was extremely popular, and was translated into several European languages. It is marked by eloquence, sensibility, and lively power of imagination. Kant unfairly accuses the author of an affected humanity, though it must be admitted that the German philosopher has exposed the invalidity of some of the arguments brought forward. On the whole, however, the work of B. is acknowledged to have done great good, and the subsequent reforms in the penal code of European nations have generally taken the direction he has pointed out. He was among the first to advocate the beneficial influence of education in lessening crime. This naturally brought upon him the hatred of the priesthood, who, according to their usual formula of persecution, accused him of impiety; but their malice was frustrated by the efforts of Count Firmian, the Austrian governor of Lombardy, a man of liberal and enlightened sentiments. In 1768, B. was appointed Professor of Political Philosophy at Milan, and achieved great success as a lecturer. He died of apoplexy in November 1793. In the course of his life he published several works.

BEC-FIN, the common French name for different species of birds of the family of *Sylviadæ*, or Warblers (q. v.). It is sometimes to be met with in English books.

BÊCHE-DE-MER, or TREPANG, an article of luxury among the Chinese, consisting of the dried bodies of several species of *Holothuria* (q. v.) or Sea-cucumber, which are found in great abundance in the shallow waters of lagoons, and on reefs, from the south-eastern coasts of Asia to New Holland. The traffic in B. is very extensive, and the Malays catch the animals, and prepare them in large quantities for the Chinese market. They are usually about 8 or 9 inches long, but some are 2 feet in length, and 7 or 8 inches in girth. They are often found nearly buried in the coral sand, their feathered tentacula alone floating above it. The larger ones are sometimes speared in shallow water; but most of them are taken by divers in depths of from 3 to 5 fathoms. An expert diver will bring up eight or ten at a time. They are split down one side, boiled, pressed flat with stones, dried in the sun, and afterwards in smoke, and packed in bags, in which state they are bought by the Chinese, and conveyed in junks to China. Fleets of Malay prahus are employed in the search for this curious production of the sea. Macassar is the great staple-place of the trade, and from it above 3000 cwt. of B. are annually sent to China, the price varying, according to the kind and quality, from thirty shillings to twenty guineas per cwt. There is also a considerable export of B. from Manilla. B. is extremely gelatinous, and is very much used by the Chinese as an ingredient in rich soups.

BECHER, JOHANN JOACHIM, author of the first theory of chemistry, was born at Speier in 1635. In his youth, he had many difficulties to contend with, but his zeal and perseverance overcame them all. He acquired an extensive knowledge of medicine, physics, chemistry, and even politics, and in 1660, was made a member of the Imperial Council at Vienna. While residing in this city, he assisted in establishing several manufactures, and drew up the plan of an East Indian commercial society, but unfortunately he fell into disgrace, and had to leave the city. He next went to Mainz, and subsequently lived in Munich, Würzburg, Haarlem, and finally London, where he died in 1682. He had many enemies, and was accused—not altogether unjustly—of charlatanry. Nevertheless, he rendered important services to chemistry. His *Physica subterranea* was the first attempt made to bring physics and chemistry into close relation; in those two he sought the causes of all the inorganic phenomena in the world. He at the same time began to construct a theory of chemistry, and also investigated the process of combustion. B. taught that every metal was composed of an earthy substance common to all metals; of a combustible principle also identical in all; and was differentiated from other metals only by the possession of a peculiar mercurial element; when a metal was heated, until it had changed its form, the mercurial substance was discharged, and nothing remained except metallic calx. Herein lies the first germ of Stahl's phlogistic theory, which obtained universal currency until the time of Lavoisier.

BECHUANS. See BETJUANS.

BECKER, GOTTFRIED WILHELM, a German author, born at Leipsic in 1778, entered the university of that city with the view of studying medicine, and having taken his doctor's degree in 1801, settled there as a practising physician and a writer of medical works, several of which reached many editions. The wars of the period led him, however, to turn his attention to history and modern languages, and he became well known by his contributions to periodicals, his series of popular histories, and his translations from the English, French, and Italian. In 1833, B. entirely relinquished practising medicine, and devoting himself to literature, became a fertile and admired contributor to many of its more popular branches. He died at Leipsic, 17th January 1854. He published several attractive volumes of travels in his own country, peculiarly adapted to the young, among which we may instance his *Tour to the Harz, Sketches of Southern Germany*, &c. His historical writings, which are not less numerous, chiefly narrate the events of his own time. Amongst them we may particularise *Andreas Hofer, Egypt as it Now is, The Fate of Spain in Modern Times*, &c. In light literature, also, he was very successful as a translator. All his works have been published at Leipsic.

BECKER, JOHN PHILIP, one of the most active Radical politicians of late years, was born, March 1809, at Frankenthal, in the Palatinate on the Rhine, and brought up as a brushmaker. The French revolution of July 1830 gave a political bias to his tendencies, and he took part in the political agitations of the day, in consequence of which he was imprisoned; but in 1833 he was released, and exerted himself warmly on behalf of his brothers in opinion. In 1837, he settled in Switzerland, taking a part in several Radical publications, and organising, in 1838 and 1845, volunteer corps. In the autumn of 1847, he was summoned to the military bureau at Berne, and being chosen adjutant of Ochsenbein's division, fought against the Sonderbund with acknowledged bravery. Upon the failure of Hecker's attempt to revolutionise Baden in 1848, B., who had organised troops for his support, returned to Switzerland, to plan an expedition of German and Swiss auxiliaries, to support the cause of freedom in Rome and Sicily. Their movements being frustrated, he led his troops in the summer of 1849 into the Palatinate and the Duchy of Baden, where a rising had taken place, and acted a prominent part in many engagements. Subsequently, he settled in Geneva, and engaged successfully in commerce. A history of the revolution of 1849, in Southern Germany, has been published by him and Esselen. B. is a man of strong and hardy frame, and for prudence and decision, ranks high among the leaders of the revolutionary party.

BECKER, KARL FERDINAND, born at Leipsic in 1804, may be named with Kiesewetter and Winterfeld as one of the best German writers on the history of music, and also as an excellent composer for the organ, as is proved by his trios and other compositions well adapted to the genius of the instrument. Among his works may be mentioned: a *Choral-book*, or collection of psalm and hymn tunes (Leipsic, 1844); *Choral Melodies* for Spitta's Psalter and Harp, 1841; a *Catalogue* of his musical library, one of the most extensive in Germany; *On the Choral Collections of Various Christian Churches*, 1841; *The Choral Compositions of the 16th and 17th Centuries*, 1847; and *The Composers of the 19th Century*, 1849.

BECKER, KARL FERDINAND, one of the most distinguished German philologists, was born at Liser, in the old electorate of Treves, in 1775. At first a teacher, he afterwards studied medicine, and ultimately settled as a practitioner at Offenbach. Here he educated his own children with such success that several families induced him to take charge of theirs, and thus his house was converted into an academy (1823), which he conducted till his death in 1849. This gave scope to his early predilection for linguistic studies, to which his scientific training led him to give a quite new direction. B. contemplates language as an *organism*, pervaded by strict logical laws. From this point of view, he wrote his *Deutsche Grammatik* (2d ed., 1842). He neglects too much the historical development of language, and thus, as might be expected, comes at times into conflict with the results of comparative philology; yet his work is valuable for its logical consequence, and for its leading idea of organism in language. Besides a *Schulgrammatik* (8th ed., 1862), which is an outline of his larger work, he published several other treatises on the German language.

BECKER, WILHELM ADOLF, a distinguished German author, was born at Dresden in 1796. Originally intended for commercial life, he soon abandoned a pursuit which he found uncongenial to his tastes, and devoted his time to the acquisition of learning. In 1816, he came to Leipsic, where he studied theology, and more particularly philology. In 1840, he travelled through Italy; and in 1842, was appointed Professor of Archæology at the university of Leipsic, where his prelections on the Latin authors were numerously attended. He died at Meissen, 30th September 1846. His lively fancy, aided by a thorough knowledge of the classic languages, enabled him to make quite a novel use of antiquity. In his *Charicles* (Leip. 1840), he ventured to reproduce the social life of old Greece; and in his *Gallus* (Leip. 1838), to give sketches of the Augustan age at Rome. The learning which he has contrived to stuff into his picturesque sentences is marvellous, not to speak of the quantity buried in his *excursus*, or disquisitions, which, in the English translation of the works by Metcalfe, are transferred from the text to the end of the volumes. Lockhart's *Valerius* is the only thing in English literature which corresponds to these compositions of the German author. B.'s treatise, *De Comicis Romanorum Fabulis* (Leip. 1837), is a valuable contribution to the history of Roman dramatic poetry. His most important work, in a scholastic point of view, is his *Handbook of Roman Antiquities* (1843-1846), which, after his death, was continued by Marquardt.

BECKERATH, HERMANN VON, one of the most remarkable public characters of Germany, was born at Krefeld (in Prussia), December 1801. He sprang from a commercial family, and made a considerable fortune as a banker. But he gave himself also to pursuits of a more intellectual character, and especially to the studies of jurisprudence and politics. The accession of Frederick-William IV. to the throne roused B. to a sense of the political condition of his country, and he devoted himself to work out its constitutional freedom. In 1843, he was elected representative of his native town in the provincial diet, and continued for several years to take a prominent part in Prussian politics. He was a deputy in the National Assembly which sprang up in the eventful year 1848, and held its sittings at Frankfort. His eloquence exercised considerable influence on this assembly. He was appointed minister of finance, and shortly after called to Berlin, to construct a cabinet; but in this he failed. His strictly constitutional advice was not apparently agreeable to the court, and he returned to Frankfort. An advocate

of the affairs of the hive. There can be no doubt that bees possess in a very high degree the sense of smell; and their possession of the senses of taste and hearing is almost equally unquestionable, whatever difficulty there may be in determining the particular organs of the latter sense.—The wings of bees, like those of other hymenopterous insects, are four in number; thin and membranaceous; the hinder pair always smaller than the others; and in flight, attached to them by a number of small hooks, so that the four wings move as if they were two.

The sting of bees is a very remarkable organ. It consists of two long darts, with a protecting sheath. A venom bag is connected with it, and powerful muscles for its propulsion. The wound appears to be first made by the sheath, along which the poison

Bee Sting, highly magnified.

A, sting of bee; S, sheath of sting; F, end of sting, greatly magnified, shewing six barbs curved upwards; B, glands for secreting poison; C, ducts through which it flows to D, where it is kept ready for use; O, circular dilatation to prevent sting being thrust too far out of sheath.

passes by a groove; and the darts thrust out afterwards in succession, deepen the wound. The darts are each furnished with a number of barbs, which render it so difficult to withdraw them quickly, that bees often lose their lives by the injury which they sustain in the effort.—The males are destitute of sting.

The great family of bees is divided into two principal sections called *Andrenetæ* and *Apiariæ*, or *Andrenidæ* and *Apidæ;* the latter names, however, being sometimes employed in senses more restricted. In the first of these sections, the *ligula* is comparatively short and broad; in the second, it is lengthened, and has the form of a filament. All the *Andrenetæ* live solitarily, as well as several subdivisions of the *Apiariæ*. These solitary bees do not lay up stores for their own winter subsistence; but they display very wonderful and various instincts in the habitations which they construct and the provision which they make for their young. There are among them males and perfect females only, and no neuters. The work of preparing nests and providing food for the young seems, in all of the species, to be performed exclusively by the females. *Colletes succincta*, a common British species of the *Andrenetæ*, affords an example of a mode of nest-making, which, with various modifications, is common to many species of that section. The parent B. excavates a cylindrical hole in the earth, usually horizontal, to the depth of about two inches, in a dry bank or a wall of stones and earth. The sides of this hole are compacted by means of a sort of gelatinous liquid, secreted by the insect, and it is occupied with cells, formed of a transparent and delicate membrane, the substance of which is the same secretion in a dried state. The cells are thimble-shaped, fitting into each other, a little space being left at the furthest end of each for the reception of an egg and a little paste of pollen and honey. The last cell being completed, and its proper contents deposited in it, the mouth of the whole is carefully stopped up with earth.—Some of the solitary bees, possessing great strength of mandibles, excavate their nests in old wood. *Xylocopa violacea*, one of the *Apiariæ*, not uncommon in some parts of Europe, makes a tunnel not less than twelve or fifteen inches long, and half an inch wide, which is divided into ten or twelve cells; an egg with store of pollen and honey is deposited in each compartment, and as the lowest egg is hatched first, a second orifice is provided at that part of the tunnel, through which each of the young ones in succession comes forth to the light of day, each larva, as it is about to change into the pupa state, placing itself with its head downwards in the cell.—Numerous species of solitary bees excavate their tunnel-shaped nests in the soft pith of decayed briers or brambles, of the particles of which they also form their cells.—Some species of *Megachile*, *Osmia*, &c., line them and divide them into cells with portions of leaves or of the petals of flowers. See LEAF-CUTTER BEE. Some of the solitary bees make their nests, not in the earth, but in cavities of decaying trees, or other such situations, where they construct their cells without the same necessity of excavation; but some of them, by a very admirable instinct, surround their nest with down collected from the leaves of plants, an excellent non-conductor of heat, so that a nearly uniform temperature is maintained in situations in which the changes would otherwise be great and rapid. Some bees make their little nests in old oak-galls, and there are species which appropriate empty snail-shells to that use.—Some species of the genus *Megachile* build their nests of a sort of mason-work of grains of sand glued together with their viscid saliva. The nest of *M.* [illegible], thus constructed, is so hard as not to be easily penetrated by a knife, and very much resembles a splash of mud upon a wall.

The social bees live in comm[illegible] like [illegible] ants, which also, like theirs, com[illegible] and neuters—these last bei[illegible] imperfectly developed, and [illegible] liarities of form and struc[illegible] and employments, remark[illegible] of the perfect females. [illegible] niently divided into H[illegible] Bees (a[illegible] Bees, of the latter of [illegible] the [illegible] (see the next section of [illegible]ticle) as the type. Before [illegible] lar account of the [illegible] remark that the swe[illegible], of genus *Apis*) are [illegible] of the warm p[illegible] the (*Apis mellifica*, which now [illegible] of America, and which [illegible] the forests to a consi[illegible] abodes of civilised m[illegible] which were conveyed [illegible] is said not to have b[illegible] Mississippi before 1797. [illegible] advanced 600 miles [illegible] different species of H[illegible] make their nests in h[illegible] branches of trees, [illegible] clefts of rocks; [illegible] not only sought

numerous animals, some of which equally delight to prey upon their larvæ. The B. was amongst the ancient Egyptians the hieroglyphical emblem of royalty. The B. domesticated or cultivated in Egypt, is not, however, our common Hive B., but another species called *Apis fasciata;* and in Italy and Greece a species called *A. Ligustica* is employed, which has been recently introduced into England, and is now domesticated at the B.-house of the Apiarian Society, Muswell Hill, near London. These species differ little from the common Hive B., and their honey is very similar; but that of some species is considerably different. *A. unicolor*, of Madagascar and the Isle of France, yields an esteemed honey of a green colour. It is domesticated, or is the object of human care and attention there, as are also *A. Indica* in some parts of India, and *A. Adansonii* in Senegal. We regret that our limits do not permit us to give a particular account of any of these species.—The genus *Melipona* is nearly allied to *Apis*. The species are natives of South America, and their honey is extremely sweet and agreeable, but very liquid, and apt to ferment. They make their nests in the cavities or on the tops of trees.

The Hive Bee.—Natural History.—The instincts and social economy of the Hive B. (*Apis mellifica*) have been studied with great attention both in ancient and modern times, and discoveries—than which, perhaps, nature presents nothing more interesting and wonderful—have rewarded the patient observations of Huber and others who have devoted themselves to this subject. *Apiarian societies* have been formed for the purpose of prosecuting this single branch of natural history, and of promoting successful apiculture, or the economical keeping of bees.

The Hive B. is probably not a native of Britain, and may even have been brought to Europe from the East. Its communities seem ordinarily to number from 10,000 to 60,000 individuals, and there appears no reason to think that the care bestowed upon the insect by man, or the *hives* which he has provided for it, have made any important difference in this respect. One member of each community is a perfect female—the queen or mother B.; from 600 to 2000 at certain seasons are males; and the remainder are *neuters* or workers, the real nature of which has been explained in the previous part of this article.

The workers have a body about half an inch in length, and about one-sixth of an inch in greatest breadth, at the upper part of the abdomen. The antennæ are twelve-jointed, and terminate in a knob. The abdomen consists of six joints or rings, and under the scaly coverings of the four middle ones are situated the *wax-pockets* or organs for the secretion of wax. The extremity of the abdomen is provided with a sting, which is straight. The basal joint of the hind tarsi is dilated to form a pollen-basket, and the legs are well provided with hairs for collecting the pollen and brushing it into this receptacle.—The males or *drones*, so called from the peculiar noise which they make in their flight, are much larger than the neuters, and thicker in proportion. The antennæ have an additional joint. The eyes are remarkably large, and meet upon the crown.—The perfect females are considerably longer than either the workers or males; they are also distinguished by the yellow tint of the under part of the body, and very remarkably differ from all the other inmates of the hive in the shortness of their wings, which, instead of reaching to the extremity of the abdomen, leave some of its rings uncovered.—Neither males nor queens have wax-pockets, nor have they pollen-baskets. Their legs also are less hairy. The sting of the queen B. is curved. The mandibles both of the males and perfect females are notched or

Bees.
1, queen; 2, drone; 3, neuter.

toothed beneath the tip, which those of the workers are not.—It will be seen from this brief description that the sexes differ so widely as to appear, if the contrary were not well known, insects of different species; but still more remarkable is the difference between the females and the workers when we consider that it is all to be ascribed to the different forms of the cells in which the eggs are hatched and the young bees reared, and to the different kinds of food with which they are supplied. All doubt upon this point is removed by the interesting discovery of Schirach, that when a hive is deprived of its queen, the bees provide themselves with another, if there are eggs or very young larvæ in the cells appropriated to the breeding of workers; proceeding immediately to transform, for this purpose, one of these cells, and sacrificing, without scruple, the eggs or larvæ in the cells adjoining that selected for transformation and enlargement. These are facts well ascertained, but of which science has yet been unable to give any explanation.

The greater part of the life of the queen or mother B. is spent in laying eggs for the increase of the population of the hive; and this increase goes on at a rapid rate, as the queen not unfrequently lays 300 eggs in a day. The number, however, varies greatly. In cold weather it is very small, but the invariable presence of brood in different stages, in a well-stocked hive, proves that some eggs are laid even in winter. During the later spring months the number is very great; many practical apiarians considering that as many as 1000, or even 2000, are deposited daily. The community, however, is not destined to an indefinite increase; but in certain circumstances, *swarming* takes place, and new colonies are founded.

The impregnation of the queen takes place in the air, and usually within a few days after she herself has emerged from the cell. It is the only occasion of her ever leaving the hive, except that of swarming, and there is no repetition of it during her whole life. The question has therefore been asked, why there are so many males in a B. community; but no very satisfactory answer has been given to it. The males are not known to fulfil any other purpose than that of the propagation of their species; and after the swarming season is over, the greater part of them are ruthlessly massacred by the workers, as if in dread of their consuming too much of the common store. The greater part of the workers themselves are supposed scarcely to live for a year; the duration of the life of queen bees is often more than three years.

The queen B., when about to begin to lay eggs, is the object of great attention on the part of the workers, and so continues. She moves about in the hive, attended by a sort of retinue of about ten or fifteen workers, by some of which she is frequently supplied with honey. But the name of queen B. appears to have originated in a mistaken notion that something analogous to a monarchy subsists in the B.-hive; and imagination being permitted very free scope, many things have been invested with a false colouring derived from this analogy. The queen or mother B. appears to be the object of particular regard, as indispensable to the objects for which the B. community subsists, and to which the instincts of all its members are variously directed. She moves about, depositing her eggs in the cells which the workers have prepared, and they are ready to take charge of each egg from the moment that it is deposited. Her employment requires that she should be fed with food collected by others, and many of the workers are in like manner supplied with food whilst busy within the hive, as well as the larvæ in the cells; but there is no evidence whatever of anything like authority exercised by the queen, or, indeed, of any superiority of one over another in the whole multitude.

The queen B. at first lays eggs which give birth to workers, and afterwards there takes place a laying of eggs which become drones. With unerring instinct, she places each egg in the kind of cell appropriate to it; whilst also, at the proper time, cells of the proper kind are prepared beforehand by the workers, the drones' cells being larger than the workers' cells. The cells in which future queens are to be reared are very unlike all the others, but the eggs differ in no respect from those deposited in workers' cells. It is a curious circumstance, that queens, of which the fecundation has been prevented till they are considerably older than usual, lay only drone eggs. It occasionally also happens that some of the worker bees lay eggs, and these invariably produce drones.

The eggs of bees are of a long shape and bluish-white colour, about one-twelfth of an inch in length. They are hatched in about three days. The larvæ are little worm-like creatures, having no feet, and lying coiled up like a ring: they are diligently fed

Egg, Larva, and Pupa of Hive Bee.

a, egg, and very young larva; *b*, young larva coiled up at the bottom of the cell; *c*, larva when ready to undergo metamorphosis; *d*, pupa.

by the working bees, until, in about five days, when large enough nearly to fill the cell, they refuse food, upon which the attendant bees seal up the cell with wax, and the larva, spinning itself a fine silken envelope or cocoon, is transformed into a pupa; and about the eighteenth day—or, in the case of drones, the twenty-fourth day—from the deposition of the egg, the young B., in its perfect state, breaks the covering, and issues from the cell. It is caressed and supplied with food by the attendant bees, and is believed not to try its wings until the following day. The cell from which a young B. has issued is speedily cleaned out, and prepared for the reception of another egg or of honey. The fine silken envelope of the pupa, however, remains attached to the cell, of which the capacity thus becomes gradually smaller, until the cells of old combs are too small to receive eggs, and can be used for honey alone, a fact of which the importance in relation to the economical management of bees is obvious.—The spinneret, by means of which the larva spins the cocoon, is a small organ connected with the mouth.—The food with which the larvæ are supplied is a mixture of pollen, honey, and water, with the addition, possibly, of some secretion from the stomachs of the working bees, in which it is prepared. It varies a little, according to the age and kind of the larva, and the peculiarities of that given to young queens appear to be indispensable to their fitness for their future functions. Pollen is constantly found stored up in the cells of the hive, and is often called B.-bread. Most people have met with such cells in honey-comb, and have observed the bitter and peculiar taste of the contents.

The combs of a bee-hive are parallel to each other, forming vertical strata of about an inch in thickness, and distant about half an inch from each other. The cells are therefore nearly horizontal, having a slight and somewhat variable dip towards the centre of each comb. The central comb is generally first begun, and next after it those next to it on each side. Circumstances frequently cause some departure from this uniform and symmetrical plan, which, however, still remains obvious. Each comb consists of two sets of cells, one on each side; and it may be mentioned as an illustration of the wonderful industry of bees, and the results of their combined labours, that a piece of comb, 14 inches long by 7 inches wide, and containing about 4000 cells, has been frequently constructed in 24 hours. The greater part of the comb usually consists of the kind of cells fitted for breeding workers, a smaller part of it of the larger or drone cells. After the principal breeding-season is over, the cells of some parts of the comb are often elongated for the reception of honey; and sometimes comb of greater thickness, or with unusually long cells, is constructed for that purpose alone, in which case the mouths of the cells are inclined upwards, more than is usual with the ordinary brood cells. When a cell has been completely filled with honey, its mouth is *sealed* or covered with wax.

It is impossible to look at a piece of comb taken from a B.-hive, without admiring, not only its beauty, but the perfect regularity of the size, form, and arrangement of the cells; and the more carefully that it is examined, the more must it be admired. For in it are practically solved, by an instinct which can only be referred to the infinite wisdom of the Creator, some problems difficult to human science, particularly in the combination of the greatest economy of materials and of space, with the most perfect convenience and the greatest strength. It appears even at a glance, that the cells are hexagonal or six-sided, the hexagons perfectly regular, and in this way there are no interstices between the cells. Now, the mathematician knows that there are only three regular figures, that is, figures of which all the sides and angles are equal, bounded by straight lines, with which a space can be perfectly filled up in this way—the equilateral triangle, the square, and the hexagon; and of these the hexagon is at once the most suitable for the larva of the B. in its form, and the strongest in its nearest approach to the circle. The circular form itself would have left large interstices. But this is not all: the same wisdom which has given the solitary bees, already noticed, their instinct to surround their nest with a cottony substance, which

serves as a non-conductor of heat, has directed the hive B. to the constant adoption of a mode of constructing its combs, which adds greatly to the strength they would have possessed with the same amount of materials, if the cells had been merely regular hexagonal prisms, and the partition in the middle of the comb, between the cells of the one side of it, and those of the other, therefore a simple plane. It is so far from being so, that when carefully examined, it appears, if the expression may be used, the most ingenious part of the whole structure. It is composed of a multitude of little rhombs, or four-sided figures, with equal and parallel sides, and two obtuse and two acute angles, the obtuse angles being invariably angles of 109° 28', and the acute angles of 70° 32', agreeing precisely with the results of mathematical analysis, applied to the difficult question of the form of the facets of a three-sided pyramid, which should terminate a six-sided prism, so as to combine the greatest economy of materials with the greatest strength. On looking at a piece of empty honey-comb, placed between the eye and the light, we readily perceive that the cells are not opposite to each other, cell to cell; but that the point of meeting of three sides of three cells, on one side, is opposite to the centre of a cell on the other side—a circumstance which of itself we cannot but regard as calculated greatly to increase the strength of the whole fabric. It follows also from this, that the terminating pyramids of the cells on the one side do not interfere with the form of the cells on the other side, but the three rhombic facets, which terminate each cell, belong likewise to three distinct cells on the opposite side of the comb.

Pyramidal bottoms of Cells.

The only departure from perfect regularity in the form of the cells, is in the transition from the smaller or workers' cells to the larger or drones' cells, which, when it takes place, is managed with great simplicity and beauty of contrivance. Our limits, however, do not permit us to enter further into this subject.

The material of which the cells are built is chiefly wax (q. v., and see Bees-Wax), which is at first of a white colour, but becomes brownish-yellow with age, and in very old combs, almost black. Although wax exists as a vegetable product, yet bees-wax is now known to be produced by a chemistry which is carried on in the bodies of bees; and it has been found that they produce wax and build combs when supplied only with honey or saccharine substances. The *wax-pockets* in the abdomen of working-bees have been already referred to. The bees which are about to proceed to wax-making, suspend themselves in clusters in the hive, attaching themselves to each other by means of hooks with which their feet are provided; and whilst they remain motionless in this position, the wax appears to be formed, in small scales, which they afterwards take in their mouths and curiously work up with a secretion from the mouth itself, passing the wax, in the form of a minute riband, through the mouth, first in one direction and then in the opposite one, and finally depositing it in its proper place for the foundation of the comb. One B. always begins the comb alone, the rest, in gradually increasing numbers, proceed in accordance with what has been already done. The bees which elaborate and deposit the wax, do not, however, construct the cells, which is done by others, partly at least by a process of excavation in the wax deposited. It is supposed by many naturalists, that some of the working-bees are exclusively wax-workers, some nurses, &c.; but others think that there is only one class of working-bees, all ready for any kind of work according to circumstances.

But wax, although the chief, is not the only material of the combs. *Propolis* (q. v.) is also employed in small bands to give greater strength to the cells, the mouths of which are surrounded with it, and made thicker than their walls. This substance, which is obtained by bees from the viscid buds of trees, is also employed for more firmly attaching the combs to the hive, for closing up apertures in the hive, for covering up obnoxious substances, intruding slugs, &c., which are too large to be removed, and for a variety of similar purposes.

It has been already stated that queen-bees are hatched and reared in cells different from the rest. They are, indeed, very different, being vertical and not horizontal in their position, not hexagonal, but rather oval in form, and much larger than the other cells, even in proportion to the size of the animal that is to inhabit them: they are generally placed on the edge of a comb, and when they have served their purpose, are partially removed, so that during winter they resemble acorn-cups in appearance.

Two queens cannot exist in the community together. There is implanted in them the most deadly rivalry; and the mother-B., if permitted, would even tear open every queen cell of which the inmate has nearly approached maturity, and inflict death by her sting. One of those wonderful instincts, however, with which bees are endowed, counteracts this at those times when, upon account of the increased numbers of the community, and in order to the formation of new colonies, it is requisite that it should be counteracted. The workers throng around the queen, hem her in, and prevent the execution of her purpose. The cell of the young queen is also carefully guarded, and she is not permitted to leave it. At such times peculiar sounds, produced probably by the action of the wings, are emitted both by the actual queen under restraint in her movements, and by the young one in the cell, which may be heard by an ear applied to the outside of the hive, and are familiar to B. cultivators as one of the surest signs of swarming. The queen now becomes restless; her agitation communicates itself to those around her, and extends through the hive; the ordinary work of the community is in great part neglected; fewer bees than usual are seen to leave or return to the hive; and at last the queen-B. rushes forth, preceded and followed by crowds which press and throng upon each other, form a buzzing cloud in the air, and very generally settle upon a bush in the neighbourhood, where they soon congregate closely together, hanging by their claws in a dense cluster. Sometimes they rise up in the air, and fly off at once to a considerable distance, apparently to some previously selected place in the thick top of a tree in the chimney or roof of a house, where they happen to find an aperture—or in some such situation. More frequently, they settle not far from the hive which they have left, often on some very humble plant, or even on the grass, and soon rise again. It is the care of the cultivator to prevent this by providing them immediately with a suitable habitation in a new hive, invitingly placed above them, or into which he puts the swarm after they have congregated closely together as above described. It sometimes happens that bees hurry out of their hive without their queen, in which case they do not in general congregate so closely together

where they settle, and soon return to the hive again. Swarming generally takes place in a fine day; and when the bees seem on the very point of *coming off*, a cloud passing over the sun is enough to retard it. Bad weather occasionally not only retards but prevents it, the young queens being at last killed in their cells.—When the first swarm of the season has left the hive with the old queen, as is usually, if not always the case, the imprisoned young queen is set at liberty; and if the B. community is a large and prosperous one, other young queens also come forth from their cells, and leave the hive with successive swarms, the number of which depends upon the climate, the season, &c. In Britain, it is not uncommon for a B.-hive to send off three swarms in a summer, the first being almost always the largest, and not unfrequently itself sending off a swarm before the season is over.

Bees left without a queen, and with no means of supplying the want, appear to feel themselves cut off from the very purpose of their existence; the labours of the community are relinquished, and its members are dispersed and die. It has already, however, been stated, that bees left without a queen can provide themselves with one, by transforming and enlarging a worker's cell which contains an egg or very young larva. This process is sometimes carried on as if by several distinct parties, in different parts of the hive at once; and as if aware that time will be gained, the bees generally prefer cells containing larvæ of two or three days old to those containing eggs.

Bees become partially torpid during cold weather, consuming much less food than they would otherwise require. They are readily aroused from this state, however, as may at any time be proved by tapping on a B.-hive, when it will be found that the temperature of the interior of the hive rises rapidly. Respiration is considerably lessened in the state of partial torpidity, and the temperature rises when it is resumed. The respiration of bees takes place by air-tubes or *trachea* (see INSECTS), and is very active when the insect is in a state of activity. The respiratory movements are easily seen in looking at a bee. The consumption of oxygen by this process might be expected soon to reduce the atmosphere within a hive to a state in which it could no longer support animal life; but in summer, when respiration is active and the hive populous, a constant circulation of air is maintained by the insects themselves, some of which are employed in a rapid vibration of their wings for this purpose. A greater or smaller number of them, according to circumstances, may frequently be seen thus engaged in fanning the air at the mouth of a bee-hive.

It may well be deemed an extraordinary fact, that among the enemies of bees are to be reckoned certain species of moth, which, notwithstanding the danger of the stings of the bees, enter the hives and deposit their eggs. After the eggs are hatched, the larvæ feed upon the combs. Mice sometimes eat their way into the hives in winter, and destroy and plunder unmolested.

Bees are sometimes very destructive to each other in their combats, as when one B. community is assailed by others for the purpose of plunder. To this the weaker communities are liable, particularly when flowers are few, and bees are awakened to full activity in the warm days of early spring. The narrower that the entrances of bee-hives are at this season, at least of the less populous hives, the less likely is the B. owner to suffer loss from this cause, as the narrow entrance is more easily defended even against very numerous invaders.

Management of Bees.—We do not think it necessary to enter largely into the subject of *Apiculture*—the cultivation or management of bees.

It is, of course, necessary that the *apiary* or stock of B.-hives should be situated in a neighbourhood where flowers sufficiently abound for the supply of honey. It is, however, by no means certain to what distance bees roam. Some authors mention one mile as the probable distance; but the opinion has apparently been hazarded on mere conjecture, and there seem to be good reasons for supposing that a much greater distance might more correctly be named. But whatever distance bees may be capable of travelling in quest of honey, it is undoubtedly of great importance that they should have good feeding-ground in the immediate neighbourhood of the apiary; and in many parts of the world, the practice prevails of removing them from place to place, according to the season, in order that advantage may be taken of the greatest abundance of flowers. Thus in the south of Scotland, B.-hives are very frequently removed to heath-covered tracts in the beginning of August, and remain there till the heath is out of flower; and this affords in many parts of the country the most plentiful honey-harvest, although in other parts, especially where white clover abounds, the greatest quantity of honey is obtained earlier in summer. The difference between *Heather Honey* and *Flower Honey* is well known in Edinburgh. No small number of B.-hives from that city and its immediate vicinity are annually conveyed for a few weeks to the Pentland Hills. The conveyance of bees 'to the heather' is generally accomplished either by a handbarrow or a spring-cart of easy motion, so that the combs may not be displaced by shaking; and the mouth of the hive is carefully closed with a plate of perforated zinc, or other contrivance for keeping in the bees and permitting circulation of air. Fifty or one hundred B.-hives may often be seen collected in one place, and under the care of one person, during the heather-season.—In Egypt, far greater numbers of hives (of *Apis fasciata*) are often kept in a single vessel on the Nile, and are conveyed from place to place on the river, according to the succession of flowers in the different districts. A somewhat similar practice prevails on the Rhone; and the transporting of bees (*Apis Ligustica*) from pasture to pasture has been usual in Greece, in Asia Minor, and in Persia, from remote antiquity.

As to the form of B.-hives, and the material of which they should be made, there are great differences both of opinion and practice. Glass hives, and hives with glass-windows, which can be covered at pleasure with wooden slides, are employed by those who wish to observe the movements and habits of bees; but for profitable purposes, wood and straw are in Britain the only materials in common use. A simple and useful form of a capped hive is shown in the accompanying illustration. For the material of a hive, wood has the advantage over straw in its greater neatness and durability; but there is a disadvantage in the greater likelihood that, unless shaded from the sun, portions of the comb may be so much melted as to fall in hot weather. In some parts of Europe, cylindrical cork-hives are much used, made by removing the wood of a portion of the cork-tree, and leaving the bark uninjured; and hives of earthenware are common in Greece and Turkey. The form of hives is of little consequence; but it is important that the owner should have facilities for giving increased room both above and below the stock-hive: increased room above is required for the reception of pure honey-comb unmixed with brood, and the capability of adding to the hive below, by raising it up an additional story, is often requisite to prevent swarming, which

is incompatible with the collection of a large store of surplus honey.

Bees require attention at the time of swarming,

Simple form of Bee-hive,
With cap removed to shew glass top.

that they may not fly away and be lost. They require also to be fed during winter, when, on account of a bad season, the lateness of the swarm, or other cause, they have not enough of honey to support them. A common rule is, that the weight of the contents of the hive must be at least twenty pounds, that the bees may survive the winter without being fed; and even in this case a supply of food for a short time in spring promotes the activity of the bees, and their summer prosperity. The food ordinarily supplied to bees is either the coarser kind of honey, or sugar and water. Strong ale and sugar boiled are also frequently given as food. The practice has very largely prevailed in Britain and elsewhere, of killing bees by fumes of sulphur, in order to take from them their honey in the end of autumn, a portion only of the increase of the stock being kept through the winter. This practice still has its advocates; but many now take only what they can by top boxes or *supers*, or by cutting out combs, preserving all hives which are not so light that there is no good hope of their surviving the winter. It may be doubted if, in almost any part of the country, the number of bees kept is so great as nearly to exhaust the floral resources, and in all probability this may yet become a much greater source of wealth than it is in Britain.

When honey is to be taken from bees, the person doing it must be carefully protected from their stings by gloves, veil, &c. It is best done during the heat of a fine day, when the bees more readily leave the combs of the *super* that is taken away, and return to their hive. A little gentle tapping generally causes them to leave the combs, and a feather is used for brushing off those which are slow to do so. The smoke of the common Puff-ball (q. v.) causes them to fall down in a stupefaction from which they speedily recover, and its use is very convenient. It is gathered and dried for the purpose. Chloroform is also sometimes used for the same purpose, but the effect is apt to be fatal, unless care is taken to choose the morning of a fine day, so that the stupified bees may have time to recover in the air and sunshine.

Bees are much less apt to sting when swarming than at other times, and in general all the necessary operations are performed without gloves or veil, and with perfect safety. The sting of a B. is to many persons a thing of no great consequence, although, in some, it causes great local inflammation and swelling, and general derangement of health. The application of a little ammonia usually relieves the pain, or an onion or shallot cut through the middle may be applied, and has the same effect.

The apiary should, if possible, be in a sheltered place, and where it enjoys a good amount of sunshine. The hives are very generally placed at small distances in the open ground, but some B.-keepers protect them by a shed. In the former case, each hive is usually covered with a straw-hood in winter, to keep away the rain, as damp is particularly injurious to bees. For the avoidance of damp, and to prevent the bees from coming in contact with the ground when they hang in a great cluster at the door of the hive—as they often do before swarming, when the weather is hot, and the hive very populous—each hive is raised to a height of at least fifteen or eighteen inches from the ground.

Bees, Law Relating to. B. are stated by Blackstone to be wild by nature (*feræ naturæ*), but when hived and reclaimed, are regarded in the nature of *property* belonging to the person on whose ground or soil they have swarmed; and in support of this doctrine, he refers to the Charter of the Forest, 9 Henry III. c. 13, which allows every freeman to be entitled to the honey found within his own woods. The qualified property which may be thus held in B. continues while the swarm remains on the soil; and in the event of flight, so long as the owner can pursue it. Indeed, so clearly are they considered in law to be of the nature of property, that it has been decided in England that B. may be the subject of larceny (q. v.).

The same appears to be the Scotch law. Mr Erskine, who may be described as the Scottish Blackstone, founding on the Roman law, lays down that, when B. have abandoned their hive, not being observed and followed, they are understood to have recovered their original liberty; and if they light on the grounds of another, and are enclosed by him in a new hive, they become his property. See Ownership.

Bee, Humble. See Humble-Bee.

BEECH (*Fagus*), a genus of trees of the natural order *Cupuliferæ* (q. v.). The male catkins are almost globose, stalked, their flowers consisting of a bell-shaped 5—6-cleft perianth and 8—15 stamens. The female flowers, which grow on the same trees, consist chiefly of a germen with three awl-shaped styles, and are situated two or rarely three together within a stalked involucre, which bears on its outer surface many fleshy threads. This involucre, after the flowering is over, closes and forms a husk resembling a sort of capsule, which when ripe opens in four valves, is externally covered with soft spines, and encloses one or two (rarely three) triangular nuts, which bear the name of *Beechmast*.—The species are not numerous; all of them are forest-trees of great beauty.—The Common B. (*F. sylvatica*) forms whole forests in many parts of Europe. It grows to a height of 100–120 feet, and a diameter of 4 feet; and particularly when standing alone becomes a very ornamental tree with far-spreading branches, which often droop gracefully almost to the ground. It has thin, ovate, obscurely toothed leaves, finely ciliated on their margins. Its bark is smooth, often of a whitish colour; and it is remarkable for the frequency with which h[illegible] woolen knobs—abortive branches—occur in [illegible] does not grow readily under the sha[illegible]

in B. woods may sometimes be found rare plants almost peculiar to such situations. The B. thrives best in light soils; and does not send its roots deep

Common Beech.

into the ground, but rather horizontally under the surface. The wood is more or less of a reddish-brown colour, as the tree has grown in a dense forest, or has been freely exposed to sun and air. It is very hard and solid, but brittle; and when exposed to the open air, very liable to rot and to be eaten by worms. It is therefore not adapted to the purposes of the house-carpenter; but when kept always under water, it is very durable, and is accordingly employed in the erection of mills, and for weirs, sluices, &c. It is also employed for many purposes by cabinet-makers and turners. It is very much used in France for making the *sabots* or wooden shoes of the peasantry, being preferred for this purpose to every other wood except walnut, on account of its property of not absorbing water. It is one of the best kinds of firewood in Europe. Its

Common Beech.

a, part of a branchlet with leaves and catkins, reduced; *b*, a single male flower; *c*, a single female flower.

ashes yield much potash and of excellent quality. The raspings of the wood are used in the preparation of vinegar. See VINEGAR and PYROLIGNEOUS ACID. The bark is sometimes employed for tanning when oak-bark is scarce. The B. bears lopping well, and is often planted for hedges; and it is a curious fact, that when it is prevented from attaining a tree-like size, and is kept closely pruned, the withered leaves remain on the branches all winter, which is not the case in other circumstances. In some countries, as Dauphiny and Switzerland, the leaves of the B. are collected in autumn before they have been much frost-bitten, and are used for making beds or mattresses.—Beechmast, when fresh, has a sweet taste, like that of a walnut. It contains in large quantity a bland fixed oil, along with a starchy farina, a little sugar, and an astringent substance. A volatile, narcotic, poisonous principle, called *Fagine*, is also found in it, but more in the rind than in the kernel; and when not only the smooth leathery outer rind, but also the thin brown inner pellicle have been removed, it is wholesome food. It is, however, more generally used for feeding swine, poultry, &c., and is much employed in France and other parts of Europe for the manufacture of *Beech Oil*, which, when expressed without the application of heat, and well clarified, has an agreeable taste, is fit for use as food, and keeps long without becoming rancid. When less pure, it is used for lamps and in the arts. The oil-cake which remains is good food for poultry, for swine, and even for oxen, but is injurious to horses. Many manufacturers of cocoa adulterate it with beechmast, first depriving the cocoa of its oil, which they sell separately as cocoa-butter, and trusting to the oil of the B. for supplying its place.—B. forests anciently abounded in England, and great herds of swine were fed in them. The B. is not, in general, found in Europe north of lat. 59°, although it occurs two degrees further north in the Scandinavian peninsula. It is found in the temperate parts of Asia and in North America; the WHITE B. of that country being generally regarded as the same species, a very common tree in some parts of the United States. In gardens and pleasure-grounds a variety is very frequently to be seen, of which the leaves have a blood-red colour. The same colour appears also in some degree in the leaves of the RED B. of North America (*F. ferruginea*), which is distinguished by elongate-ovate, coarsely serrated, and much acuminated leaves. It forms extensive forests in the North-eastern States and the adjoining British possessions; and its wood, which is of a somewhat red or rusty colour, is more valued than that of the White B.—Two species of B. are found on the mountains of Java; four are natives of the more elevated parts of the south of New Zealand; several belong to the south of South America. The genus is, in fact, more characteristic of the colder latitudes of the southern than of the northern hemisphere. *F. betuloides* (also known as *F. Forsteri*) is the 'myrtle-tree' of the mountains of Tasmania—a very large tree with evergreen leathery leaves, in form much resembling those of the birch, although the general habit of the tree agrees with that of other beeches. The same species is the evergreen B. of Terra del Fuego, where it forms forests of which the dark green foliage contrasts strikingly in winter with the dazzling snow. There can be little doubt that it will soon become a favourite and common ornamental tree in Britain. The wood is too heavy and brittle for masts, but makes tolerable planks, and is carried to the treeless Falkland Islands for roofing houses. *F. Antarctica* ascends higher on the mountains about the Strait of Magellan. It has deciduous leaves, and much resembles the common B.—*F. procera* grows in the Andes of Chili, and attains a majestic size. It is a valuable timber-tree.

BEECH-DROPS. See CANCER ROOT.

BEECHER, the name of a celebrated American family of preachers and litterateurs.

LYMAN B. was born at Newhaven, Connecticut,

U. S., October 1775; studied divinity under the well-known American theologian Dwight; and obtained a church at East Hampton, Long Island, in 1798. He afterwards removed to Litchfield, Connecticut, and from thence, in 1826, to Boston. In 1832, he was appointed president of the Lane Theological Seminary at Cincinnati, and to the charge of the second Presbyterian church in that city. In 1842 he returned to Boston, and in 1856–1857 removed to Brooklyn, Long Island. He died in 1863. B. wrote on temperance, slavery, and theology. His collected works, in 3 vols., revised by himself, were published at Boston. Three of his sons—Edward, Charles, and Henry Ward—are also ministers, and have written extensively on religious subjects.

Henry Ward B., the best known, was born at Litchfield, Connecticut, in 1813, and after graduating at Amherst College, Connecticut, he studied theology under his father at Lane Seminary. After ten years' pastorship of two churches in the state of Indiana, he removed to Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, New York, 'an organisation of Orthodox Congregational believers,' where he still remains. He is said to have the largest congregation in the United States, and his popularity as a public lecturer is great. He was editor of the *New York Independent*, one of those newspapers called 'religious;' since 1870, he has edited a paper of the same sort, called the *Christian Union*. B. has published several *Lectures to Young Men*, which have gone through many editions; *Life Thoughts*; a novel named *Norwood*; and he is said to be finishing the *Life of Christ*. He has visited Europe twice, last in 1864.

Catherine B., eldest daughter of Lyman B., was born at East Hampton, Long Island, in 1800. From 1822–1832, she was principal of a female seminary at Hartford, Connecticut, and afterwards of a similar institution at Cincinnati. She is a fertile and popular writer, chiefly on subjects coming within the sphere of her own sex, but also on physiology, theology, mental and moral philosophy, &c.

Harriet B. See Stowe, H. B.

BEECHEY, Sir William, R.A., an English portrait-painter of high reputation, was born at Burford, Oxfordshire, December 12, 1753. He entered the Royal Academy as a pupil in 1772, and devoted himself chiefly to portrait-painting, in which he was so successful, that in 1793 he was chosen portrait-painter to Queen Charlotte, of whom he painted a full length. In the same year he was elected an associate of the Royal Academy; and in 1798, he received the honour of knighthood, and was made a Royal Academician for his picture of the Review of the 3d and 10th Dragoons in Hyde Park by George III. (accompanied by the Prince of Wales and Duke of York), which is reckoned B.'s greatest work. B. now received the patronage of the royal family—most of the members of which sat to him—as well as that of the court nobility. Among his portraits are those of Lord Nelson (preserved in the Clothier's Hall, London), Sir William Hamilton, Lord St Vincent (in Fishmonger's Hall), Lord Cornwallis, John Kemble, and Mrs Siddons. B. is not a portrait-painter of first rank, but his portraits are generally characterised by easy attitude and naturalness of expression. He retired from his profession in 1836, and died at Hampstead in January 1839.

BEECHEY, Frederick William, son of Sir William B., the portrait painter, was born in London, February 17, 1796. He entered the navy when he was ten years of age, and at the age of fifteen was present in an engagement off the coast of Madagascar, in which three French frigates were captured. In 1818, he took part under Franklin in a scientific voyage of discovery to the north pole, of which the results were published by order of the Admiralty (1843). For the services he rendered with his pencil during this voyage, B. received a grant of £200 from parliament. In 1819, he was engaged in another arctic expedition under Sir Edward Parry; and in 1821, rendered other important services to science by his exploration of part of the north coast of Africa, of which the results were published in 1828. After being appointed commander, Captain B., in 1825, received a commission to proceed by the Pacific Ocean and Behring's Strait to the Polar Sea, in order to communicate, if possible, with Franklin, who was to make the journey overland from North America. The explorers did not meet, although at one time they were within 150 miles of each other. He returned in 1828, having been two years and a half away, and in 1831 published a narrative of his voyage, which was afterwards followed by an account of the botany and zoology of the Arctic regions. Port Clarence and Port Grantley, to the south-east of Cape Prince of Wales, were discovered by B. in 1827. He was afterwards engaged in surveying the coast of Ireland and of South America; and was made Rear-admiral of the Blue in 1854. He died in 1856.

BEEDER, the capital of a district of the same name in the Nizam's territories. It is about 75 miles to the north-west of Hyderabad, being in lat. 17° 53′ N., and long. 77° 36′ E. It stands near the right bank of the Manjera, a considerable tributary of the Godavery, and occupies a table-land about 2400 feet above the sea, and about 100 feet above the adjacent country. Though B. was formerly a place of grandeur and importance, yet it is at present remarkable chiefly for its manufactures in a compound metal made up of twenty-four parts of tin to one of copper.

BEE-EATER (*Merops*), a genus of birds of the order *Insessores* and tribe *Fissirostres*; the type of a family, *Meropidæ*, nearly allied to that of the Kingfishers. The birds of the B. family have rather long slightly arched beaks, and long pointed wings: they are mostly of a green colour; resemble swallows in flight; and, like them, prey on insects, but chiefly on bees, wasps, and other hymenopterous insects. Their skin is very thick. The species

Common Bee-eater (*Merops apiaster*).

of the genus *Merops* are numerous in Africa and Asia; none are known in Au[illegible]a: t[illegible] are European, one of which, the [illegible] (*M. apiaster*), is common in the so[illegible]

as a summer bird of passage. It is a very rare bird in Britain. It is mentioned by Aristotle, under the name *Merops*, as very destructive to bees. It seizes them on the wing, and also often watches near their hives, and at the mouths of wasps' nests. It breeds in holes, which it excavates in the banks of rivers. 'When the young are partly fledged, but not yet fit to fly, they creep to the mouth of their holes, where they seem to enjoy the happy summer light and genial sunshine; but on the least alarm, they trundle stern foremost into their inner chambers, where they lie concealed until tranquillity again prevails.' In the banks of the Don and Volga, the excavations made by the flocks of bee-eaters are so numerous, that the bank in many places resembles a honey-comb. Livingstone describes the banks of the Leeba, in South Africa, as perforated in a similar manner. The Hottentots watch the flight of the bee-eaters, that they may be guided to the nests of bees.

BEEF. See FOOD AND DRINK, DIET.

BEEF-EATER, a term now applied jocularly to certain functionaries belonging to the Yeomen of the Guard (q. v.), who, ever since the time of Henry VII., have formed part of the train of royalty, attending the sovereign at royal banquets and other state occasions. They have maintained the same costume, with a slight alteration made in 1858, for nearly four centuries; and this costume has had much to do with their attractiveness to sight-seers. The origin of the term is a case of what Dr Latham calls 'words of foreign simulating a vernacular origin.' It was originally *beaufetier* or *buffetier* (Fr.), one who attends the *buffet* or side-board. Similar instances of false etymology, arising from resemblance in sound, are seen in *Shot-over* (a hill near Oxford), from *Chateau Vert*; *sparrow-grass*, from *asparagus*; *ancient*, for *ensign*; *dog-cheap*, from the old English *god-kepe*, i. e., *good-cheap*, meaning *a good bargain*; &c.

BEEF-EATER (*Buphaga*), a genus of birds, of the order *Insessores*, tribe *Conirostres*, to which the name Ox-pecker is also and more correctly given. The beef-eaters have short bills, square at the base, and rather swollen towards the point. They are accustomed to sit upon the backs of buffaloes, camels, and other large animals, and to feed upon the larvæ of gadflies, which they find in their hides. They are exclusively African. One of the species is the Buffalo Bird of South Africa. Livingstone mentions that the sight of the bird being much more acute than that of the buffalo, it is much more easily alarmed by the approach of danger; but the buffaloes always begin to look about them when the birds rise from their backs.

BEEF-TEA is a light and pleasant article of diet, obtained from the flesh of the ox. It is generally prepared by placing the meat (as lean as possible) in cold water, which is gradually heated, and then allowed to *simmer* for two hours or so; but the best method appears to be to commence by chopping the meat small, adding the cold water, and rapidly heating so as to bring it to boil. A little salt is then added, to suit the taste. Either process, by commencing with cold water, succeeds in dissolving out of the meat the savoury natural juices which it contains to the extent of about one-eighth of its weight. Occasionally, hard-toasted bread, in fragments, is added to the tea just before being partaken of, which imparts to it some of the nutritious qualities of the bread. In using the B., the bread may or may not be eaten. The popular notion is, that the B. contains all the nourishing constituents of the entire amount of meat employed in its preparation; but this is erroneous, as much nutritious matter is resident in the seven-eighths of the original meat, left as residuary fleshy fibre, though the latter will no doubt prove of difficult digestion. The chemical constituents of B. are *gelatine*; *albuminous matter*; *kreatine*, a substance resembling *theine*, the essential principle of tea and coffee; *extractive matters* (*osmazome*), to which the tea owes most of its colour and flavour, besides a part of its nutritious qualities; *lactic acid*; *salts*; a *little fat*; *saccharine matter*, and *water*. B. is highly palatable, and from its very easy digestion, it is recommended to invalids and convalescents. Mutton, treated in a similar manner, yields a broth or tea which is not so easily digested, and is hurtful to persons of weak stomach, especially if the fat be not skimmed off from the liquid. A knuckle of veal affords a similar broth or tea; but it is not so light as B., and, moreover, gelatinises on cooling. A broth or tea prepared from a young chicken is, of all decoctions of animal matter, the most readily digested, and is specially suitable for invalids, where great irritability of the stomach exists.

BEEF-WOOD. See CASUARINA.

BEE'HIVE-HOUSE, a name generally given to certain dome-shaped buildings in Ireland, which are believed to be among the oldest architectural remains in that country. They are round edifices, of no great size or height, built without cement, of long thin stones arranged in horizontal layers, the one slightly overlapping the other, and so gradually converging until they meet at the top. The doorway, which is square-headed, is somewhat narrower at the top than at the bottom, as in Egyptian architecture. Beehive-houses are of two kinds—single or clustered. The former are generally found beside ancient oratories, and are supposed to have been the dwelling-places of the priests; the latter, which are often underground, shew two or more hive-shaped chambers, connected by a passage or gallery, or opening from a larger central apartment, which is also hive-shaped. Irish antiquaries refer the beehive-houses generally to the period before the Anglo-Norman invasion of the island, in the 12th c., and claim for some of them an antiquity as high as the 7th and 8th c. Ruins of single beehive-houses are found in the Western Isles of Scotland; and some of the 'Picts' houses,' or 'earth-houses,' of the east coast, seem to resemble the subterranean aggregated beehive-houses of Ireland.

BEELZEBUB (i. e. 'the god of flies'). Under this name the people of Ekron, in Philistia, worshipped their god Baal (q. v.) or Bel. The Greeks also had their 'Zeus Apomyios' or 'Myiagros'—'the disperser of flies.' As the heathen deities were all regarded as demons by the Jews, the name Beelzebub became, in course of time, commonly applied to the chief of evil spirits, and in this sense it is employed in the Gospels. The more correct reading of the word, as given by the Evangelists, is BEELZEBUL—an opprobrious change of name, making it signify 'god of dung,' to mark the low and grovelling character of the demon. See BAAL.

BEER, derived from the German *B* [illegible] A the term applied to a fermented liqu[illegible] not undergone the process of distillation. [illegible] prepared from many varieties of vegetable [illegible] but in Britain the raw material operated generally barley, although pease, beans, [illegible] might be employed. In other countries, [illegible] prepared from other sources, to which [illegible] made at the close of this [illegible] followed in the manufacture [illegible] is [illegible] two parts—viz., *malting* and [illegible] tinct are these, that very [illegible]

in a building at some distance from that in which the brewing is conducted, and in many cases the malting is superintended and accomplished by a *maltster*, as his particular and only branch of trade, the malt thus prepared being afterwards purchased by the brewer.

The variety of barley preferred for the preparation of the finer kinds of B. is the chevalier; but other varieties are extensively used. See BARLEY.

The process of malting, or the conversion of barley into malt, is accomplished in four successive steps. 1st, *Steeping* of the barley, which consists in

Fig. 1.

introducing the grain into a large wooden or stone cistern, *a* (fig. 1), and adding thereto as much water as will cover it. On being thus treated for twenty-four hours, the grains of barley absorb the water, and the contents of the cistern, near the top, even begin to feel dry. The barley swells up much, so as to increase considerably in bulk, and the Excise officers, if they choose, can gauge or measure the grain at this stage, and charge by the bulk thus indicated. The amount of water which barley takes up in the steeping, affords good evidence of the excellence of the grain for brewing. Thus, the better kinds of barley, on the average, take up sufficient water to increase their weight by one half. Occasionally, however, the increase is not more than a tenth. The time during which the grain lies in the steeping-cistern is about 40 hours, when the excess of water is drained off; but a regulation exists that the cistern cannot have a second charge of barley till four days have elapsed after the introduction of the first charge. 2d, *Couching*.—The grain is thrown out of the steeping cistern in a heap on the floor, *b*. At this stage, the barley is soft, and when pressed between the fingers, it is readily bruised. It lies in the couch or heap for 26 hours or so, and during that time, it rises in temperature about 10° F., and gives out some of its extra water. This *sweating*, as it is called, is the result of the partial germination or growth of the barley; and little rootlets or fibrils of the radicle, and a primitive stem (plumula or acrospire), begin to form and present themselves. As the temperature rises, the radicles lengthen rapidly, and means are then taken to check the germination. 3d, *Flooring*. The heated barley is spread by the workmen with spades on the floor to the depth of about 15 inches at first, *cc*. It is repeatedly turned and respread over a larger area, with a thickness of layer decreasing to 6 inches. At this stage, the radicles have attained their greatest length. 4th, *Kiln drying*.—The half-germinated barley is now introduced into a kiln (fig. 2), on the perforated floor of which it is spread. The apartment beneath the kiln room is fitted up with stoves or choffers, A, which evolve much heat; and this, rising and passing through the slits or perforations in the floor of the kiln, B, necessarily dries any moist barley laid thereon, and the steam escapes at the roof, C. The heat which the barley is subjected to in the kiln is, at the commencement, 90° F., but this gradually is raised to about 150° F. While drying, the radicles—called *corculums*

Fig. 2.

or *cummings*—break off from the grain, and are afterwards removed by a wire-sieve. The colour which the barley assumes as it becomes dry malt in the kiln is determined by the heat to which it is subjected, the higher temperature yielding the darker-coloured malt. *Pale* and *amber coloured malt* are used in the brewing of the lighter varieties of B.—such as bitter-B., table-B., and small-B.; whilst a darker kind of malt is used in sweet ale, and a very dark malt in the preparation of porter. During the conversion of barley into malt, a loss of material occurs. Thus, 100 parts of barley yield 80 parts of malt; but as the 100 parts of barley contain 12 of water, it follows that there are present only 88 parts of dry matter, and these yield 80 parts of dry malt, giving a loss of 8 per cent. of the original weight of the barley. While there is a decrease in weight, there is an increase in bulk, 100 measures of barley becoming 101 to 109 measures of malt. Certain chemical changes likewise occur as the barley is

transformed into malt, which may be noticed from the following table:

	Composition of Barley.	Malt.
Hordein (q. v.), .	55	12
Starch, . .	32	56
Sugar, . .	5	15
Gluten, . .	3	1
Gum, . . .	4	15
Resin, . .	1	1
	100	100

The principal chemical change is, therefore, the transformation of much hordein (a form of starch) into starch, gum, and sugar. The mechanical condition of the contents of the grain is also altered; the grain is now of a fine mealy nature, and is readily broken between the fingers, when the flour in the interior is found to be soft and distinctly sweet to taste.

The *brewing* of the malt comprehends no less than six stages. 1st, *Grinding the malt*, which may be accomplished in several ways: either by placing the malt between two revolving horizontal circular stones, such as are employed in flour-grinding; or passing the malt through a mill like a large coffee-mill; or bruising it between revolving steel rollers. The last plan is the best, as it is desirable that the grinding should not be too perfect. It would give a fine flour, readily becoming [illegible] the addition of water. When coarsely [illegible] however, the water can find its way into all of the grain, and thoroughly soak it. 2d. [illegible] *the bruised malt.*—This operation is conducted in a large tun (fig. 3), built up of wooden staves, and surrounded by hoops—somewhat similar in construction to an ordinary domestic churn. Water, which has been previously heated in a copper, is allowed to run into the comparatively cold mash-tun, while the bruised malt at the same time

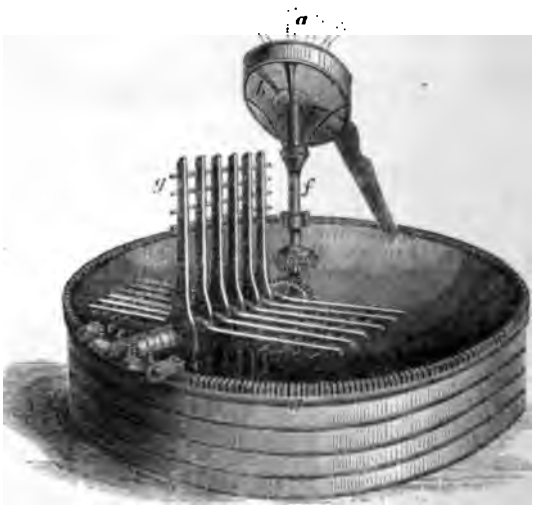


Fig. 3.

descends by the hopper, *ab*; the water thereby becoming reduced to 160° F., or slightly below that temperature. The whole is then thoroughly agitated by long poles, *g*, worked by the hand or by machinery, *def*, till every particle of the malt is brought into contact with the water. The result is that the malt absorbs the water in part, and a very active change begins to take place. In the malt, there is developed a substance called *diastase* (q. v.), which reacts on the starch of the malted barley, and changes it into the variety of sugar called grape-sugar. See SUGAR. So rapidly does this transformation of starch into sugar occur, that almost immediately on the mixing of the water with the bruised malt, the liquid assumes a sweet taste. In the space of half an hour the temperature of the mash-tun will be found to have decreased to about 140° F.; and then a second quantity of water, at a heat of 190° F., is run in, so as to raise the temperature to about 167° F., which degree of heat is found to be the best for enabling the diastase to act most powerfully in transforming the starch into sugar. After two to three hours' action upon the malt, the water, which is now very sweet to the taste, is drawn off into a large vessel called the *underback*, and fresh water, at a temperature of about 190° F., is admitted to the tun, and allowed to soak the malt still remaining there. This part of the process is styled the *second mash*; and as the water is at a higher temperature than in the *first mash*, much of the residuary matter in the mash is changed into sugar, and dissolved. After some hours, the liquid from the second mash is drawn off, and added to that of the first mash already in the underback; and a third quantity of water, at a still higher temperature, about 200° F., is run in upon the malt, which dissolves out all the remaining portions of any value, and leaves the husk skin of the grain and other insoluble matters. The liquid from the *third mash* is not strong enough to be in general mixed with the other solutions in the underback, and is either employed in brewing small-B., or is again heated and used in treating new bruised malt.

In order that the brewer may be enabled to prepare the same variety of B. day after day, it is requisite that the liquid in the underback, and which is now called the *sweet-worts*, should be of a definite strength; and to determine this, an instrument called a saccharometer, a form of *areometer* (q. v.), is used, which enables the brewer to determine the strength of the sweet-worts, and, if necessary, to add some of the liquid from the third mash, to reduce the strength of that in the underback.

In the drawing off of the several worts from the

mash-tun, advantage is taken of a finely perforated false bottom of plate-iron, which lies about a foot above the true bottom of the tun, and the liquids being drained away through the perforations in the false bottom, the insoluble husk and other matters are left behind. The material left on the false bottom, called *grains* or *draff*, is used for feeding cattle.

3d, *Boiling of the worts with hops.*—When reduced to the proper strength, the worts are pumped up from the underback into a covered-in boiler or copper, AA (fig. 4), and being mixed with hops, are raised to the boiling-point, and kept in a state of ebullition for some time. During the boiling, it is necessary to keep the hops and other sediment from settling at the lower part of the boiler near the fire, DD, and for that purpose, a sort of rake with teeth, BB, turned by a wheel (C) above, is kept turning round, which tends to hold the sediment in mechanical suspension. To economise heat, it is customary to have a tank fitted to the upper part of the boiler in which water or the worts can be heated. The

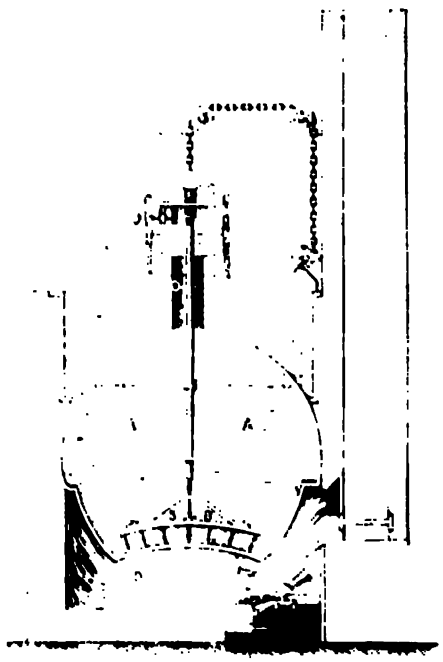


Fig. 4.

hops which are obtained from Kent and Sussex are the strongest, and are employed in the brewing of porter, while the Worcester hop is milder, and is preferred for ale. The hops are useful in the brewing of B. in imparting to the liquor a volatile fragrant aromatic oil, a bitter resin, and a little tannin. The quantity of hops required to be added depends much on the kind of B. which it is intended to brew. The stronger the B. is to be, and above all, the more bitterness is required, the more hops must be added to the boiler. In common ale or B., the quantity of hops does not exceed 2 lb. to the quarter of malt; whilst in bitter-B., and especially that intended for foreign countries, the amount of hops is 8 lb. and upwards. Besides imparting to the worts the active constituents of the hop, the boiling operation serves other important ends. In the sweet-worts, there is a considerable quantity of nitrogenous matter, which is very liable to pass into decomposition, and which, were it to do so, would destroy the beer. During

Fig. 5.

the boiling, the excess of this nitrogenous matter separates as a flaky and stringy solid, called by the brewer *mucilage*. The boiling is continued till the hops have yielded their aromatic and bitter principles, and till the liquid has been concentrated to the extent required by the brewer, and then the whole is run into the *hop-back*, a form of cistern which has a false bottom composed of perforated iron plates (fig. 5), admitting of the liquid worts percolating through, while all the mucilage and other solid matters are retained on the upper surface of this metallic sieve. 4th, *Cooling the worts.*—As the liquor drains through the false bottom of the hop-back, it is run on to the *cooler* or *refrigerator* (fig. 6), which, in size and appearance, resembles the ordinary wooden floor of a large room. The planks are so closely connected together that the liquid cannot run through, and a wooden ledge, B, runs round the sides of the room, which is also tight. The hot worts, which are spread to the depth of a few inches over the floor, are very rapidly cooled down, by allowing a free current of cold air to pass over the top of the liquid, and often by having a series of fans, CC, revolving rapidly immediately above the liquid, so as to cause a more speedy removal of the heated air loaded with steam, and the substitution of cold air. Occasionally, the brewer is at the expense of having a coil of metal pipe, A, placed up and down the floor of the cooler, through which metal pipe cold water is allowed to run at the time the hot worts are being cooled down. By these means the worts are very soon reduced to a temperature of about 60° F. This step in the process of brewing is a very important one, as, if the cooling is not conducted with the greatest rapidity, the sugar in the worts

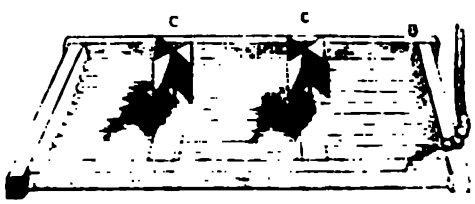


Fig. 6.

will become partially converted into acetic acid, or, as it is termed, *foring* occurs, which communicates bad properties to the worts, and ultimately produces a beer with an unpleasant taste and flavour.—5th, *Fermenting the worts.*—When the

liquid has been cooled down to 55°—60° F., it is conveyed to the fermenting tun, where it is mixed with the yeast (q. v.), and the process of fermentation proceeds. The tun or vat is formed of strong wooden staves, and is either circular or square. The latter form has recently been introduced, and appears to be preferred by some brewers. The yeast is added in varying quantity, according to the strength of the worts, but the more common amount is one gallon to every 100 gallons of the worts. Very soon after the yeast is mixed with the worts, the whole contents of the tun begin to pass into a state of commotion, much gas is evolved, and this, tending to escape, causes a *frothing* on the surface of the liquid termed the *rocks*, from the irregular mountainous appearance of the masses of froth piled on each other. The colour of the froth at this period indicates the quality of the beer. Thus, if the froth appears of a yellowish-white or yellow tint, the operation is going on satisfactorily; but if the colour darkens to a brownish-yellow or a light brown, it is considered a bad sign, and the beer is spoiled as a first-class beverage. The chemical changes which occur during the process of fermentation (q. v.) are due to the action of the particles of yeast on the sugar or saccharine matter. This action proceeds most satisfactorily at a temperature of 72° F., and care is taken in the brewing of the finer varieties of beer, such as India pale ale and bitter-beer, that the temperature never exceeds 72° F. The grape-sugar which is present in the worts as they are introduced into the fermenting tun, is composed of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen in the proportion C_{12}, H_{14}, O_{14}; and when the yeast acts upon it, a greater or less proportion of it is converted into alcohol, carbonic acid, and water. Thus, one atom of sugar, $C_{12}H_{14}O_{14}$, is converted into 2 atoms of alcohol ($C_4H_6O_2$) $= C_8H_{12}O_4$; 4 atoms of carbonic acid (CO_2) $= C_4O_8$; and 2 atoms of water (HO) $= H_2O_2$; which, when added together, give the atom of sugar, $C_{12}H_{14}O_{14}$. The carbonic acid tending to escape, causes the frothing or rocks, and the alcohol and water are left in the fermenting tun. During the progress of the fermentation, a considerable amount of new yeast is formed, which gets entangled in the froth; and when the operation slackens, and the frothy head begins to fall, the upper yeast is skimmed off. This process of the conversion of the sugar of the worts into alcohol or spirit, is termed attenuation (Lat. *tenuis*, thin); and the degree to which the change is carried depends on the kind of B., and the market it is to be sent to. In sweet ale or B., the attenuation is not allowed to proceed far, and much sugar is left in the beer. Bitter-B., however, is attenuated to a greater degree, and consequently there is less saccharine matter left in it; while in India pale ale, and other beers intended to be sent great distances, the attenuation must be carried on much further, else the liquor would not be preserved during its transit to many parts of the globe. 6th, *Clearing* and *storing*.—The B., when properly fermented, is placed in casks like hogsheads, called *rounds*, where the remaining traces of fermentation proceed, and the B. ceases to appear thick or cloudy, and becomes clear; when it is pumped up into store-casks of great size, or at once placed in the casks in which it is sent into market. During the storing of the B., an extra quantity of hops is often added, to increase the bitterness and pungency.

The principal constituents of the various kinds of B. are water, alcohol, sugar, gum, gluten, and the bitter extractive matter of the hop. The amount of alcohol varies: in small-B., it is only about 1 per cent.; in ale, the stronger kinds of B., and porter for home consumption, 5 to 7 per cent.; in East India pale ale, 10 per cent. In B. intended to be forwarded to California from Britain, the attenuation is carried so far, that there is more than 10 per cent. of alcohol, and the B. is then called *dry*.

B. is adulterated in many ways. Burned sugar (caramel) is added to give colour; cocculus indicus, to supply an intoxicating agent which will give an appearance of strength to the B.; quassia, to impart bitterness in place of hops; grains of paradise and Cayenne pepper, to communicate pungency; coriander and caraway seeds, to yield flavour; liquorice, treacle, and honey, to supply colour and consistence. To stale-beer there is sometimes added green vitriol (sulphate of iron), or alum and common salt, which, when agitated with the B., communicate a fine cauliflower head. It is unnecessary to state that such admixtures are never made in any extensive brewing establishment with respectable connections.

For the home-brewing of B., many recipes have been published, and one of the best is that given by Mr Donovan in the *Cabinet Cyclopædia*. The apparatus he suggests is of the roughest description, and comparatively inexpensive. A porter-barrel forms the mash-tun; the upper end being taken out, perforated with a gimlet, and lowered into the barrel to near the bottom, where it is supported about a couple of inches from the true bottom, and constitutes the false bottom through which the liquid drains from the bruised malt. A hole is made in the side of the barrel, near the bottom, and between the true and false bottoms, which can be plugged up with a spigot when not required to let the liquor run off. A second porter-barrel will be useful as an underback and fermenting tun. An ordinary household boiler, or a large common tin-plate one, will answer the purpose of boiling the worts. The mash-tun is first well scalded with hot water, and then is supplied with 15 gallons of boiling water and 5 gallons of cold water at 60° F., 2½ bushels of first-class bruised pale malt are shaken in, and well stirred through the water, the top of the barrel being in greater part closed with a thick cloth. In an hour or so, the liquid which is in the tun will be clear when allowed to run out at the spigot-hole; and immediately after it ceases to run, about 20 gallons of nearly boiling water are run over the half-exhausted malt, and this carries off all the soluble matters, yielding altogether about 23 gallons of sweet-worts. These are placed in the copper, 3¼ lb. of the best mild hops are added, and boiled for 20 minutes. The liquor is then strained through a fine sieve into the fermenting tun; and when it has cooled down to below a blood-heat (96° F.), a quart of yeast is added, and the fermentation allowed to proceed. When the frothy head begins to droop, the upper yeast is skimmed off, the liquor put in a cask, bunged up, and allowed to clear for a fortnight, when it will be ready for use.

The foregoing remarks on the manufacture of B. apply to all the varieties of B., ale, and porter (q. v.) brewed and used in Britain. The liquor may differ in strength, from difference in the quantity of water, or in colour, from the malt being more or less charred in the kiln-drying. There are, however, many other varieties of beer. In South America, the Indians prepared and drank a B. obtained from Indian corn, and called *chica* or maize B., long before the Spanish conquest. The process followed in making chica is similar to that of B.-brewing in Britain. The maize is moistened with water, allowed partially to germinate, and dried in the sun. The maize malt so prepared is bruised, treated with warm water, and set aside till the fermentation is over. The chica or maize B. has a yellow colour, and a pleasant acid taste. In the valleys of the Sierra, the maize malt is chewed

between the teeth of the Indians and their households, and the chewed morsel incorporated with the saliva is put in jars with hot water, when the fermentation proceeds more rapidly than before, and a more highly-prized B. is obtained. The chica is also made from barley, rice, pease, manioc, pine-apples, and grapes. The Crim Tatars prepare a B. from millet-seed, called *bouza* or millet-beer. The same seed is used in Sikkim, on the southern slopes of the Lower Himalaya, and yields B. there called *murwa*. The Arabians, Abyssinians, and many African tribes, employ *teff*, or the seeds of *Poa Abyssinica*, and millet-seed, as sources of beer. The Russians prepare a B. from rye called *quass* or *rye-beer*. The Tatars ferment milk into *koumiss* or milk-beer. The Arabians use the milk to yield their *leben*, and the Turks to produce their *yaourt*. In the north of Scotland, the Orkneys, and some parts of Ireland, buttermilk, or *sour-milk*, is allowed to stand till fermentation begins, and an intoxicating liquor results. The South-sea islanders prepare a B. from the root of *Macropiper methysticum*, or *the intoxicating long pepper*, which is called Ava (q. v.).

The successful brewing of B. depends much on the kind of water employed. The water which is found most suitable contains much common salt, sulphate of lime, and carbonate of lime, in a state of solution. The waters employed in the most extensive breweries contain at least 60 grains of earthy salts dissolved in each imperial gallon. Great care must be taken to select water which not only has the proper amount of saline ingredients, but at the same time is free from organic matter either of animal or vegetable origin. Water containing such is liable to the decomposition and putrefaction of its constituents, and by contamination, causes the B. prepared by means of it to be more liable to go wrong in the brewing, and to possess ultimately an unpleasant taste.

The employment of B., especially of that variety known as Bitter B., has recently rapidly advanced in public estimation as a beverage and article of diet. Bitter-B. acts as a tonic and slight stimulant, and in many cases it is recommended by medical men to convalescents in place of wine. Some statistics regarding the consumption of the different kinds of B., and other kindred beverages, will be found under FERMENTED AND DISTILLED LIQUORS.

BEER ACTS, the 11 Geo. IV. and 1 William IV. c. 64, the 4 and 5 William IV. c. 85, and the 3 and 4 Vict. c. 61, amended by the Wine and Beer-house Acts, 32 and 33 Vict. c. 27, 33 and 34 Vict. c. 29, and the Intoxicating Liquor Acts, 35 and 36 Vict. c. 94, 37 and 38 Vict. c. 49. By the earlier of these acts (all relating to England), every householder assessed to the poor rates in any parish or place (and not being a sheriff's officer, or officer employed to execute judicial process), could, without any licence from the magistrates, apply for and obtain an Excise licence, to enable him to sell beer and cider, by retail, at some house situate within such parish or place, and specified in such licence. But in order to obtain such licence, the applicant must produce an overseer's certificate that he was the real resident, holder, and occupier of such house, and rated to the poor-rate in a certain amount; and must enter into a bond with one sufficient surety, in the penal sum of £20, or two sufficient sureties in the penal sum of £10 each, for the payment of such penalties as he may incur under the acts; and if he is also desirous for permission that the liquor should be drunk *on the premises*, he must, moreover, annually deposit with the commissioners of Excise (now the Board of Inland Revenue), or other person authorised to grant the licence, a certificate 'of good character,' signed by six rated inhabitants of the parish, of whom none shall be maltsters, common brewers, or licensed publicans, or owners of licensed public-houses. These requirements were easily evaded as regards the evidence of good character, and in 1869 the new practice was introduced by the Wine and Beer-house Act, 32 and 33 Vict. c. 27, of not only requiring the house to be of a certain valuation, but the applicant to go first to the justices of his division or borough for a certificate, which thus enabled some inquiry to be made into the respectability of the persons keeping beer-houses. This certificate of justices, sometimes also called a justices' licence, is indispensable before getting an Excise licence. It is, moreover, required that every person obtaining a licence shall paint conspicuously over the door of his premises, in such form and manner as the acts specify, his Christian name and surname at full length, and the words 'licensed to sell beer (or cider) by retail,' with the addition of 'to be drunk on the premises,' or 'not to be drunk on the premises,' as the case may be. Penalties are also imposed on every retailer of beer or cider who shall transgress, or allow to be transgressed, any of the numerous and stringent provisions of the Licensing Acts 1872-4. The licence to sell beer is confined to that particular privilege; and persons, under cover of it, attempting to sell wines or spirits, are not only liable in a heavy penalty, but may be deprived of their beer licence. On the other hand, a licence to sell wines and spirits is quite distinct; but all Excise licenses to retail liquors must be preceded by a justice's certificate.

The Wine and Beer-house Acts of 1869 and 1870 still mainly govern the qualifications of those who sell beer by retail, and a similar law is applied to those who sell wine and liqueurs by retail in refreshment houses. The law was, however, deemed imperfect as regards the offences which the keepers of licensed houses are prone to commit, and it required the Intoxicating Liquors Licensing Act of 1872, c. 94, and of 1874, c. 49, to create more uniformity as well as stringency in the requirements. During Sundays, all licensed houses require to be shut except between 12½ or 1 P.M. and 2½ or 3 P.M., and between 6 P.M. and 10 or 11 P.M., the justices having a slight power to vary these hours. A fixed time of opening and closing is also prescribed for week-days. When a keeper of the house is convicted of an offence, it is usually indorsed on his licence, and after three indorsements he forfeits the licence; and, in some cases, even the landlord's power to relet the house for the sale of liquors is suspended for some years, according to the nature of the offences. Though the houses are closed for part of Sundays, yet travellers and lodgers are exempted in most cases, and can be supplied as usual with liquors. Some of the penalties have been admitted to be too severe, and require modification.

The place where beer is exclusively sold is called a *beer-house*, differing in this respect from an *ale-house*, which means a place where other liquors as well as beer are retailed. The term *public-house* applies to the second most frequently.

The sale of beers or ales in Scotland is regulated by the act 25 and 26 Vict. c. 35, amending the act 9 Geo. IV. c. 58, and the 16 and 17 Vict. c. 67, commonly called the 'Forbes Mackenzie Act.' Justices and magistrates meet twice a year to grant certificates. By the form of licence thereby prescribed, no liquors of any kind can be sold on Sunday in any inn, hotel, shop, or any public-house, except to lodgers and travellers. In the English acts, the words '*bond-fide* travellers' are used, which mean the same thing, and they are held to include persons travelling two or three miles for business or

pleasure. Many of the penalties of the act 25 and 26 Vict. c. 35 exceeded those of the English acts, but the English act of 1872 far outstripped in stringency (except as regards Sunday) the Scotch acts.*

BEER, J. MEYER. See MEYERBEER.

BEERBHOO'M, or BIRBHOO'M, a district in the presidency of Bengal, with an area of 1344 square miles, and a pop. (1871) of 695,921. It extends between N. lat. 23° 32′ and 24° 40′, and between E. long. 86° 25′ and 88° 30′. Though part of B. is within 80 miles from Calcutta, yet little is known concerning it. The inhabitants are represented as generally a rude race, and there appear to be hardly any places worthy of the name of towns.

BEER-MONEY was a peculiar payment to non-commissioned officers and soldiers in the English army. It was established in the year 1800, at the suggestion of the Duke of York, and consisted of one penny per day for troops when on home-service, as a substitute for an issue of beer and spirits. It continued as an addition to the daily pay until 1873, when, the stoppages for rations having been abolished, the opportunity was taken to consolidate Beer-money and pay proper.

BEE'RSHEBA, or BIR-ES-SEBA ('well of the oath,' or 'well of the seven'), so called because here Abraham entered into an alliance with Abimelech, king of Gerar, which he ratified with an oath and a gift of seven ewe lambs. B. was situated on the southern border of Palestine, about 52 miles south-west from Jerusalem, and formed the limit in that direction of the Israelitish dominion. It was one of the most ancient as well as one of the most interesting places in sacred record. While Abraham resided at this place, he received the command to sacrifice Isaac, whose residence it also was. Esau was robbed of his birthright and blessing here, and here Jacob sacrificed to God before departing into Egypt; the sons of Samuel were made judges here, and it was from hence that Elijah was forced to flee into the desert from Jezebel's wrath. After the captivity, B. was occupied for some time by the Jews, and in the 4th c. A.D., it was a Roman garrison. Afterwards, the Crusaders are said to have fortified it, and to have regarded it as a place of importance. Two circular wells of fine pure water—the largest being 44 feet deep to the surface of the water, and 12½ feet in diameter—and a heap of ruins about half a mile long and a quarter broad, remain to mark the place where B. once was.

BEE'SHA, a genus of grasses with the habit and most of the characters of bamboos, but remarkable for the fleshy pericarp which encloses the seed, forming a sort of berry. The species are few, natives of the East Indies.

BEES-WAX is principally obtained from the ordinary bee-hive, where it is elaborated by the workers. See BEE. For some time, it was matter of dispute whether the bees really manufactured the wax from other ingredients in their food, or if they performed the simple task of carrying the wax ready made from the plant to the hive. It appears now to be definitely settled, that while, in ordinary circumstances, bees may derive part of the wax from plants, yet, when they are fed entirely upon pure sugar, they continue to elaborate wax, and to build up the walls and partitions of the honey-comb. The wax procured from British hives is considered the purest and best, but the smallness of the amount necessitates the importation of comparatively large quantities from North America, Brazil, Singapore, Ceylon, Gambia, and Mogadore. British B. is naturally of a yellow colour, whilst that procured from foreign countries is darker in tint; and in the case of the wax from Brazil, which is yielded by a species of black bee living under ground, the colour is a dark mahogany, and the material is soft and tenacious. In the separation of the honey from the wax, the honey-comb is subjected to pressure, which squeezes out most of the honey; the residual comb is then treated with water, and heated, with constant stirring, till the wax melts, when the whole is passed through hair-bags. The wax is received in a vessel of cold water, where it is at the same time washed, and cooled down till it solidifies, as a thick cake, on the surface of the water. For many purposes, it is necessary to bleach the wax, and the common method is to obtain it in thin sheets or ribbons, by melting it under water, and pouring it upon horizontal wooden cylinders, which are kept revolving half immersed in water in a perforated vessel. The sheets or ribbons of wax so obtained are laid out upon a field with a southern aspect, and being repeatedly watered, are subjected to the joint action of the sun's rays, the ozone of the air, and moisture. In a short time, the wax loses its yellow tint, and becomes white. Attempts have been made to perform the bleaching more expeditiously by employing chlorine, bleaching-powder, and other chemical agents. The only process which appears not to injure the wax is to melt it, and for every pound add two ounces of pulverised nitrate of soda, and one ounce oil of vitriol, diluted previously with eight ounces of water. While the latter is gradually poured in, heat is applied, and the whole mixture swells up, necessitating the employment of a capacious vessel. On cooling, the wax gathers on the surface, and being repeatedly treated with hot water, to wash away impurities, is finally allowed to solidify in a cake.

Purified B. has a density of 960 to 966, and is therefore lighter than water, which is taken as 1000. In thin slices, it is translucent, and is tasteless, odourless, and colourless. At 32° F., it is hard, brittle, and solid. When heated to 85°—90° F., it softens, and can then be kneaded between the fingers like moist dough or putty, and at 145° F. it fuses, and becomes a true liquid. It is insoluble in water, and is partly soluble in boiling alcohol, and partly not. The alcoholic solution, which takes up about 80 to 90 per cent. of the wax, contains principally a substance called *cerine*, which separates in crystals as the solution cools, and *cerolein*, which remains dissolved in the cold alcohol. The matter which resists the solvent action of the alcohol is a substance called *myricin*. B. is largely used in the manufacture of wax-candles and tapers; and though it has recently been very much excluded from the manufacture of ordinary candles, from the readiness with which first-class composite candles can be made indirectly from tallow, yet it is often used as one of the ingredients in composite candles to impart hardness to the manufactured article. The very large candles used in Roman Catholic countries for church-services, are always made of wax alone.

BEET (*Beta*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Chenopodiaceæ* (q. v.), distinguished by a 5-cleft perianth, five stamens inserted on a fleshy ring surrounding the ovary, and the fruit adhering to the calyx, and collected in clusters of two or three. The species are not numerous; they are

* A shebeen is the name given in Scotland to a house or place where liquors are sold without a justice's or Excise certificate. Every person found in such a place, drinking or drinking, may be taken before a justice, or detained in a police-station till this can be done, and he may then be fined ten shillings, or, in default, imprisoned ten days.

mostly bienniala, with smooth, ovate, stalked root-leaves, and tall, leafy, flowering-stems. They are natives of the temperate parts of the Old World. The Common B. (*B. vulgaris*) is a native of the shores of the Mediterranean, but is now in very general cultivation both in fields and gardens, chiefly for the sake of its large succulent and generally carrot-shaped roots, which are used as food both for man and for cattle, and from which also sugar is largely extracted on the continent of Europe. Beet-roots may be substituted for malt, when deprived of the greater part of their juice by pressure. The variety chiefly cultivated in gardens is known as Red B., from the colour of the root, which also more or less appears in the leaves and leaf-stalks. The subvarieties are very numerous. In some, the root is rather turnip-shaped than carrot shaped, and the size and colour also vary much, some being of a deep blood-red, or even almost blackish colour, both externally and internally; and others of a much lighter red, and internally, even white. It forms a favourite pickle, and is also very agreeable as a boiled vegetable when properly dressed. The seed is sown so late in spring, that the plants may not produce flowering stems the first year, which, when it occurs, renders the root fibrous and useless. - Mangold-wurzel (q. v.), so valuable as a field-crop for food of cattle, is, in general, regarded as merely a larger and coarser variety of the common B., in which the red colour is comparatively little exhibited, although some botanists have, on very slender grounds, endeavoured to erect it into a distinct species. The White B. of our gardens (*B. cicla* of some botanists) is now also generally supposed to be a mere variety of the common B., with little or no red in its roots or leaves, and a comparatively slender root. It is cultivated for the sake of its leaves, which are used in the same manner as spinach, and form an excellent substitute for it, especially in the beginning of spring. The leaf-stalks and midribs (*chards*) of the leaves, especially of a variety in which these parts are unusually developed, are also dressed for the table.—Sea-B. (*B. maritima*) grows wild upon the shores of Britain, and differs from the common B. in its perennial root, its partly prostrate stems, and other characters. The leaves are used for food in Ireland, as are also those of *B. Bengalensis* in the East Indies.

BEET-FLY (*Anthomyia Betæ*), an insect which infests crops of mangold wurzel, and other kinds of beet, depositing its eggs on the leaves, the soft parts of which the larvæ devour, causing them to assume a blistered appearance, and when numerous, injuring the health of the plants. It is a two-winged insect (see Diptera), of the great family *Muscidæ*, of which the common house-fly may be regarded as the type, and belongs to a genus of which more than 100 British species are known, the larvæ of some of which are well known as feeding upon the roots of cabbages, turnips, &c. See Cabbage Fly, Turnip-Fly, and Potato-Fly. It is not so large as the common house-fly.

BEETHOVEN, Ludwig van, the unrivalled composer, whose works have made a new epoch in the development of music, was born at Bonn, December 17, 1770, and died in Vienna, March 26, 1827. His father, a tenor-singer in the elector's chapel at Bonn, began to cultivate the genius of his son when only five years of age. He next placed him under the court-organist, Van Eden, and shortly after under the composer Neefe. In his eighth year he created astonishment by his performance on the violin; when only eleven, he played the music in Bach's *Wohltemperirtes Klavier*; and in his thirteenth year he published, at Manheim, a volume of variations on a march, songs, and sonatas. In 1792, he was sent to Vienna by his patron, the Elector of Cologne, to enjoy the instructions of Haydn, who first made him acquainted with the works of Handel. He also studied composition under Albrechtsberger. There he soon attracted notice by his extraordinary ability as an extempore player of fantasias, and also by some compositions, which, however, did not escape the censure of critics. He became so much attached to Vienna, that, after his patron's death in 1801, he determined to remain, and declined an invitation to England. In 1809, when another offer tempted him to leave Vienna, several friends of music, with the Archduke Rudolf at their head, raised a subscription to provide for the composer a pension sufficient to retain him. At Vienna, therefore, he stayed during the remainder of his life, secluded from the world, of which he knew as little as it knew of him; and in later years, still more isolated from society by a defect of hearing, which gradually became confirmed into entire deafness. In this sad inviolable solitude, he produced his new symphonies, his sublime overtures, his quintetts and quartetts, so full of profound conceptions and mysterious revelations of the highest harmonies, and his pianoforte sonatas, which express, sometimes, a peculiar train of feelings, at other times appear to represent his own recluse character. Shut out in a large measure from the ordinary pleasures of life, ignorant of the sweetness of married life, and able to enjoy only in a slender measure social intercourse, he retired for compensation into the world of his own imagination, and brought forth from its deep resources those treasures of harmony which, though at first received with a shy astonishment rather than a cordial admiration, are now ranked among the works of art which cannot die. These new forms and original creations, which display B.'s majestic powers in music, were only gradually developed; in his early productions, he submitted to established forms of composition.

The works of B. may be divided into three classes, or may be assigned to three distinct periods of his intellectual development. All the works of his first period, though important, shew the influence of his teacher Haydn, or of his more highly esteemed model, Mozart. This period of composition may be said to extend to his 16th orchestral work, including, besides several pianoforte sonatas, trios for pianoforte and for stringed instruments. All these early works display the highest cultivation of the forms and principles of art previously established in the Viennese school of music. - The second period of B.'s artistic life, in which his genius was completely self-reliant, extends from the 16th to the 80th work. This was certainly the most productive and brilliant part of his career. To it belong his greatest creations, his magnificent and powerful orchestral works symphonies, overtures, &c. - all of which display the highest qualities of imaginative composition. Besides the great orchestral works, it includes many sonatas for pianoforte, and various compositions of chamber-music—septetts, quintetts, quartetts, trios, serenades, &c. In dramatic composition, B. produced only one opera, but this was *Fidelio*, the first truly German musical work of a dramatic character. This was the result of great study, and, as it is now given, is the reconstruction of an earlier composition. Other dramatic pieces are - the overture, interludes, and melodramatic music in Goethe's *Egmont*, and the instrumental music and choruses in the *Ruins of Athens*. In the third and last period of B.'s career we find those two gigantic works, the *Missa Solemnis in D Minor*, and the ninth symphony (D minor) with chorus. These works transcend

all common laws and forms, and belong to the highest sphere of art. Their deep mysteries can be apprehended only by those who have deep emotions and profound technical knowledge of music. Other works of this last class approach those just mentioned, though they do not reach the same elevation. But all are alike in passing far beyond the ordinary traditional forms of art. All are pervaded by an impulse as of inspiration. Among these works may be mentioned, the great quartetts for bow-instruments (mostly published after the death of B.), the grand overtures—works 115 and 124—and several sonatas for pianoforte, especially that in B♭ major.

The life of B. has been written by Schlosser (Prag. 1828), Ries, Wegeler, Schindler (Münster, 1845), and Moscheles (2 vols., Lond. 1841).

BEETLE, a name popularly applied to many kinds of coleopterous insects. It is never extended to insects of any other order, and it is sometimes used in works on natural history as a common name for all coleopterous insects; but this makes it to include many kinds to which it is not popularly applied, as fireflies, lady-birds, weevils, cantharides, &c. It is also employed by some authors in a more restricted sense, as a designation of the insects forming the large tribe *Scarabæides;* but the restriction, equally with the extension, is an interference with the popular use of the English word, of which, however, the limits are very uncertain. To frame an article, with strict regard to that popular use, and at the same time to science, would not be easy, nor would it be profitable, as the assemblage of kinds would be not only large, but very miscellaneous. We think it better to refer to the article COLEOPTERA, and to the articles SCARABÆIDÆ, BOMBARDIER BEETLE, STAG BEETLE, BURYING BEETLE, GOLIATH BEETLE, ROSE BEETLE, &c. The name BLACK BEETLE is often given to the COCKROACH (q. v.). See also BLAPS.

BEETLE-STONES, the name given by the lapidaries of Edinburgh to hard nodules of clay ironstone, found abundantly in a low cliff, composed of shale, at Newhaven, or strewed upon the beach in that neighbourhood. They take a beautiful polish, and have been employed to make letter-weights and other ornamental articles. The name was given in consequence of the supposed origin of the fossil which is of most frequent occurrence as the nucleus of the nodules, which, however, is not a fossil beetle, but a coprolite (q. v.). Some of the nodules contain a fossil fish, and some a fossil of vegetable origin.

BEETLING is a finishing mechanical process applied originally to linen shirting, and afterwards to cotton shirting, in imitation of linen, to give the cloth a hard and wiry look, by flattening the yarn irregularly in an angled manner. This is done by the rising and falling of upright wooden stampers, placed close together in a row, with their square butts resting on a roller over which the cloth passes under them, doubled in a particular way so as to give the yarn an angled appearance when struck. The stampers are worked by the rotation of a horizontal shaft, acting with tapets, like the cylinder of a barrel-organ.

Linen weft is likewise beetled, but by hand-hammering, on a large flat stone, with a wooden mallet, to soften the yarn for easiness of working it, or 'getting it on,' in the language of the craft, in weaving. Beetling is likewise a process in flax-dressing, to separate the woody from the flexible fibres of the plant. See FLAX-DRESSING.

BEET-ROOT SUGAR. See SUGAR. The sugar obtained from the beet is similar to cane-sugar, but inferior in sweetening power. Beet-root contains on an average about 10 per cent. of saccharine matter (sugar-cane, 18 per cent.); of the varieties, the white Slesvig beet is the richest. To obtain the sugar, the roots, after being washed, are first rasped down by machines, so as to tear up the cells. The pulp is then put into bags, and the juice is squeezed out by presses. The juice is next treated with lime or sulphuric acid, to clarify it, and also filtered till no deposit is formed; after which it is boiled in large boilers to concentrate it. When it has attained a certain density (25° Beaumé), it is poured through flannel, and is now a dark-coloured sirup, which, in order to yield pure sugar, must be deprived of its colouring-matter and mucilage. This is effected by filtering it through animal charcoal or bone-black. The filtered juice is now treated with lime-water beat up with a little white of egg to a lather, till it is slightly alkaline, and is then further concentrated by boiling in copper pans, care being taken to stir and scum it all the while. When sufficiently concentrated, it is put into vessels, and allowed to stand several days in a warm room to crystallise; the uncrystallised part, or molasses, is then drained off, and what remains is raw sugar. This is still further refined by again dissolving and treating it with albumen and blood. In separating the crystallised from the uncrystallised part, centrifugal machines are now much used. Another improvement is the vacuum-pan, which allows the juice to be boiled down without burning. The molasses drained off from beet-root sugar has a disagreeable taste, and cannot be used for sweetening, like cane molasses.

About the middle of the 18th c., Margraf, an apothecary in Berlin, drew attention to the sugar contained in beet-root; but Achard, the Prussian chemist, was the first who was tolerably successful in extracting it. Still, as only 2 or 3 per cent. of sugar was obtained, the product did not pay the cost, until Napoleon's continental system raised the price of sugar, and gave rise to improved methods of manufacturing it. Even after the fall of Napoleon, protective duties kept alive this manufacture in France; and when numerous improvements of method had raised the percentage of sugar realised to about 5 lb. from 100 lb. of beet, it took a fresh start (about 1825) in France and Belgium, was revived in Germany, and spread even to Russia. The falling off of the customs' duties on the import of colonial sugar obliged the German governments to impose a small duty on beet-sugar, which checked the manufacture for a time; but owing to the protective measures of the Zollverein, it is now more flourishing than ever, and large quantities are annually imported from the continent of Europe, and are used by our refiners mixed with cane sugar, without which it is not successful, for producing the best qualities of refined or loaf-sugar. From France, Belgium, Holland, and Germany, in 1871, about 1500 tons were imported.

BEFFA'NA, a corruption of *Epiphania* (Epiphany), is the name given in Italy to a singular custom prevailing on Three Kings' Day (see BEAN-KING'S FESTIVAL), or Twelfth Night. According to tradition, the B. was an old woman who, being busy cleaning the house when the three wise men of the East passed by on their way to offer their treasures to the infant Saviour, excused herself for not going out to see them on the ground that she would have an opportunity of doing so when they returned. They, however, went home by another way; and the B., not knowing this, has ever since been watching for their return. She is supposed to take a great interest in children, who on Twelfth Night are put earlier to bed, and a stocking of each is hung before the fire. Shortly, the cry '*Ecco la B.*' is raised; and the children, who have not gone to sleep, dart out of bed, and seize their stockings, in which each finds a

present bearing some proportion in value to his conduct during the year. If any one has been conspicuously ill behaved, he finds his stocking full of ashes—the method the B. takes of expressing her disapprobation. It was also customary in Italy, on Twelfth Night, to carry an effigy called the B. in procession through the streets amid great rejoicings; but this, which was probably the relic of the celebration of a middle-age 'mystery,' has fallen greatly into disuse. The word is also used to awe naughty children.

BE'FFROI, or BELFRY, was the name of a tower used in the military sieges of ancient and medieval times. When a town was to be besieged, a movable tower, as high as the walls, was brought near it; and this tower was the beffroi. Its use is more than once spoken of by Cæsar in his account of his campaigns in Gaul. Froissart describes, with his usual spirit, a B. employed at the siege of the castle of Breteuil in 1356. At the siege of Jerusalem by the Crusaders, a B. was carried in pieces, put together just beyond bow-shot, and then pushed

Beffroi, or Breaching Tower.—From Grose's *Military Antiquities*.

on wheels to a proper position. The object of such towers was to cover the approach of troops. Sometimes they were pushed on by pressure, sometimes by capstans and ropes. The highest were on six or eight wheels, and had as many as twelve or fifteen stories or stages; but it was usual to limit the height to three or four stages. They were often covered with raw hides, to protect them from the flames of boiling grease and oil directed against them by the besieged; and there was a hinged drawbridge at the top, to let down upon the parapet of the wall, to aid in landing. The lower stage frequently had a ram (see BATTERING RAM); while the others were crowded with archers, arbalesters, and slingers; or there were bowmen on all the stages except the top, which had a storming or boarding party. During the wars under Charles I., the royalists made a B. to aid in the besieging of a town or castle in Herefordshire; it was higher than the defence-works, and was provided with loopholes, a bridge, &c.; but the Roundheads captured it before it could be applied to use. Ducange thinks that the name of belfry (q. v.) given to a bell-tower, was derived from the warlike machine called the beffroi or belfry.

BEG, or **BEY,** a Turkish title, rather vague in its import, and commonly given to superior military officers, ship-captains, and distinguished foreigners. More strictly, it applies to the governor of a small district, who bears a horse-tail as a sign of his rank. The governor of Tunis has this title.—'Beglerbeg,' or, more correctly, Beilerbegi ('lord of lords'), is the title given to the governor of a province who bears three horse-tails as his badge of honour, and has authority over several begs, agas, &c. This superior title belongs to the governors of Rumelia, Anatolia, and Syria.

BEGAS, KARL, court-painter to the king of Prussia, professor and member of the Academy of Art in Berlin, was born there in 1794. He had been destined for the law, but early manifested a love for

art, and while at Bonn, received his first lessons in painting from Philippart. In 1811, he proceeded to Paris, and there spent eighteen months in the studio of the celebrated Gros. In 1815, Frederick-William III., on the occasion of his visit to Paris, bought a large original painting by B., 'Job surrounded by his Friends,' and gave him two commissions for different churches in Berlin. This led to his moving thither in 1818, and to his subsequently residing in Italy at the king's expense. On his return to Berlin in 1825, he painted a great many biblical subjects for churches, as well as other pictures. He died 23d November 1854. There are frescoes of colossal size by him in the new church of Saerow, near Potsdam. He is especially distinguished for the animation and individuality of his portraits, and has painted for the king a gallery of celebrated authors and artists, including Humboldt, Schelling, &c. Several of his *genre* paintings have been rendered familiar by repeated engravings; and his works, in general, are eminent for expression, rich colouring, and a peculiarly clear chiaro oscuro.

BE'GGAR, a person who solicits charitable aid from the public at large. The word is supposed to have some connection with the fraternity known as Beghards. See BEGUIN. The actual begging or solicitation of temporal aid became, however, so conspicuous a feature among these mendicant orders, that the term originally applied to their sacred duties seems at a very early period to have acquired its modern vulgar acceptation. There is no class of men who have had their lot and condition so varied by ethnical and social conditions as beggars. In a civilised industrious country, the B., to have any chance of relief, must manage to get it believed, whether it be true or false, that he is on the verge of want, and requires the solicited alms to keep him from starvation. Among oriental nations, on the other hand, beggars have often been a potent class, who may be rather considered as endowed with the privilege of taxing their fellow-creatures, than as objects of compassion. It has sometimes been supposed that a residue of this feeling of superiority characterises the mental physiology even of the mendicant of civilisation, and that, abject as he seems, he considers himself to some extent a privileged person, entitled to support from his fellows, without being amenable to the slavish drudgery by which the working-classes live. In Europe, during the middle ages, those doctrines of Christianity which are intended to teach us to abjure selfishness and worldly-mindedness, were exaggerated into a profession of total abstraction from worldly cares and pursuits. Hence arose the large body of religionists who, as hermits or members of the mendicant orders, lived on the contributions of others. In later times, the mendicant orders became the proudest and the richest of the clergy; but while the chiefs lived in affluence, the practices of the lower adherents fostered throughout Europe a system of mendicancy very inimical to civilisation and industrial progress. In Great Britain its evil results have been long felt, in the inveterate establishment of practices naturally out of harmony with the independent, industrious character of the British people. Ever since the Reformation, the British laws have had a death-struggle with the B.; but neither by the kindness of a liberal poor-law, nor by the severity of a merciless criminal code, have they been able to suppress him. When a country provides, as Britain does, that no one shall be permitted to starve, it would naturally be expected that the springs of miscellaneous charity would be dried. But it is not so, and it is indeed often plausibly urged, that entirely to supersede all acts of kindly generosity between man and man, through rigid legal provisions, must lower the standard of human character, by depriving it of all opportunity for the exercise of the generous emotions. It is clear that, in the light of political economy, promiscuous charity is the most costly and most corrupting way of administering relief to indigence. No one will maintain that the idle B. on the street deserves such a luxurious table as the industrious mechanic cannot afford to himself. But, at the same time, no one who drops a coin in a beggar's hat can say how many others may be deposited there during the day, and whether the B. is merely drawing a wretched pittance, or deriving a good income. Begging being a trade, it is not always those who are the poorest, but those who are the most expert, who will practise it to the best results. The great object is to seize on and appropriate any characteristic calculated, whether permanently or temporarily, to excite compassion. Hence periods of general distress are often the harvest of the B., and his trade rises and falls in an inverse ratio with that of the working community. Times of prosperity are not favourable to him, because he is then told that there is plenty of work for him. But when workmen are dismissed in thousands, and their families turned on the road to seek alms, the professional beggars, by their superior skill and experience, will be sure to draw the prizes in the distribution. Many surprising statements have been made of the large incomes made by skilful professional beggars, especially in London. The most remarkable anecdotes on the subject will be found in Grose's *Olio*, whence they have often been repeated. Attempts have been made, but with questionable success, to set forth an average statement of the earnings in different departments of the B. trade. A good deal of information of this kind will be found in the *Report of the Constabulary Force Commission of* 1839 (see p. 60, et seq.). It does not appear, however, that this trade is, like others, dependent on the law of supply and demand. The B. generally is so constitutionally, whether from hereditary or other physical causes. He has a loathing, even to horror, of steady systematic labour, and he will rather submit to all the hardships and privations of the wanderer's lot, than endure the dreaded evil.

BEGGARS, THE LAW OF ENGLAND RELATING TO, is regulated by the 5 Geo. IV. c. 83 (amended in regard to other points by the 1 and 2 Vict. c. 38). By the third section of the 5 Geo. IV. it is enacted that every person wandering abroad, or placing him or herself in any public place, street, highway, court, or passage, to beg or gather alms, or causing or procuring, or encouraging any child or children so to do, shall be deemed *an idle and disorderly person:* and it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace to commit such offender to the house of correction, there to be kept for any time not exceeding one calendar month. And by section 4, it is further provided that any person so convicted, and offending in the same way again, shall be deemed *a rogue and a vagabond*, and may be punished by being committed to the house of correction for three months, with hard labour; and by the same section, every person wandering abroad and endeavouring, by the exposure of wounds or deformities, to obtain or gather alms, and every person going about as a gatherer or collector of alms, or endeavouring to procure charitable contributions of any nature or kind under any false or fraudulent pretence, shall be deemed a *rogue and vagabond*, and be punishable as before mentioned. By section 15, however, of the same act, the visiting justices of any county jail, house of correction, or other prison, may grant certificates to persons

discharged, to receive alms on their route to their places of settlement; but if such persons shall act in a manner contrary to the directions or provisions of their certificates, or shall loiter upon their route, or shall deviate therefrom, they shall be deemed rogues and vagabonds, and punished accordingly. Other later statutes, however, enable justices to give aid to all prisoners on being discharged from prison, and supersede this doubtful license to beg on their way home. Many prisoners' aid societies are established in different parts of the country, and if their rules are good, they receive a certificate from the visiting justices of jails. When the time arrives for the discharge of a prisoner, the justices have power, out of the moneys under their control, to order a payment of £2, either to the prisoner, or the treasurer of the aid society, for his benefit; and they may also pay his railway fare, so that by this means he can always reach his home without begging.

The attempt or purpose to obtain money or alms by means of shows or entertainments on the streets of London, is also an offence under the Metropolitan Police Act, 2 and 3 Vict. c. 47, s. 54 (No. 14), and punishable by a fine of forty shillings.

In the Scotch law, there are many severe statutes of the Scotch Parliament against beggars and vagabonds, all of which, along with the proclamations of the Scotch Privy Council on the same subject, are renewed and ratified by the act 1698, c. 21, which forms the existing Scotch law in regard to beggars. The Scotch Poor-law Amendment Act, 8 and 9 Vict. c. 83, contains no provision on the subject. Anciently, in Scotland, legal permission to beg was given to certain sick and infirm poor persons, and in the reign of James V., a system of *tokens* for the same purpose was established. See Burn's *Justice of the Peace*, vol. vi.; Charnock's *Police Guide*, Dunlop's *Parochial Law of Scotland*, Lorimer's *Hand-book of the Scotch Law*, and the works and authorities referred to in these publications.

BEGGAR-MY-NEIGHBOUR, a game at cards usually played by two persons, between whom the cards are divided. Holding their cards with the backs upwards, the players lay down a card alternately, until an honour is played, which is paid for by the adversary – four cards for an ace, three for a king, two for a queen, and one for a knave; such payment being made, the winner lifts the trick. If, however, an honour should be laid down during the payment, then the opposite party must pay for that in the same way; and so on, till a payment is made without an honour. The game is played chiefly by children.

BEGHA'RMI, or BAGI'RMI, a country in Central Africa, bounded on the N. by Lake Tsad; on the W. by the Shari, or Great River, which divides it from the kingdom of Bornou; and on the E. by the Waday kingdom. It extends southward to about lat. 10° N. Its greatest length is about 240 miles, and its breadth 150. The whole of B. Proper is flat, with a slight inclination towards the north—its general elevation being about 1000 feet above the level of the sea. The outlying provinces in the south-east are slightly mountainous. B. has three considerable rivers flowing through and along its borders the Bénuwé, Logon, and Shari; the last of which, augmented by the Logon, is upwards of 600 yards across at Mole. There is, in general, however, the utmost scarcity of water in the country, and the inhabitants guard their wells with jealous care. The soil is partly composed of sand, and partly of lime, and produces the grain and fruit common to countries of Central Africa. Worms and ants are very destructive to the crops. The ants appear to be a perfect pest. Dr Barth describes them as eating through his matting and carpeting, and he had the utmost difficulty in preserving his goods from entire destruction by them. The total population is about a million and a half. From the numerous deserted villages with which the traveller constantly meets, the population would appear to have been much greater at one time. Mohammedanism has been introduced among them, but many are still pagans, and all are grossly superstitious. The only industrial arts are weaving and dyeing. Physically, they are a fine race of people, superior to the tribes around them, the women being especially handsome. The men are subject to a peculiar disease in the little toe, called 'mukárdam.' It seems to be caused by a worm, which eats the toe away. One in ten of the male population are said to have lost their little toes through this cause. The sultan is absolute in his own dominions, and several smaller states are tributary to him; and he, in his turn, is tributary to the more powerful ruler of Bornou. The fighting-force of the kingdom is about 13,000 men. Masena (q. v.), the capital, has a circumference of about 7 miles.—Barth's *Travels in Central Africa*.

BE'GKOS, or BEI'KOS, a large village of Anatolia, on the Bosphorus, 8 miles north-north-east of Scutari, said to be the locality of the contest between Pollux and Amycus, in which the latter was killed. See ARGONAUTS. At the commencement of the Crimean war, the Allied fleets anchored in B. Bay, prior to their entering the Black Sea in January 1854.

BE'GLERBEG. See BEG.

BEGONIA'CEÆ, a natural order of exogenous plants, the place of which in the system is doubtful, but is supposed by Lindley to be near *Cucurbitaceæ* (q. v.). The B. are herbaceous or suffruticose plants, with alternate leaves, which are oblique at the base, and have large dry stipules. The flowers are in cymes, unisexual, the perianth coloured, with four unequal divisions in the male flowers, and five or eight in the female; the stamens are numerous; the fruit is membranous, winged, 3-celled, bursting by slits at the base, the seeds minute.—The order contains about 160 known species, all of which have pink flowers. They are almost all tropical plants, and some of them are often to be seen in British hot-houses; but a small species of *Begonia* ascends the Himalaya to at least 11,500 feet, often growing on the trunks of trees. The leaves of the *Begonias* have a reddish tinge. The leaves and young stems are succulent and acid, and those of *B. Malabarica*, *B. tuberosa*, and other species, are used as pot-herbs, or in tarts. The juicy stalks of a large species found in Sikkim, at an elevation of five or six thousand feet, are mentioned by Dr Hooker as employed to make a pleasant acid sauce. This, and the small Himalayan species already mentioned, would probably succeed in the climate of Britain. The roots of some are used in their native countries as astringents, and some of the Mexican species are used as drastic purgatives.

BEG-SHE'HR, a fresh-water lake of Asia Minor, Karamania, 44 miles south-west of Koniyeh, presumed to be the ancient *Caralitis*. It is about 20 miles long, and from 5 to 10 miles broad. It contains many islands, and discharges itself by a river of the same name into Lake Soglah. On its east and north shores are the towns of Begshehr and Kereli, the old *Caralio*, which issued imperial coins, and which is also supposed to have occupied the site of Pamphylia.

BEGTA'SHI, a religious order in the Ottoman empire, which had its origin in the 14th c. The name is believed to be derived from that of a

celebrated dervise, Hadji Begtash, to whom also the order appears to owe its institution. The members use secret signs and pass-words as means of recognition, in the same way as is done by the masonic orders, some of them indeed appearing to be identical with those of freemasonry. Although numbering many thousands of influential persons in its ranks, the society does not appear to exercise any material influence in the religion or politics of Turkey.

BE'GUINES, BEGUI'NÆ, or BEGU'TTÆ, the name of the earliest of all lay societies of women united for pious purposes. The reason of their origin is not quite certain, but it is usually attributed—in part, at least—to the disproportion in the numbers of men and women which was occasioned by the Crusades. These wars had robbed Christendom of thousands of its most vigorous sons, and left multitudes of widows and maidens, to whom life had henceforth something of a solemn and sorrowful aspect, and who therefore betook themselves, in earnest and affectionate piety, to the charities and duties of religion. The origin of the word is doubtful. The popular tradition of Brabant since the 17th c., that a St Begga, daughter of Pepin, and sister of St Gertrude, founded, in 696, the first sisterhood of B. at Namur, has no historical basis. Hallmann has also shewn that the supposed oldest document of the B. (1065), giving an account of their establishment at Vilvorde, near Brussels, is unauthentic. The most probable account is, that a priest named Lambert le Bègue, or Le Bèghe, i. e., the Stammerer, about the year 1180, founded, in Liege, a society of pious women, who were called by his name. The B. were not restricted by vows, nor did they follow the rules of any order, but were united under a *supérieure* for the exercise of piety and benevolence, and lived generally in separate small cottages, which, collectively, formed the *Beginagium*, or '*vineyard*,' as it was scripturally termed. Their establishments were often enriched by liberal donations. A church, a hospital, and a house of reception or common entertainment, generally belonged to every community of Beguines. The sisters were distinguished from the rest of the laity only by their diligence and devotedness, piety, modesty, and zeal for the purity of youthful education. Societies of B. flourished greatly during the 12th and 13th centuries, when they spread themselves over France and Germany. Among the most important were those in Hamburg, Lübeck, Regensburg, Magdeburg, Leipsic, Goslar, Rochlitz, and Görlitz. As the pietists of the middle ages, the B. were often subjected to persecution by the mendicant orders of friars; but, on account of their practical usefulness, were sheltered by the pope and councils as well as by secular authorities. In the 13th and 14th centuries, the B. became united with the persecuted spiritualists among the Franciscans (*Fratricelles*), and with the sect of the 'Brethren and Sisters of the Free Spirit.' Hence arose certain heresies, which, of course, occasioned interference on the part of the Inquisition; and on account of certain immoralities, a synod held at Fritzlar required that all candidates must be forty years old before they could enter a society of Beguines. These sisterhoods maintained their position in Germany and the Netherlands longer than in other countries. In Holland, they existed at the close of the 18th c.; and in the present day we find here and there so-called *Beguinen-häuser* (Beguin-houses) in Germany; but they are now nothing more than almshouses for poor spinsters. At Ghent, there is still a celebrated institution of B., numbering as many as 600 sisters, besides 200 *bezitsters*, or occasional inmates. Their houses form a kind of distinct little town, called the Béguinage, which, though environed by a wall, is open to the visits of strangers. Living here a life of retirement and piety, the B., in their simple dark dresses, go out as nurses to the hospital, and perform other acts of kindness among the poor. As above stated, they are under no monastic vow, but having attached themselves to the sisterhood, it is their boast that none is known to have quitted it. There are houses of B. also at Antwerp, Mechlin, and Bruges; and in 1854, one was established in France, at Castelnaudry, in the department of Aude.

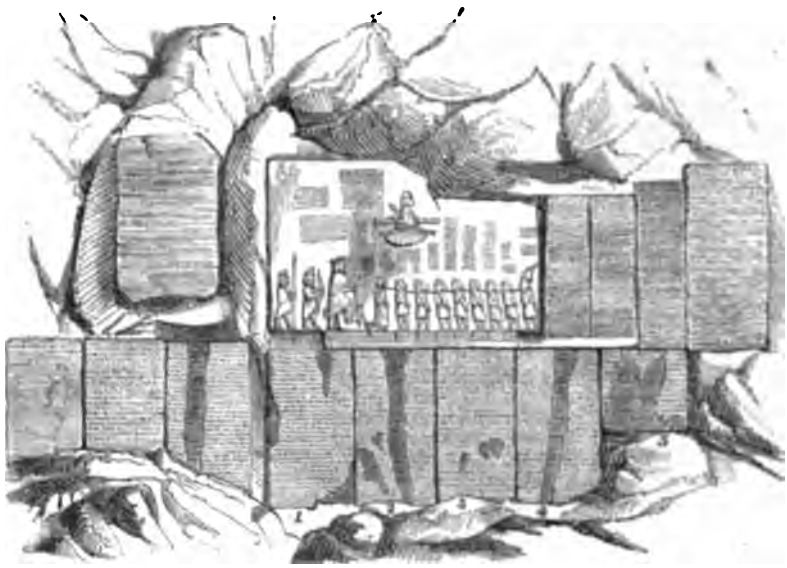
BEGHARDS (Ger. *begehren*, to seek with importunity). Societies of laymen styling themselves *B.*, first appeared in Germany, the Netherlands, and the south of France in the beginning of the 13th c., and were known in Italy as *Bianchi* and *Bocasoti*; but they never obtained the reputation enjoyed by the Beguine sisterhood. Towards the end of the 13th c., they were commonly stigmatised as *bons garçons*, *boni pueri*, 'ministers' men,' 'bedesmen,' 'pietists,' 'vagabonds'—contemptuous titles, which expressed the low estimation in which they were held. On account of heretics of all sorts retreating into these half-spiritual communities, they were subjected to severe persecutions after 1307, and were gradually dispersed, or joined the orders of Dominicans and Franciscans. In the Netherlands, where they had preserved a better character than elsewhere, they maintained their ground longer, and were protected by Pope Innocent IV. (1245), in Brussels by Cardinal Hugo (1254), and in Liege by Pope Urban IV. (1261); but their communities disappeared in the 14th c. —See Mosheim, *De Beghardis et Beguinabus* (Lesp. 1790), and Hallmann's *Geschichte des Ursprungs der Belg. Beghinen* (History of the Origin of Beguines in Belgium), Berlin, 1843.

BEHAIM, MARTIN, a famous cosmographer, descended from a Bohemian family which settled in Nuremberg after the middle of the 13th c., and still flourishes there. B. was born in Nuremberg in 1430 (or, more probably, in 1436). He early entered into mercantile life, and went to Venice (1457), and to Mechlin, Antwerp, and Vienna (1477—1479), in pursuit of trade. In 1480, he was induced to go to Portugal, where he soon acquired a reputation as a skilful maker of maps. From 1484 to 1485, he accompanied the Portuguese navigator, Diego Cam, in a voyage of discovery along the west coast of Africa, and sailed as far as the mouth of the Zaire or Congo river, in lat. 22° S., which was 19½° further than had ever been previously reached. In 1486, B. sailed to Fayal, one of the Azore islands, where a Flemish colony had settled. Here he married the daughter of Jobst von Küster, governor of the colony. In 1490, he left Fayal, and returned to his native city, Nuremberg, where he resided from 1491 to 1493. During this stay, he constructed a large globe, principally from the writings of Ptolemy, Pliny, Strabo, Marco Polo, and Sir John Mandeville. It is still preserved by the family of B. in Nuremberg, and is a valuable record of the progress of discovery, though it indicates that B.'s geographical knowledge did not at that period extend beyond Japan on the east, and the Cape Verd Islands on the west. After travelling through Flanders and France, B. again resided in Fayal from 1494 to 1506, and then removed to Lisbon, where he died, July 29, 1509. The services rendered by B. to geographical discovery and the science of navigation were considerable, though, according to the latest investigations, there is no support for the theory that B. was the discoverer of America, or even that Columbus and Magelhaen were indebted to B. for guidance with regard to their discoveries. B. left

no works behind him except his maps and charts.—Murr's *Diplomatische Geschichte des Ritters von B.* (Nürn. 1778; 2d Aufl., 1801); and A. von Humboldt's *Examen Critique de l'Histoire de la Géographie du Nouveau Continent*, vol. i. (Par. 1836).

BEHEA'DING. See CAPITAL PUNISHMENT.

BEHISTU'N, or **BISUTU'N** (Lat. *Bagistanus*; Persian, *Baghistan*, Place of Gardens), a ruined town of the Persian province of Irak-Ajemi, 21 miles east of Kirmanshah, lat. 34° 18′ N., long. 47° 30′ E. B. is chiefly celebrated for a remarkable mountain, which on one side rises almost perpendicularly to the height of 1700 feet, and which was in ancient times sacred to Jupiter or to Ormuzd. According to Diodorus, Semiramis, on her march from Babylon to Ecbatana, in Media Magna, encamped near this rock, and having cut away and polished the lower part of it, had her own likeness and those of a hundred of her guards engraved on it. She further, according to the same historian, caused the following inscription in Assyrian letters to be cut in the rock: 'Semiramis having piled up one upon the other the trapping of the beasts of burden which accompanied her, ascended by these means from the plain to the top of the rock.' No trace of these inscriptions is now to be found, and Sir Henry Rawlinson accounts for their absence by the supposition that they were destroyed 'by Khusraú Parvíz when he was preparing to form of this long scarped surface the back wall of his palace.' Diodorus also mentions that Alexander the Great, on his way to Ecbatana from Susa, visited Behistun. But the rock is especially interesting for its cuneiform inscriptions (q. v.), which within recent years have been successfully deciphered by Sir H. Rawlinson. The principal inscription of B., executed by the command of Darius, is on the north extremity of the rock, at an elevation of 300 feet from the ground, where it could not have been engraved without the aid of scaffolding, and can now only be reached by the adventurous antiquary at considerable risk to his life. The labour of polishing the face of the rock, so as to fit it to receive the inscriptions, must have been very great. In places where the stone was defective, pieces were fitted in and fastened with molten lead with such extreme nicety, that only a careful scrutiny can detect the artifice. 'But the real wonder of the work,' says Sir H. Rawlinson, 'consists in the inscriptions. For extent, for beauty of execution, for uniformity and correctness, they are perhaps unequalled in the world. After



Rock Inscriptions at Behistun.

the engraving of the rock had been accomplished, a coating of silicious varnish had been laid on, to give a clearness of outline to each individual letter, and to protect the surface against the action of the elements. This varnish is of infinitely greater hardness than the limestone rock beneath it.' Washed down in some places by the rain of twenty-three centuries, it lies in consistent flakes like thin layers of lava on the foot-ledge; in others, where time has honey-combed the rock beneath, it adheres to the broken surface, still shewing with sufficient distinctness the forms of the characters. The inscriptions—which are in the three forms of cuneiform writing, Persian, Babylonian, and Median—set forth the hereditary right of Darius to the throne of Persia, tracing his genealogy, through eight generations, up to Achæmenes; they then enumerate the provinces of his empire, and recount his triumphs over the various rebels who rose against him during the first four years of his reign. The monarch himself is represented on the tablet with a bow in hand, and his foot upon the prostrate figure of a man, while nine rebels, chained together by the neck, stand humbly before him; behind him are two of his own warriors, and above him, another figure [see cut]. The Persian inscriptions which Sir H. Rawlinson has translated are contained in the five main columns numbered in cut 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The first column contains 19 paragraphs, and 96 lines. Each paragraph after the first, which commences, 'I am Darius the Great King,' begins with, 'Says Darius the King.' The second column has the same number of lines in 16 paragraphs; the third, 92 lines and 14 paragraphs; the fourth has also 92 lines and 18 paragraphs; and the fifth, which appears to be a supplementary column, 35 lines. With the exception

of the first paragraph on the first column, all begin with, 'Says Darius the King.' The second, fourth, and fifth columns are much injured. Sir H. Rawlinson fixes the epoch of the sculpture at 516—515 B.C. See *Journal of Asiatic Society*, vol. x.

BEHME, JACOB. See BÖHME.

BEHN, APHARA, or APHRA, a licentious poetess and novelist of the reign of Charles II., the date of whose birth is unknown, was the daughter of Mr Johnson, a gentleman who, through his aristocratic connections, obtained the appointment of governor of Surinam. He died on his passage out, but the daughter pursued her journey, and resided at Surinam for some considerable time. Here she made the acquaintance of the celebrated slave Oronoko, who afterwards became the subject of one of her novels, and of a tragedy by Southern. Returning to England, she married Mr Behn, a merchant of Dutch extraction, was presented at court, where her personal appearance and vivacious freedom of manners pleased the 'Merry Monarch,' who deputed her to watch events in Flanders. She accordingly went to Antwerp, where she succeeded in discovering the intention of the Dutch to sail up the Thames and Medway, and communicated the secret to the English court; which, however, took no notice of the information, a slight which caused the fair agent to throw up state politics in disgust. On her return to England, she became intimate with all the profligate wits as well as the more staid scholars and poets of the time, and devoted herself to literature. Her numerous plays, poems, tales, letters, &c., are disfigured alike by general impurity of tone and indecency of language; and, in point of intellectual ability, none of her works appear deserving of the high praise lavished on them by Dryden, Cotton, Southern, and others. She died in 1689.

BE'HRING, VITUS, the discoverer of the strait called after his name, was a native of Denmark, and entered as captain the newly formed navy of Peter the Great. From the ability and daring he had displayed in the wars with Sweden, he was appointed to conduct an expedition of discovery in the Sea of Kamtchatka. Sailing, in 1728, from a port on the east of Kamtchatka, he followed the coast northward until he believed, from the westward trending of the land, that he had reached the north-east point of Asia. It is now, however, believed that the cape which B. rounded was to the south of the real East Cape (in lat. 66°), and that he never actually reached the strait to which he has given his name. After some years spent in explorations on the coasts of Kamtchatka, Okhotsk, and the north of Siberia, he sailed in 1741 from Okhotsk towards the American continent, and sighting land about 58½° N. lat., he followed the coast northward for some distance; but sickness and storms obliged him to return, and being wrecked on the desert island of Awatska, since called Behring's Island, he died there, 8th December 1741. The previous year, he had founded the present settlement of Petropaulovski, in the Bay of Awatska.

BE'HRING'S STRAIT separates Asia from America, and connects the Pacific with the Arctic Ocean. The proof that the two continents were not connected was given by the voyage of a Cossack named Deschnew, who, in 1648, sailed from a harbour in Siberia, in the Polar Ocean, into the Sea of Kamtchatka. But the whole voyage was long regarded by Europeans as a fable, until Behring's (q. v.) expedition in 1728. The strait has since been explored by Cook and Beechy. The narrowest part is near 66° lat., between East Cape in Asia, and Cape Prince of Wales in America. The distance between the two capes, in a direction from north-west to south-east, is nearly 50 miles; about midway are three uninhabited islands. The greatest depth, some 30 fathoms, is towards the middle, and the water is shallower towards the American coast than the Asiatic. A very old Japanese map in the British Museum shows the leading features of this strait very accurately. —BEHRING'S SEA, a part of the North Pacific Ocean, commonly known as the Sea of Kamtchatka, bounded west by Kamtchatka, east by Alaska, south by the Aleutian Islands, and north by Behring's Strait. There are several islands in this sea, and fogs prevail constantly; but owing to the shallowness of the strait, there are no icebergs of magnitude to be met with.—BEHRING'S ISLAND, the most westerly of the Aleutian Islands in lat. 55° 22′ N., long. 166° E. It has an area of 30 square miles, and is noteworthy as the place where Behring, the discoverer, was wrecked and died in 1741.

BEILA'N, a pass and town in the northern extremity of Syria, on the east shore of the Gulf of Iscanderoon. The pass of B. runs from south-west to north-east, between the mountain-ranges of Rhosus and Amanus, and is the common route from Cilicia into Syria. It is one of the two Amanum passes, supposed to be the lower one, mentioned by Cicero as capable of easy defence on account of their narrowness. There seems to be no doubt that, in the war between Darius and Alexander, the B. Pass was an important consideration to both commanders, but historians and geographers appear to be at variance as to the precise advantage taken of it in the struggle. The town of B. is situated near the summit-level of the pass, at an elevation of 1584 feet above the Mediterranean Sea. It has a population of about 5000, many of whom are wealthy, and is much esteemed for its salubrity and fine water, which is supplied by numerous aqueducts. Between the north-western foot of the pass and the sea, are caves and springs, supposed to be the site of the ancient Myriandrus. B. was the scene of a battle between the Egyptians and Turks in 1832, when the latter were defeated.

BE'IRA, a Portuguese province, bounded N. by the provinces of Minho and Tras-os-Montes; S. by Estremadura and Alemtejo; E. by Spain; and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. It has an area of about 8576 square miles, and a pop. (1871) of 1,294,292. The surface is mountainous, and the soil on the plains sandy, and generally far from fertile. The mountain-slopes afford good pasturage for sheep and cattle. The products are corn, wine, oil, flax, and various kinds of fruit, and considerable attention is paid to the rearing of bees. Sea-salt is obtained at the coast. The river Douro waters the whole of its northern, and the Tagus, a portion of its southern, boundary. The Mondego and Vouga flow through its centre. Iron, coal, and marble are wrought in small quantity. There is little done in manufactures. The inhabitants are an industrious race of people. In 1835, the province was divided into Upper and Lower Beira, the former having Viseu and the latter Castel Branco for its capital.

BEIRAM, or BAIRAM, a Mohammedan fe[illegible] somewhat analogous to Easter. It commen[illegible] diately after the fast of Ramadan, or which corresponds to Lent. Bei[illegible] one o[illegible] two feasts the Moslems have in [illegible], it forward to with great intens[illegible] enhanced by the previous absti[illegible] is announced at Constantinople b[illegible] artillery, the beating of drums, [illegible] trumpets. Properly, it should terminate

but the Moslems in the capital think it no offence to their abstemious prophet to carry the festivities over two days; while in other parts of Turkey and Persia, they are often protracted a week or more. Dances, music, processions, &c., in which the women are permitted greater indulgence than usual, form prominent features of the feast; and at this time the different orders of the empire pay homage to the sultan. Seventy days after, the Moslems celebrate their only other feast ('the festival of the sacrifices'), called the *lesser* B., which is the day appointed by the Mecca pilgrims for slaying the victims, and was instituted in commemoration of the offering up of Isaac by Abraham. The lesser B. usually lasts three days, but it is not celebrated with anything like the pomp of the other. During the continuance of each of the festivals, only one religious service takes place. The Mohammedan year being the lunar one of 354 days, in the course of thirty-three years the festivals run through all the seasons.

BEIT is an Arabic word, signifying house, abode, or place, the equivalent of which in Hebrew is *Beth*. Thus, in the former language, we have *Beit-al-Haram*, 'the house of the sanctuary,' or 'the sacred house;' and in the latter, *Beth-el*, 'house of God;' *Beth-any*, 'place of dates;' *Beth-abara*, 'place of fords,' &c.

BEIT-EL-FAKIH (House of the Saint), a town of Tehama, on the Red Sea. Being the frontier town of the Egyptian government, it has a considerable trade in coffee, wax, gum, &c., which articles are exchanged for Indian piece goods and British shawls. It has a population of about 8000, and a citadel of some strength. The houses are built partly of mud and partly of brick, and roofed with branches of the date-tree. It is described by travellers as the hottest town in Tehama.

BEITU'LLAH (Arab., House of God), the spacious building or temple at Mecca, which contains the Kaaba. See MECCA and KAABA.

BEJA (the *Pax Julia* of the ancients), a town in the province of Alemtejo, Portugal, 36 miles south-south-west of Evora, with a population of 5500. It is fortified, its walls being flanked by 40 towers, has a castle and a cathedral, and manufactories of leather and earthenwares.

BEJAN, or BAJAN, the name of the first or 'freshman' class in some at least of the Scotch, and of old in many continental universities. The word is believed to be derived from the French *bec-jaune*, or yellow neb, a term used to designate a nestling or unfledged bird. The levying of *bejaunia*, or payments for 'first-footing' by students on entering college, was forbidden by the statutes of the university of Orleans in 1365, and of the university of Toulouse in 1401. The election of an *Abbas Bejaunorum*, or 'Abbot of the Greenhorns,' was prohibited by the statutes of the university of Paris in 1493. In the university of Vienna, the *bejan* was called *beanus*, a word of the same meaning, and no doubt of the same origin.

BEJAPU'R, a deserted city in the presidency of Bombay, lat. 16° 50' N., and long. 75° 48' E. It is situated to the south-east of Bombay, Poonah, and Satara, at the respective distances of 245, 170, and 130 miles, being on an affluent of the Kistna or Krishna, which flows into the Bay of Bengal, and nearly touching the west border of the Nizam's territories. B. was for centuries the flourishing capital of a powerful kingdom, falling therewith under various dynasties in succession, Hindu and Musulman, till, in 1686, it was captured by Aurungzebe. Thus stripped of its independence, B. speedily sank into the shadow of a mighty name, passing, during the early part of the 18th c., into the hands of the Mahrattas. On the overthrow of the Peishwa in 1818, it was assigned by the British to the dependent Rajah of Satara; being resumed, however, by the donors on the extinction of the reigning family in 1848. Now that a gradual decay has done its worst, B., as its own mausoleum, presents a contrast perhaps unequalled in the world. Lofty walls of hewn stone, still entire, with an imposing background of cupolas and minarets, enclose the silent and desolate fragments of a city which is said to have contained 100,000 dwellings, and to have been divided into quarters that measured their circuit by leagues. With the exception of an ancient temple, the sole relic of aboriginal domination, the ruins are of Mohammedan origin, such as beautiful mosques, colossal tombs, and a fort of more than 6 miles in circuit, with an inner citadel. In addition to the architectural remains, one of the wonders of the place is, perhaps, the largest piece of brass ordnance in existence, cast at Ahmednuggur, where the mould may still be seen. Latterly, all these monuments of the instability of human grandeur have been carefully preserved, both the Rajah of Satara and the British government having done everything to prevent further decay and dilapidation. Pop. (1872) 13,245.

BEKAA, the Cœle-Syria of the ancients, the 'Plain of Lebanon' of the Old Testament, and El Bekaa (the Valley) of the natives of Syria, is enclosed between the parallel ranges of Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, which mountains it divides, and extends about 90 miles from north to south, its greatest width being about 12 miles. It is the most rich and beautiful plain in Syria; but although the soil is good, and water abundant from the numerous mountain-springs, a very small portion of it is cultivated. It is very much frequented by the Arabs who bring down their young horses in the spring-time to graze on the plain.

BEKE, CHARLES THEOPHILUS, Ph.D., &c., a modern English traveller, was born in London, October 10, 1800; received a commercial education; afterwards studied law in Lincoln's Inn, and devoted a great part of his attention to ancient history, philology, and ethnography. The results of these studies first appeared in his work, *Origines Biblicæ*, or researches in primeval history, vol. i. (Lond. 1834). His historical and geographical studies of the East led B. to consider the great importance of Abyssinia for intercourse with Central Africa; but his proposals to undertake an exploring journey were declined by the government and by several learned societies. Supported only by private individuals, he joined in Abyssinia the party led by Major Harris, and distinguished himself by the exploration of Godshem and the countries lying to the south, previously almost unknown to Europe. The results of these researches appeared partly in several journals, and in *Abyssinia, a Statement of Facts*, &c. (2d ed., Lond. 1846). Having returned to Europe, he excited the attention of geographers by his publications: the *Essay on the Nile and its Tributaries* (Lond. 1847); *On the Sources of the Nile* (1849); and by his *Mémoire Justificatif en Réhabilitation des Pères Paez et Lobo* (Paris 1848). In 1861, Dr and Mrs B. made a journey to Harran; and undertook in 1865 a fruitless mission to Abyssinia, to obtain the release of the captives. At the commencement of 1874, Dr B. started for the region at the head of the Red Sea, where he claimed (though his views are disputed) to have discovered Mount Sinai, east of the Gulf of Akabah, and not west as generally supposed. He died in July of the same year, being engaged at the time on an account of his journey to Sinai. He had enjoyed a civil list pension since 1870.

BEKES, or BEKESVAR, a town of Hungary, capital of the county of the same name, and situated at the confluence of the Black and White Körös. Pop. 22,550, who do a trade in cattle, corn, and honey.

BEKKER, IMMANUEL, a German philologist, distinguished by his recensions of the texts of Greek and Roman classics, was born in Berlin, 1785; studied in Halle, 1803—1807, and was the most eminent pupil of F. A. Wolf. Afterwards, he was engaged at Paris on the *Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum*. The results of his researches in the libraries of Italy (1817—1819) appear in his *Anecdota Græca* (3 vols., Berlin, 1814—1821), and his numerous recensions of texts derived solely from MSS., and independently of printed editions. The writers included in these recensions are Plato, the Attic orators, Aristotle, Sextus Empiricus, Thucydides, Theognis, Aristophanes, &c. He became professor at Berlin in 1810, and died in 1871.

BEL AND THE DRAGON, an apocryphal book of the Old Testament. It does not seem to have been accepted as inspired by the Jewish Church, nor is there any proof that a Hebrew or Chaldee version of the story ever existed. Jerome considered it a 'fable,' an opinion in which most modern readers will coincide. It is, nevertheless, read for edification both in the Roman Catholic and Anglo-Catholic churches: in the former, on Ash Wednesday; in the latter, on the 23d of November. According to Jahn, the aim of the writer was 'to warn against the sin of idolatry some of his brethren who had embraced Egyptian superstitions.'

BELA, the name of four Hungarian kings of the family of Arpad.—B. I. (1061—1063) energetically suppressed the last attempt to restore heathenism, and by the introduction of a fixed standard of measures, weights, and coinage, virtually founded the commerce of Hungary. He was also the first to introduce the representative system into the diet, by appointing, in lieu of the collective nobility, two nobles only from each of the different counties.—B. II., surnamed 'the Blind,' 1131—1141, was entirely under the guidance of his bloodthirsty spouse, Helena, and after her decease, drank himself to death.—B. III., 1174—1196. Educated in Constantinople, he introduced Byzantine customs and culture into his own country, which was certainly favourable to its social development, though, on the other hand, his evident devotion to the Greek emperor Emmanuel threatened its political independence.—B. IV., 1235—1270, son of that Andreas from whom the nobles extorted the 'Golden Bull,' Hungary's Magna Charta. His chief aim was to humble the nobility, and restore the royal power to its former proportions; and he thus roused a spirit of universal discontent, which led to a party among the nobles calling in the Austrian duke, Frederick II., to their aid; but, in the year 1236, he was conquered by B., and forced to pay tribute. Before long, however, the king had to seek a refuge with his discomfited foe; for the Mongols, who invaded Hungary in 1241, defeated him on the Sajo, and put him to flight. It was only after robbing him of all the treasure he had managed to save, and extorting from him three of his counties, that Frederick II. granted the royal fugitive a shelter in Austria, where he remained till the Mongols, having heard of the death of their khan, left the country they had devastated. B. now made it his especial care, by rebuilding the destroyed villages, and inviting new settlers thither, to do away with the tokens of that terrible invasion; and he so far succeeded as to be able, in 1246, to repay Frederick's inhospitality by defeating him at Vienna, and to repulse a second attempt at Mongolian invasion. He died in 1270, his last years having been embittered by an attempt at rebellion on the part of his son Stephen.

BELAYING, one of the many modes of fastening ropes on shipboard. It is effected by winding a rope, generally a part of the running rigging, round a piece of wood called a cleat or a kevel, or else round a belaying-pin, which is an ashen staff from twelve to sixteen inches in length.

BELBEY'S (ancient *Bubastis Agria*), a town of 5000 inhabitants, situated on the east arm of the Nile, Lower Egypt, and 28 miles north-north-east of Cairo. It is enclosed by earthen ramparts, has numerous mosques, and is one of the stations on the route from Cairo to Suez, and from Egypt to Syria.

BELCHER, SIR EDWARD, a distinguished English naval officer, born in 1799, entered the navy in 1812 as a first-class volunteer, was soon made a midshipman, and in 1816 took part in the bombardment of Algiers. In 1825, B. was appointed assistant-surveyor to the expedition about to explore Behring's Strait under Captain Beechey; in 1829, he was raised to the rank of commander. 1836 saw him in command of the *Sulphur*, commissioned to explore the western coasts of America and the Indies. He was absent six years, in which time he had sailed round the world. During this voyage he rendered important services in the Canton river to Lord Gough, whose successes over the Chinese were greatly due to B.'s soundings and reconnaissances pushed into the interior. On his return, he published a narrative of the voyage; and in 1843, in consideration of his services, he was made a post-captain, and knighted. After being employed on surveying service in the East Indies, he was, in 1852, appointed to the command of the expedition sent out by government to search for Sir John Franklin. B. has published *The Last of the Arctic Voyages* (Lond. 1855); *Narrative of a Voyage to the East Indies in* 1843—1845; and *Horace Edward Brenton*, a novel (1856). In 1861 he became rear-admiral, in 1866 vice-admiral, and in 1867 K.C.B. He retired in 1866.

BELCHI'TÉ, a town of Spain, in the province of Saragossa, about 22 miles south-south-east of the city of that name, celebrated as the place where, in June 18, 1809, the French, under Suchet, completely routed the Spanish under General Blake, capturing all their guns, 10 in number, with a loss of only 40 men.

BELE'M, a town of Portugal, on the right bank of the Tagus, 2 miles south-west of Lisbon, of which it may be said to form a fashionable suburb. It has an iron foundry, a custom-house, and quarantine establishment, a tower defending the entrance of the river. It is historically interesting as the place from whence Vasco da Gama set sail on his voyage of oriental discovery. It was taken in November 1807 by the French, the royal family of Portugal embarking from its quay for Brazil as they entered. In 1833 it was occupied by Dom Pedro's troops.

BELE'M, or PARA', a city of Brazil, on the right bank of the Para, the most southerly arm of the estuary of the Amazon. See PARA.

BE'LEMNITES (Gr. *belemnon*, a dart or arrow), an interesting genus of fossil cephalopodous *Mollusca*, the type of a family called *Belemnitidæ*, to the whole of which the name B. is very generally extended, closely allied to the *Sepiadæ*, or Cuttle (q. v.) family. No recent species of B. is known: fossil species are very numerous, and are found in all the oolitic and cretaceous strata, from the lowest lias to the upper chalk, some of which are filled with myriads of their

remains. These remains are generally those of the shell alone, which is now known to have been an internal shell, entirely included within the body of the animal, like that of the cuttle. The shell, as

Belemnites pistiliformis.

seen in the most perfect specimens, is double, consisting of a conical chambered portion (the *phragmocone*), inserted into a longer, solid, somewhat conical or tapering, and pointed sheath. The space between the phragmocone and sheath is occupied either with radiating fibres or conical layers. The chambers of the shell are connected by a tube (*siphuncle*), so that the animal probably had the power of ascending and descending rapidly in the water. Its arms are known, from some singularly perfect specimens, to have been furnished with horny hooks; and these it probably fixed upon a fish, and descended with its prey to the bottom, like the hooked calamaries (q. v.) of the present seas. Remains of an ink-bag, like that of the cuttle, have been found in the last and largest chambers of the B.; but remains of this chamber, which must have contained all the viscera of the animal, are very rarely preserved, the shell having been very thin at this part. The part most commonly found, and generally known by the name of belemnite, is the solid *mucro*, or point into which the sheath was prolonged behind the chambered shell. These have received such popular names as Arrowheads, Petrified Fingers, Spectre-candles, Picks, Thunder-stones, &c., from their form, or from the notions entertained of their nature and origin. B. appear to have been of very different sizes; in some of the largest, the mere *mucro* is 10 inches long, and the entire animal, with its arms outstretched, must have been several feet in length.

BELFA'ST, the chief town of the county of Antrim and province of Ulster in Ireland. This great seaport stands at the embouchure of the Lagan, at the head of Belfast Lough, 12 miles from the Irish Sea, 101 north of Dublin, 36 north-east of Armagh, 130 south-west of Glasgow, and 150 north-west of Liverpool. The site is chiefly on an alluvial deposit not more than 6 feet above the sea-level, and reclaimed from the marshes of the Lagan. On the land-side, it is picturesquely bounded by the ridges of Divis (1567 feet high), and Cave Hill (1185 feet). The general aspect of B. is indicative of life and prosperity, exhibiting all the trade and manufacture of Glasgow and Manchester, with far less of their smoke and dirt. Many of the streets, especially in the White Linen Hall quarter, are well built and spacious. The mercantile quarter lies chiefly near the extensive and well-built quays. The manufactories are mostly on the rising-ground on the north and west of the town. Numerous villas sprinkle the northern shores of the bay, as well as the elevated suburb of Malone to the south. The chief public buildings are Queen's College, a beautiful structure in the Tudor style, opened in 1849, with a revenue of £7000 from the consolidated fund; Royal Academical Institution, incorporated in 1810, affiliated to the London University, and comprising an elementary and collegiate department, and a school of design; Museum, Linen Hall, Commercial and Corn Exchanges, churches, and banks. The fine Botanic Gardens of the Natural History Society occupy 17 acres. B. is the chief seat of the trade and manufactures of Ireland, and is second only to Dublin as an Irish port. The staple manufactures are linen and cotton. The linen manufacture dates from 1637. Cotton-spinning by machinery dates from 1777, and linen from 1806. The other chief branches of industry are linen and cotton weaving, bleaching, dyeing, calico-printing, and iron founding. There are many flour and oil mills, chemical works, breweries, alabaster and barilla mills, saw-mills, ship-building, rope, and sail-cloth yards. The iron ship-building yard on Queen's Island employs upwards of 2000 hands. The inland trade is carried on by the Lagan, by the Ulster Canal, and by three railways. The harbour is undergoing very extensive improvements, which, when completed, will make B. one of the first-class ports of the United Kingdom. Before the recent improvements there were only 2 tidal docks; between 1866 and 1872, 5 new docks and a tidal basin, with about 25 acres of water area, have been opened. On these a sum of £279,968 has been expended, making the total assets of the commissioners charged with the improvements amount to £823,655. The imports of B. were, in 1866, valued at £12,417,000; the exports about £11,915,000. In 1872, 7999 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 1,266,364 tons, entered the port; and 3373, of 748,809 tons, cleared. The most important branch of commerce is the Channel trade. Pop. (1821) 37,000; (1851) 103,000; (1871) 174,394. B. is governed by a corporation of 10 aldermen—one being mayor—and 30 councillors. It returns 2 members to parliament. B. was destroyed by Edward Bruce in the 14th c., but became an important town since 1604, receiving a charter in 1611. In the great civil war, the inhabitants at first joined the parliament, but afterwards became royalists.

BELFORT, or BEFORT, a town of France, till 1870 in the department of Haut-Rhin. It now gives its name to a small territory (234 sq. m.) (*Territoire de Belfort*), consisting of those portions of Haut-Rhin which, seized by Germans during the war of 1870—1871, were restored to France by the preliminaries of peace arranged at Versailles 26th February 1871. The strategical importance of B. was recognised by France on its cession by Austria in 1648, and it was fortified by Vauban. At the outbreak of the war between France and Germany in 1870, B. was a fortress of the first rank; and as such maintained, from 3d December 1870 till 16th February 1871, a gallant defence against the German troops. It then capitulated, the defenders being permitted to march out with all the honours of war. B. was also besieged by the allies in 1814. B. has a brisk trade. Pop. (1872) 7910.

BELFRY (Fr. *beffroi*), a word of doubtful origin; a bell-tower, or turret, usually forming part of a church, but sometimes detached from it—as at Evesham and Berkeley, in England, and still more frequently in Italy. See CAMPANILE. Where a church was built in a deep glen, the belfry was perched on a neighbouring height, as at St Feve and elsewhere in Cornwall, and at Ardclach and Aldbar in Scotland. At this last place, the bell was hung upon a tree, as was common enough in Scotland at the close of the 17th c. Where the B. consists of a mere turret, it is often called a *bell-gable* or *bell-cote*, and is always placed on the west end of the church; a smaller one being sometimes placed at the east end, which is for the sanctus bell, for which reason it is placed over the altar. Municipal belfries are more common on the continent than in this country. When the burghs began to rise into importance after the 12th c., they asserted their right to have bells to call the burghers together for

council or for action. Thus detached belfries arose in the heart of towns. At a later date, they often became part of the *maison de ville*, or town-house, as

Belfry or Bell-gable, Idbury, Oxfordshire.

at Glasgow and Aberdeen, in this country; at St Quentin and Douai, in France; and at Brussels, in Belgium.

BE'LGÆ, the name given by Cæsar to the warlike tribes which in his time occupied that one of the great divisions of Gallia which embraced part of the basin of the Seine, the basin of the Somme, of the Scheldt, of the Maas, and of the Moselle, which itself belongs to the basin of the Rhine. Their country was level, containing no mountains of any height, except the Vosges in the south. The name seems to have originally designated several powerful tribes inhabiting the basin of the Seine, and to have been afterwards used by Cæsar as a general appellation for all the peoples north of that river. These B. were, in all probability, chiefly of Celtic origin, but within their territories were to be found both pure and mixed Germans.

When South Britain was invaded by Cæsar, he found that B. from the opposite shores of Gaul had preceded him, and were settled in Kent and Sussex, having driven the aborigines into the interior. The B. in Britain resisted for nearly a century the Roman power, but were finally forced to yield to it. Cæsar regarded them as German, but they rather seem to have belonged to the Celtic portion of the Gallic Belgæ. Certainly, none of the names of their three chief towns are Germanic. Aquæ Solis (Bath) is Latin; Ischalis and Venta (Ilchester and Winchester), British.

BELGAU'M, the chief city of a district of the same name in the presidency of Bombay, situated to the east of the dividing ridge of the West Ghauts, at a height of about 2500 feet above the sea. Its lat. is 15° 50′ N., and long. 74° 36′ E., its distance to the north-west of Dharwar being 42 miles. B. possesses a fort, which, in 1818, was taken from the Peishwa by the British. Under its new masters, the place has made considerable progress. It has a superior institution for the education of native youths, which is supported at once by the neighbouring princes, the British government, and private individuals. The average annual rainfall at B. is about 36 inches. In 1848, the citizens spontaneously subscribed a considerable sum for the complete reconstruction of their roads and lanes—a liberality which, besides drawing forth a supplementary grant of public money, roused the emulation of adjacent towns and villages. B. is one of the principal military stations of the presidency, and as such it was, in 1857, the scene of plotting, if not of mutiny, in common with Kolapore, Poonah, Satara, &c. Area of B. district, 4591 sq. m.; pop. (1872) 842,503; pop. of town, 21,455.

BELGIOJO'SO, a town of Lombardy, North Italy, pleasantly situated in a fruitful plain between the Po and the Olona, 9 miles east of Pavia. It has a fine aqueduct and castle, in which Francis I. spent a night previous to the disastrous battle of Pavia, which he was made prisoner. The Austrian general Gyulai made B. his head-quarters after his defeat at Magenta, June 4—5, 1859. Pop. 4000.

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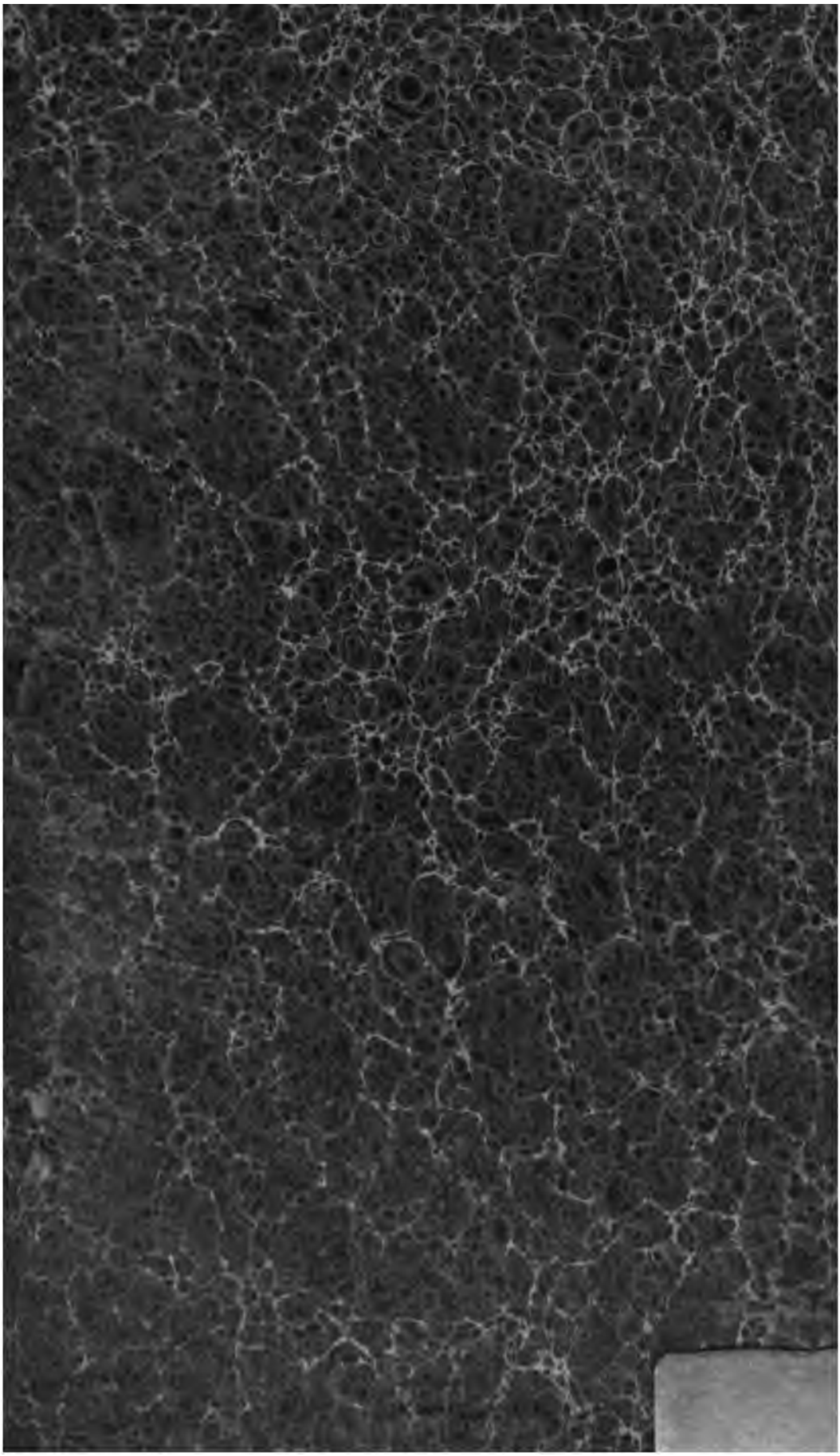
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